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Preface

A New Conception of the Knowledge Base of a Profession

The Encyclopedia of Educational Leadership and Administration was an enormous undertaking. After 2 years of work, over 260 professors, graduate students, practitioners, and association officials contributed more than 600 individual entries. The authors came from 125 universities, colleges, school districts, organizations, and associations in 36 states and several provinces of Canada. Their job was to describe the theories, research, terms, concepts, ideas, and histories that represent educational leadership and school administration as it is taught in preparation programs and practiced in schools and colleges today.

The initial list of entries came from culled lists of the most popular general texts in educational leadership and school administration published within the past 25 years, as well as the two handbooks of research in educational administration, edited by Norman J. Boyan in 1988 and Joseph Murphy and Karen Seashore Louis in 1999. Specialized texts representing teaching and learning, curriculum, psychology and motivation, budgeting and finance, law, statistics, research, personnel management, planning, and supervision were also consulted. In addition, professors conducting research were also encouraged to submit possible entries that were more recent and cutting-edge in nature.

The result is a picture of the most comprehensive knowledge base of educational leadership and school administration that has, as yet, been compiled. This representation of the “knowledge base” in the Encyclopedia represents the ideas, topics, concepts, terms, and theories that continue to resonate within the profession itself. Editing this work, it is clear to me that what we have is not a knowledge base as a platform resting on metaphorical pillars of support, but a knowledge dynamic, that is, clusters of ideas and perspectives in juxtaposition with one another, often complimentary and sometimes contradictory, shifting and moving in simultaneously constructed fields. These multidimensional clusters are carried as living constructs in our applied field, and like the physical universe itself, are expanding. They are not “out there” somewhere, but “in there” in the minds, hearts, and aspirations of those toiling in the profession.

This work makes clear that attempts to erect professional standards on a “technical core” or partial knowledge base would be to recognize only a percentage of the entries in this Encyclopedia. The danger of this approach, now used in the construction of the national standards for educational leaders, would leave those who prepare future educational leaders with a false impression that they might somehow be doing the job by paying attention only to such a “core.” They do so at their peril. This is a false economy, not only from the perspective of the sunken and operational costs of erecting a competent preparation program but also of graduating future leaders who are totally prepared to face the challenges of leadership they will confront in the world of practice.

Unfortunately, in the past, we have mistakenly thought that our profession advanced somewhat linearly, and our constructed landscapes reflected this picture. That was the idea of progress. From such a metaphor firmly in our minds, some scholars would do a word search of a concept in the literature, and after a frequency count (and finding no more citations after a certain date) pronounce the concept, idea, or theory alive or dead. Some even referred to these portraits conveniently shelved in artificial periods as a kind of “paradigm shift.” This is incredibly naive. For example, Frederick Taylor’s scientific management is rarely cited.
in the literature any more, but its main concepts have been renamed and are still in vigorous motion within our field. We see within this *Encyclopedia* that concepts and ideas take on new lives. They mutate like viruses. They take on different forms and find new adherents. And the unschooled in our ranks, or politicians and pundits outside of them equally unschooled, continue to advance agendas that have a long history and use renamed notions that have a whole lot of past baggage of which they were unaware. They then act surprised when there is no “reform.”

This new idea of a dynamic and expanding knowledge universe ought to make us wary of establishing a set of standards that draw the accreditation borders too tightly around preparation programs. Only dormant programs contain no anomalies, no ambiguities, or no contradictions. Good preparation programs will undoubtedly reflect uncertainty as well as internal inconsistencies if they are vibrant and rigorous, because no one person or agency controls the ideas, concepts, themes, or theories that are in contention for the development and application of new knowledge, especially not in a democracy. This is even more the case at research universities, where faculties are pushing the borders of the known. Doubt rather than certainty is the water of life for a program and a profession that is growing.

Educational leadership/school administration has been a service profession. School leaders were citizens of communities expected to be in service to all children. The new rhetoric of consumerism and the market metaphors aimed at “bottom-line” thinking are propelling the profession to consider changing that constellation to one anchored in the profit motive. Not that that seductive call has not always been around, at least since Raymond Callahan described it at the beginning of the last century. But somehow in the past, both professors and future educational leaders could take the metaphors with a grain of salt, and while the rhetoric was in the air, the service ethic was still the norm of the day. There is now a full-scale assault on the service ethic of the profession. The new language is finding its way into circulation and is represented in the *Encyclopedia* as well.

So the reader should know that the terms, ideas, concepts, research, and theories that are presented in this *Encyclopedia* are not those necessarily recommended by the editor, authors, or the publishers. They are merely in circulation. They animate our thinking, positively or negatively. Traces of their shadows from historical contexts color our vocabulary and shape our conceptual fields. They define the possibilities. They include and exclude. They reveal and they conceal. The *Encyclopedia* is testimony to this continuous and contentious process.

The *Encyclopedia* also includes the people whose ideas, aspirations, and lives have contributed much to the profession. There are more than 75 short biographical sketches in these pages. They include the founders of the field, such as Ellwood Cubberley, and famous professors, such as Walter Cocking, Andrew Halpin, and Jack Culbertson. Skillful practitioners such as Ella Flagg Young, Barbara Sizemore, Deborah Meier, Susan Miller Dorsey, Margaret Haley, and William Torrey Harris are also included. And there are the thinkers whose ideas still resonate loudly in education, such as Aristotle, Plato, John Dewey, B. F. Skinner, Abraham Maslow, Jean Piaget, and Sigmund Freud, who have left a lasting imprint. The increasing need to be more inclusive as the schools attempt to serve an increasingly diverse student body has brought strong themes of civil rights and social justice to the forefront. For this reason, the *Encyclopedia* includes biographies of Mary McLeod Bethune, Septima Clark, Thurgood Marshall, Fanny Coppin, Anna Cooper, W. E. B. Du Bois, Harry Hay, Martin Luther King Jr., Cesar Chavez, Carter Woodson, and Felicitas Mendez. The biographies also include thinkers from the business field whose ideas can still be found, some for better or worse, in educational leadership and school administration: Frederick Taylor, Chester I. Barnard, W. Edwards Deming, Mary Parker Follett, and Douglas McGregor. Thinkers in disciplines that impact our applied field are also present, such as Max Weber, Thomas Kuhn, Carl Jung, Karl Marx, and Milton Friedman. The fact that the writings of such individuals have impacted educational leadership and school administration is testimony to the fact that ideas are the most contagious of all things in life. They are immortal and transcendent in the human story.

I would like to thank Dean Thomas James at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill for his support in granting me a leave to complete this work. As an educational historian, Dean James understood the importance of such a venture as vital to advancing a professional field of studies. It is my hope that the result will be worth his trust in the efficacy of the project.

—Fenwick W. English, General Editor

The R. Wendell Eaves Distinguished Professor of Educational Leadership

School of Education

University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
About the Editor

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ACADEMIC FREEDOM

Academic freedom refers to the right of teachers to teach what they want in their classrooms. This concept originated in German universities during the nineteenth century for the purpose of allowing professors to teach subjects they considered educationally appropriate. In today’s elementary and secondary schools, academic freedom is limited due to the recognition that children are impressionable and could be affected by certain subject matters, based upon the children’s age, experience, and readiness to understand the subject. Thus, a teacher’s First Amendment right to free speech is weighed against his or her professional obligation to provide appropriate, relevant subject content consistent with the teaching assignment and the students’ maturity.

In general, academic freedom is more accepted on college and university campuses than in elementary and secondary public schools. State and local school boards, state legislatures, as well as school administrators, often develop and implement curriculum policies and guidelines to manage and control what is presented in elementary and secondary classrooms. Teachers are not permitted to ignore or omit prescribed course content by asserting academic freedom. Courts have found that teachers may not use their classrooms to promote personal or political agendas, teachers may not encourage students to accept beliefs, teachers may not encourage students to attend meetings, and teachers may not provide their own opinions about certain controversial issues or disregard parents’ concerns about religious groups.

Reading assignments or a teacher’s use of certain words that could be considered offensive have been questioned by parents, school administrators, and school boards. However, when teachers assign readings for educational purposes that the teacher believes are respectable and published in accepted books or journals, courts generally uphold the teacher’s assignment, particularly if a student can choose an alternate one. In other cases, courts have determined that while teachers have some academic freedom in choosing and using words within their educational presentations to students, they do not have a license to say or to write whatever they choose in the classroom. Often, sanctioning a teacher for inappropriate language rests upon the existence of an appropriate school rule.

When teachers issue their own personal views of controversial subjects or allow what could be considered inappropriate activities, school boards have recommended their dismissal. While teachers claim such actions infringe on their academic freedom in their classrooms, school boards, parents, or school administrators may object. Teachers have been discharged for presenting what the school administration deems inappropriate information to their classes. Teachers have been terminated for insubordination and conduct unbecoming a teacher for showing “R-rated” movies to students and for distributing information related to their personal views on controversial issues. Teachers, for example, have been fired for choosing inappropriate plays, for allowing excessive profanity in students’ creative projects, and for compelling students to attend a sexually explicit AIDS awareness assembly without following the school policy of notifying parents in advance. Courts have ruled that teachers do not have a First Amendment right of academic freedom to employ classroom techniques banned by their school boards.
The U.S. Supreme Court has addressed removal of books from a school library. It determined that there are constitutionally legitimate standards that could be applied in determining a book’s removal, including its relevance to the curriculum and appropriateness for student age levels. A book can be legitimately excluded from a school library if it is deemed obscene for minors, pervasively vulgar, or offensive in its language. However, school authorities may not exercise their discretion in the removal of books for political purposes or to deny students access to ideas with which school authorities disagree.

Courts have often found that teachers’ statements having sexual content are unprotected speech under the First Amendment. Courts often find that a teacher’s statement regarding sexual behavior lacks any pedagogical justification and thus is considered unprotected speech. Courts have limited teachers’ speech regarding abortion of Down syndrome fetuses, discussion of rumors about student sexual intercourse, and the posting of the American Library Association’s pamphlet listing banned books.

Current academic freedom issues often revolve around the scope of employment issues. Legally, tenure does not bestow on the teacher a vested right to a specific school or to a specific class level of students within any school. Teachers must accept teaching assignments in their areas of competence, and declining to accept teaching assignments related to one’s education or experience has been grounds for teacher dismissal. There is general judicial consensus that insubordination as a cause for discharge must be intentional.

Other academic freedom issues include freedom of association, right to hold office, participation in political campaigns, and dress and grooming matters. While teachers enjoy the First Amendment guarantee to peacefully assemble, they are advised to exercise this right in light of the nature and importance of their positions as public employees and role models to children. Mere membership in subversive organizations is not sufficient itself to justify dismissal, but to avoid punishment, teachers have to demonstrate that they have not participated in an unlawful activity or did not intend to achieve an unlawful objective. State laws vary regarding the extent to which school personnel may legally participate in political activities and hold public office. In general, public officials, including teachers, are prohibited from using their position for personal gain. Regarding dress and grooming issues, courts generally do not disagree with the authority of school officials to regulate a teacher’s appearance that may disrupt the educational process.

Students do not lose their constitutional rights while at school, but these rights can be limited by schools through existing school rules and regulations. Students maintain their First Amendment right of free speech, including political symbolic speech such as the wearing of armbands, but if the speech causes a material or substantial disruption to the educational process, students may be disciplined. School boards may make rules prohibiting the use of lewd, obscene, profane language or gestures under its authority to teach students how to conduct civil and effective public discourse and to prevent disruption of school educational activities.

—Vivian Hopp Gordon

See also accountability; conflict management; contracts, with teacher unions; discrimination; fundamentalism; gender studies, in educational leadership; governance; power; sexism (glass ceiling)

Further Readings and References


ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability refers to official efforts to ensure that public schools are answerable to a variety of stakeholders. Unlike the principle of responsibility, which can be exercised and validated through informal norms and voluntary behavior by public officials, the principle of accountability requires external validation through formal policies, structures, processes, and outcomes. Accountability extends beyond the norms of professional self-regulation purportedly to ensure that schooling systems remain answerable to the
public. Given a breadth of approaches directed toward legitimating schools’ public responsiveness, accountability can be manifested through a variety of mechanisms, including any of the following: electoral processes; laws and regulations; bureaucratic or judicial oversight; standards for students or programs; assessments of student learning; disclosure and reporting to the public of school district, school, teacher, or student performance; rewards and sanctions designed to improve performance of any of these entities; accreditation of programs; and licensure standards. Accountability processes may be initiated by government, specific interest groups, or nongovernmental associations.

DEVELOPMENT OF ACCOUNTABILITY CONCEPTS

Accountability is a basic feature of democratic theory and democratic institutions. Accordingly, it has a long, complex history. Aristotle argued for the advantages of democracy over oligarchy and autocracy by recommending that the elected face an accounting at the end of their terms. He further asserted that the governed should retain the right to call republicans to account as insurance for just rule. In England, parliamentary democracy evolved with the concept that the king is answerable for his actions. The subsequent emergence of the idea of popular sovereignty also established the idea that government officials should represent and be held to account for addressing the general will and welfare either through direct democracy or representative institutions.

In the political culture of the United States, public education is one of the political institutions most closely identified with direct democracy through the tradition (and to a degree, the myth) of local control. In most jurisdictions, locally elected school boards govern public schools, and school officials are required or expected to afford opportunities for citizens to participate directly in setting or implementing policies. This ideal of direct democracy holds a near-sacred status in our political culture. The opportunity to elect school board members and to participate in local school affairs is a powerful symbol of U.S. commitment to democratic values.

Many efforts to hold schools accountable can be understood as an enactment of democratic symbolism. Accountability efforts are institutional features intended to legitimate public school systems in the eyes of the public. Local school systems face a legion of ways to account to parents, students, employers, and taxpayers. Across the various U.S. individual states and a number of Westernized countries, accountability policy requirements differ according to local expectations for educational purposes and missions and identify no fewer than six kinds of accountability strategies in education: bureaucratic, legal, professional, political, moral, and market.

Despite its institutionalized character, public demands for accountability tend to ebb and flow. Accountability demands have increased in recent decades. These demands tend to reflect declining public trust in government and, for that matter, diminished public confidence in elites generally. The causes of such populist sentiment are many, stemming from U.S. political events such as the Watergate crisis, social cultural norms questioning forms and exercise of authority, the resurgence of politically conservative critiques of government, and many other factors. As an institution embedded in a political context, the public schooling enterprise mirrors these causal developments and has been an arena where accountability demands have climbed sharply.

As a feature of schooling’s political culture, U.S. history has shaped many demands for school accountability. The American public school system emerged in the nineteenth and early twentieth century as a professionally operated, bureaucratic institution seeking to emulate scientific management principles in business. School systems in large jurisdictions evolved hierarchical bureaucracies designed to provide oversight of local schools. At the state level, the same bureaucratic approach led to an extensive body of state laws and regulations affecting every aspect of schooling, thereby reinforcing bureaucratic regulation at the local level.

This system of bureaucratic accountability has encountered withering criticism as ineffectual, costly, and contributing to performance failures. Almost all reformers have demanded greater accountability from the educational system, but in different ways. Through multiple iterations, U.S. educational accountability policies have evolved over more than three decades as reflections of this criticism. Accountability policies cover an extremely wide range of concerns. Initially, some decades ago, they reflected state and national concerns over civil rights, desegregation, students’ confidentiality rights, and public access to education for children with disabilities, as well as equal, efficient, and adequate funding. In addition, the accountability
movement has turned its attention to a variety of other concerns, such as student achievement, literacy, teacher qualifications, class sizes, and public disclosure of school performance. What most of these reform nostrums share is a conviction that the traditional bureaucratic model of schooling needs to be reformed and made more accountable, even if some of the solutions are themselves reinventions of bureaucratic control.

A variety of platforms structure educational accountability movements. At least nine alternatives have been offered in response to criticisms of the bureaucratic model of schooling. Given the many meanings that are imputed to the idea of accountability, we find it useful to distinguish between earlier accountability concepts and those that are in currency today. The first four approaches focus on the following: (a) efficiency, (b) expanding civil rights, (c) citizen participation, and (d) reducing costs. These earlier approaches all were oriented toward making the existing education system work more effectively. While they are still in use today, these are not the main ideas associated with accountability among current political discourses.

The five more recent approaches to accountability represent two significant shifts in discourse and thinking about accountability. First, they shift to an advocacy for more fundamental transformations of the current educational system, such as attempts to create a more coherent governance system to promote higher student achievement. In addition, these more recent approaches shift control of governance to new authorities, such as mayors or families in market arrangements, and provide heightened oversight of failing school districts and failing schools. Finally, the new approaches offer a variety of attempts to redefine professional preparation and licensure.

**EARLIER ATTEMPTS AT MAKING K–12 EDUCATION MORE ACCOUNTABLE**

Efficiency, effectiveness, and access dominated early attempts at establishing school system accountability. Among these early attempts, four efforts gained currency: (a) efficiency, (b) expanding civil rights, (c) citizen participation, and (d) reducing costs.

**Improve Efficiency:**

Rationalize the System

Many educational accountability policies extend economically driven efficiency models that have bedeviled schooling since before the turn of the twentieth century. While some educational policies define accountability as a reckoning of the efficiency of public schools’ production of an educated citizenry, such a simplistic algorithm ignores the diversity of accountability initiatives that exceed mere cost-benefit analysis.

First, public education has been caught up in the broader societal discussion about how to make government more efficient. Often these rationalizing ideas were advocated based on their purported success in the private sector. In the 1960s and 1970s, a variety of experiments were undertaken at all levels of government, including school systems, to introduce new planning and budgeting techniques, such as Planning, Programming, and Budgeting System (PPBS), and to decentralize operations and services. By the 1990s, these rationalizers were advocating “reinventing government” with a variety of proposals to streamline and downsize government. In public education, “contracting out” for support services such as transportation and food service was broadened to core education functions such as instructional programs and even management. All this privatization has been defended in the name of introducing greater accountability for efficiency and effective performance.

**Expand Civil Rights**

The civil rights movement of the 1960s, building on the legacy of the landmark U.S. Supreme Court decision Brown v. Board of Education, ushered in a series of federal, state, and local laws and legal decisions designed to prohibit racial discrimination. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discrimination based on race, color, and national origin. Discrimination on the basis of disability is prohibited by Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1975. Other key pieces of civil rights legislation include the Age Discrimination Act of 1975 and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990. Also, Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 prohibits discrimination on the basis of gender, subjecting schooling to further civil rights protections.

The Office of Civil Rights in the U.S. Department of Education at the federal level is responsible for enforcement of many of these civil rights protections, as well as by their counterpart agencies elsewhere at all levels of government. The mission of the Office of
Civil Rights (OCR), according to its Web site (www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/aboutocr.html), is ensuring equal access to education and promoting educational excellence through civil rights enforcement. In addition, OCR has the power to revoke federal education funds to recipients of those funds who violate these laws. This combination of legal protections and bureaucratic enforcement powers creates a potent set of accountability measures surrounding civil rights in education. However, it is important to point out that these laws and enforcement structures have not eliminated racial segregation in schooling or various kinds of prohibited discrimination against protected groups.

Why? The answer is complicated but can be explained by the limits of the antidiscrimination laws in regulating private conduct. For example, most middle-class Americans, African American and White, prefer to live in neighborhoods with individuals similar to themselves, with the de facto result that schools for their children are segregated by income and community levels of educational attainment. Also, in recent decades, federal courts have retrenched on an earlier generation of court decisions promoting desegregation or other protections, reflecting a new generation of more conservative judges appointed to the bench. While this form of accountability focused on guaranteeing equal treatment and equal access to public services for all citizens remains the law of the land, political leadership and political coalitions supporting civil rights are much weaker than several decades ago.

Expand Citizen Participation

When citizens are dissatisfied with the way government is operating, a populist response is to increase the representativeness of the system. Community control was one reform thrust of the civil rights movement, and it resulted in various efforts to decentralize and expand citizen influence in New York City and elsewhere in the late 1960s and 1970s. In 1988, the Chicago school system was reformed to give authority to local school councils. Kentucky included school-based councils in the 1990 Kentucky Education Reform Act, sparking a number of similar reform requirements for parental and teacher participation in school governance in Texas, Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia. While these councils are still intact, most other examples of participatory democracy have been eliminated. In 1997, New York City eliminated its 32 high school districts that had been created under a 1969 decentralization law after much criticism concerning their corruption. Today, the New York City schools are mayoral controlled. Chicago also moved to a mayoral model in 1995, although local school councils are still intact. Today, advocates of greater accountability rarely refer to these reforms.

Reduce Costs

Periodically, taxpayers demand accountability in the form of reducing costs. A number of things can trigger public dissatisfaction over perceived “high spending.” Declining economic conditions in recessions can reduce tax revenues, creating pressure to lower spending. School enrollments can provide pressures on the spending side. Economic inflation can raise tax revenues, spending demands, or both. Declining enrollments can increase per pupil costs, while at the opposite extreme, enrollment growth can lead to increases in aggregate spending. Any enrollment fluctuation can trigger taxpayer criticism.

Traditionally, accountability policies required school officials to get voter approval for budget increases or capital expenditures. These were intended as a check on local school boards and the local school bureaucracy. However, when these electoral channels at the local level proved ineffective in controlling costs, critics mobilized at the state level to control state taxes and spending. In the 1970s, a taxpayer revolt in California led to the tax limitation known as Proposition 13 and began a wave of similar efforts across the country.

Early accountability efforts applied strategies that supposedly would increase educational system efficiency. Efficiency efforts combined with taxpayer concerns about spending to support accountability strategies aimed at streamlining the educational hierarchy. Other efforts aimed at taming the education system by increasing citizen participation. Today’s accountability approaches delve more deeply into the work of schools.

CURRENT THEMES AND APPROACHES IN THE ACCOUNTABILITY REFORM MOVEMENT

At least five accountability strategies emerge among current policy approaches. One strategy focuses on
increased student achievement as a measure of system performance. Another strategy applies draconian tactics of reconstitution, or takeover, and other high-stakes consequences to stimulate system performance. A third strategy proposes system stimulation through the application of markets, choice, and deregulation. A fourth strategy shifts local control of urban schools to mayors. Another tactic purports to change the education profession by wresting self-regulation from its members. Each of these strategies may operate separately or in combination with the others.

**Improve Student Achievement**

Today’s concern that American public schools should be more accountable for student achievement can be traced back for several decades and has continued to intensify. In the Sputnik scare in the 1950s, American schools were criticized for producing too few students skilled in mathematics and science. A variety of efforts were undertaken to strengthen the curriculum and the skills of teachers in these subjects. The passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958 represented the federal response to this crisis, which was to provide grants-in-aid to school systems and higher education to build capacity. By the late 1960s and early 1970s, criticism had broadened to include the claim that students lacked basic skills in many subjects. This represented a new turn in accountability policy. Some states passed accountability laws with mandated testing of students for promotion or graduation. The assumption underlying these policies was that students should be held accountable for performance and that educators should be accountable for more efficient use of resources.

The 1980s represented a major escalation of the debate over student achievement. In style, the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 was much like the exposés of the 1950s following Sputnik; critics sought to rally public opinion on the perceived crisis in schooling quality. This call to action led, in turn, to state reform programs in virtually every state, along with expansion of state testing programs, often supplanting the earlier basic skills tests that came under criticism for lacking sufficient rigor and having the unintended consequence of reducing educational standards.

The education standards movement emerged in the 1990s as part of an effort to create a more coherent educational system through “systemic reform.” The elements of a fragmented education policy system (curriculum, standards, testing, professional development, etc.) were to become more closely aligned and in this sense more accountable. Of course, the reliance on tests and their publication for accountability purposes can be traced back to the nineteenth century. But systemic reform represented a more sophisticated attempt to embed student assessment within a larger system of governance that had the potential to raise student achievement more effectively than a fragmented policy system.

Systemic reform was not framed as an accountability system, but accountability was grafted on to the idea. In the 1980s, a growing number of states and local school districts began to publish performance information, once called “wall charts” and later known as “report cards,” intended to provide the public with information on district and school performance. However, other than a certain amount of media-spawned embarrassment, this performance information failed to lead to consequences for low-performing districts or schools, nor did it trigger an alignment of the education policy system to increase performance.

**Take Over Districts and Reconstitute Schools**

Accountability policy took another turn in the 1990s with the attachment of consequences for low-performing schools and rewards for improved student performance. Some states such as Kentucky and Maryland pioneered in this approach to “high-stakes” accountability. The federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act passed by the United States Congress in 2002, with broad bipartisan support, intensified the policy trend toward use of a “high-stakes” approach to mandating educational excellence.

Perhaps the most drastic example of this high-stakes accountability approach is for a state to take over a local school district or for the state or local school district to close a failing school and then reconstitute it. Here, the principle of accountability is invoked not to prevent abuses of power, but rather as a corrective device once those abuses occur. Presently, 24 states have educational bankruptcy laws. In many cases, these statutes have been on the books for years but were rarely exercised. However, 18 states and the District of Columbia exercised their authority to take over a school district, often for financial problems, including lack of adequate resources, mismanagement, and corruption. The pace of state takeovers may...
be moderating. Sixteen takeovers occurred between 1995 and 1997, with somewhat fewer subsequently. School reconstitution, on the other hand, is a somewhat more recent policy development whose popularity appears to be growing. It is one of the levers in NCLB, which, in effect, “nationalizes” the concept of reconstitution.

Previous to NCLB, most school reconstitutions were executed at the local level by school boards. Some states have reconstitution provisions that normally require several stages of intervention before the school actually is closed and reconstituted. When that occurs, each policy differs in its various options regarding how the new school will be managed and governed. In some cases, states retain authority, whereas in other cases, responsibility is delegated to the local school district. The school may be reopened with a special focus, as a neighborhood school and/or magnet school. It may be a charter school, or it may operate under contract with a private entity (see below). The specific accountability provisions concerning expected outcomes and reporting mechanisms also vary, not only among jurisdictions invoking reconstitution but also from school to school within a particular district or state.

Introduce Markets, Choice, and Deregulation

In 1955, economist Milton Friedman was the first to advocate that schools should operate not only more efficiently, but according to market principles, like businesses. He advocated a voucher system that gives parents the same choices to send their children to private schools that consumers have in the private marketplace in other spheres. Originally, Friedman’s argument was grounded primarily in the logic of technical efficiency and consumer choice as a better organizational framework than government operated, bureaucratically run schools. By the 1980s, after publication of A Nation at Risk, the rationale shifted to the improved student achievement that would ostensibly occur under markets, choice, and deregulation.

The logic of deregulation, while not the same as choice, also rested on an antipathy for bureaucracy and its supposed obsession with procedural compliance as opposed to accountability for meeting goals and outcomes. This deregulatory logic influenced the emergence of the concept of charter schools in the 1980s as a less drastic alternative to run public schools bureaucratically. Charter schools typically are public schools that are subject to less bureaucratic regulation, in exchange for greater accountability for student performance.

In the 1990s, a variety of consumer choice and privatization schemes emerged, reflecting the idea that markets can provide the discipline to hold schools accountable in ways analogous to for-profit firms operating in the private market. For example, some school boards contract directly with private entities to operate a school or program within a school, but they do not necessarily confer charter status on the school.

From the perspective of teacher unions, however, this has been an unwelcome development posing a potential threat to teachers’ working conditions, including salaries and benefits. Critics of choice and privatization also cite a variety of philosophical arguments, including the danger that privatization will destroy civic commitment to education as a public good and that it will increase inequality in schooling. They also fear that the market approach to education will shift accountability from the public, which both uses the schools and pays for them, to the families who use schools. The means by which accountability is maintained will also shift from political officials outside the schools who establish external methods to the use of internally derived standards and processes in the case of private schools. In practice, however, one could expect a voucher system, like charter schools, to be publicly regulated to some degree, in much the same way that market institutions in other sectors of the economy operate in the United States.

Give Mayors Control

Another response to the perception that powerful and autonomous school bureaucracies are to blame for school failure has been to restructure the governance system of urban schooling. Whereas a century ago, Progressive reformers viewed mayors as corrupt officials who politicized and degraded the quality of the public school enterprise, today a “mayor-centric” approach to governance is back in vogue. Mayors are among the first to recognize the political and economic advantages of mayoral control of school systems. Urban mayors must be vitally concerned about economic development of their cities, owing to changes in the structure of the economy and the mobility of capital. The greater salience of human capital development in a broader economic development strategy for a city causes mayors to view schools as a critical
resource. Many see the need to recapture control of these school systems, which also happen to be among the largest sources of jobs and public spending. As chief executives with a mandate from the voters, mayors have the potential to pull together stakeholders behind a coherent program of school reform and to leverage city resources more effectively than has been the case in the current fragmented system of urban school governance. Arguably, also, the potential for strong leadership by the current generation of mayors is greater than a century ago, when urban political machines were in their heyday. Today’s mayors are better educated, as is the citizenry.

Clearly, however, shifting authority to the mayor represents a decline in the role of school boards. In most cities where mayors have expanded their authority, they control appointments to the board and limit the board’s spheres of authority. This is no accident, because urban school boards are widely viewed by the critics of the current governance structure as impediments to reform who have been mired in “administrivia” and beholden to special interests. Similarly, professional control of the school system often is lessened under a mayor-centric approach to governance. Many mayors have recruited noneducators to lead their school systems, and they have pursued policies designed to reduce the professional autonomy of teachers and principals. All of this has been defended as a requirement for making the school system more accountable for improved student achievement as mayors have sought to reduce dropout rates, raise test scores, and align schools with the requirements of the workplace.

Restructure the Education Professions

Other interpretations of accountability policy entangle issues of teacher professionalism with public control over curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Indeed, concerns about the profession erupt in policies directed at improving teacher quality.

Critics of K–12 schooling in the United States argue that the profession of teaching and school administration needs to be restructured to make it more accountable. They claim that schools of education do not prepare professionals adequately to promote high student achievement and that the profession enjoys a monopolistic, cartel-like status through the current system of licensure/certification and accreditation. They also argue that the single-salary schedule rewards teachers for mediocrity and tends to act as a disincentive for outstanding teachers to enter the profession. Pay schedules differentiated by market demand and supply, as well as pay for performance, are advanced as alternatives. Critics charge that licensure has not operated as intended to ensure teacher quality, as noted in 2004 by Frederick Hess, Andrew Rotherham, and Kate Walsh.

As one accountability device, Title II of the Higher Education Act requires institutions of higher education to submit an annual report on the test performance of teacher education candidates. The U.S. Department of Education under the second Bush administration also has financially supported efforts to bypass traditional routes to professional preparation and certification, including an option for college graduates to take a “passport to teaching” test developed by the American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE) rather than successfully completing a teacher preparation program. In addition, the Bush administration approved a second accrediting body, the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) as an alternative to the dominant accrediting body, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE).

At the advanced level of the profession, critics of education leadership programs claim they are unselective, have low standards, and are too theoretical and impractical. These criticisms have led to various reform proposals, such as recruitment of nontraditional leaders from outside education, including business and the military; reform of curricula; and authorization of alternative, non-university-based preparation programs as a route to licensure. Some states have eliminated any educational requirements for administrative licensure.

While early efforts at accountability policy represented attempts to tighten the processes of school systems, more recent efforts aim at comprehensive changes. Though recent accountability strategies may appear unrelated, they often arrive in substantial combinations of changes, ranging from shifts in governance from school boards to mayors, drastic consequences such as school takeover, or market approaches to reforms aimed at the performance of both educators and students. The amalgamation of accountability efforts confounds most attempts to evaluate their effects.
EFFECTS OF ACCOUNTABILITY
POLICIES IN K–12 EDUCATION

Despite the attraction of state and national legislators to accountability policies, most current approaches to accountability are plagued by numerous challenges. The major ones are now addressed.

Sustainability Problems in a Politically Controlled Policy Environment

Given their roots in the will of the polity, accountability requirements constantly shift, making it difficult to assess the long-term impact of these accountability policies. Kentucky is one of the few states with a reform program that has survived over a decade, and even in that state, the student assessment program was changed drastically in 1998, making it difficult to trace systemic effects since the inception of the Kentucky Education Reform Act in 1991. The political reality is that many accountability reforms have proven controversial, causing opponents to mobilize to change or dismantle them. Also, as new state superintendents or commissioners, mayors, and governors assume power, they seek to put their own stamps on school reform.

The Potential of Educational Measurement and Its Limits

The policy environment from the 1990s and continuing today has focused on the need to improve student outcomes. Assessment is viewed by advocates as a tool with the potential to raise educational outcomes for all students and to help close the achievement gap between the economically poor and students of color, on the one hand, and other more advantaged groups, on the other. While the standards and assessment movement has arguably improved student achievement levels on standardized tests, there are important qualifications. First, United States students remain among the lowest-performing students in industrialized nations on international comparisons. Second, while achievement levels have risen in all groups, the so-called achievement gap persists and has even widened after narrowing for a period of time.

Moreover, measuring student outcomes is fraught with philosophical disagreements as well as technical difficulties. The psychometric problems associated with large-scale student assessments are legion, and many states are unwilling to spend the necessary resources or withstand the political pressures associated with building and sustaining a sophisticated, valid assessment system.

Part of this has to do with the complexity of the education production function. It is well-known that there is relatively little empirical support for a direct relationship between financial investment and student achievement. It is unlikely that the level of per-pupil expenditures is irrelevant to student outcomes, but establishing the linkages has proven difficult. Similarly, measuring whether observed student outcomes are attributable to educational reforms is a formidable task. The complexities and uncertainties lead to policy disputes that cannot be clearly resolved by referring to “scientifically based evidence,” despite the enthusiasm of the supporters of this paradigm.

Intended and Unintended Consequences of a Testing Regime

The response to high-stakes testing environments seems to vary considerably. In some schools and districts, this has led to greater focus on helping all children learn, while in other places, it has reinforced or widened the achievement gap and encouraged teachers to ignore or push out students at risk. Despite administrative efforts to monitor fairness in administration of tests, examples abound of questionable exemption of some students from testing and of coaching students to get the right answers. Testing cannot be separated from issues of power and control.

Narrowing of the curriculum has another unintended consequence. Teachers are inclined to teach what they know will be covered on high-stakes tests, leaving out subjects or units that are not covered in the tests. Moreover, developing student skill in performing well on the test may take precedence over emphasizing a deep understanding of the material.

Depending on whether students have an individual stake in doing well on a test, they may not take the test seriously. This raises the problem of whether accountability systems should focus only on school performance, individual student performance, or both, and whether teachers should be held individually accountable for the performance of their students. Many advocates of value-added approaches to measuring classroom performance believe teachers should be
rewarded financially according to the performance of their students—an experiment that is under way in Denver, Colorado—while others reject this philosophically, even if it proves technically possible to accomplish. Some teachers believe that performance pay will lead to unintended competition among teachers, while others argue that it creates incentives for them to work collaboratively to addressing student achievement performance gaps. There is little research on this aspect of accountability.

The Limits of External Intervention to Remediate Failure

Research demonstrates that external intervention creates variable effects in schools and school districts. Generally, state intervention to deal with financial problems of school districts has proven more effective than efforts to raise student achievements through such takeovers. However, the manner in which state intervention occurs is critical to whether there will be strong local resistance to the state. Generally, mayoral involvement involves less local resistance because the mayor is part of the local political system and not viewed as an interloper in the same way state officials are prone to be. However, the consequences of handing over authority to mayors have not proven to be predictable. The outcomes evidenced so far depend on local traditions and contexts; mayoral priorities and personalities; local coalitions supporting and opposing mayoral leadership, including racial interests; and other factors. This is one reform strategy among many. C. M. Stone argued in 2004 that it should be a branch in school reform, but not the base.

At the school level, reconstitution has created uneven effects. In some cases, it appears to have raised student achievement dramatically. However, principals in reconstitution-eligible schools in Baltimore tended to gain compliance from teachers rather to raise test scores, but the intervention led to little improvement in teaching. Such schools can be harmed because of the tendency for teachers to flee under the stigma associated with district intervention. Ironically, the effect is to deplete human capital in the school rather than enhance it.

Effects on Public Support for Schools

Critics of accountability argue that it denigrates public schools in the eyes of the public. Yet there has been little shift in the public’s attitudes toward public schools in recent years. To the extent that public confidence has changed, there is a slight increase in positive public attitudes about school quality. By 2001, a majority of the respondents (51%) gave the public schools in their community an A or B grade, up from 46% in 1998. The percentage giving the nation’s schools a high grade was lower; only 23% gave them an A or B, but this was nonetheless higher than in 1998 (18%). Of course, we cannot be sure what has caused confidence to rise, and in any event, accountability policies apparently have not had a major impact on these attitudes as such policies were implemented in the 1990s.

SUMMARY

Overall, then, despite the plethora of accountability policies, there is no hard evidence that they have transformed the performance of American public education. Despite some improvements in student performance and greater responsiveness where reformers have intervened, the picture is very mixed. More and better policy research may cause us to revise our estimation of this policy thrust. More likely, however, the positive impact of such policies will be felt only if they evolve in the next generation. Many of the policies emphasize greater answerability for outcomes but not improving the capacity of schools to respond to change. The limits of top-down approaches to reform in K–12 education have been apparent in other policy contexts, for example, court-ordered desegregation of schools and the basic-skills movement of the 1970s. This problem of externally imposed change is also apparent in the realm of accountability policies, which often have a strong punitive overtone and frequently make rather simplistic assumptions about what levers will create meaningful institutional change. As long as accountability is seen as a club by policymakers and by educators upon whom it is imposed, it will remain a blunt and rather ineffectual, although deeply institutionalized, policy instrument. If it matures in new directions, then its potential for positive change may be realized.

—Jane Clark Lindle and James G. Cibulka

See also alignment, of curriculum; at-risk students; Black education; boards of education; bureaucracy; Chicago school reform; choice, of schools; collective bargaining; conceptual systems theory and leadership; conflict management; contracts, with teacher unions; cultural capital; curriculum,
theories of; decentralization/centralization controversy; Department of Education; desegregation, of schools; dropouts; economics, theories of; Education Commission of the States; Educational Testing Service; elections, of school boards; bond issues; empowerment; evaluation; Gallup Polls, on public education; globalization; goals, goal setting; governance; innovation, in education; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; Kentucky Education Reform Act; knowledge base, of the field; Latinos; learning environments; management theories; market theory of schooling; measurement theories; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; A Nation at Risk; No Child Left Behind; operational definitions; outputs, of systems; parental involvement; performance assessment; planning models; politics, of education; portfolios; principalship; productivity; restructuring, of schools; salary and salary models; schooling effects; site-based management; standard setting; standardized testing; state departments of education; superintendency; systemic reform; systems theory/thinking; total quality management; underachievers, in schools; value-added indicators; year-round education

Further Readings and References


ACCREDITATION

The accreditation of colleges of education is a relatively new process. The National Council of Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has been in existence only since 1954. As of 2004, approximately one half of the colleges of education in the United States (575 of the approximately 1,200) were NCATE accredited. However, the number of colleges of education seeking NCATE accreditation has tripled in the past 5 years.

The accreditation of departments of educational leadership is even more recent and sporadic. NCATE’s accreditation applies to colleges of education as an entire unit, not to individual programs within those units. As recently as the 1990s, the national Policy Board of Educational Administration (NPBEA) approved a specialty professional association (SPA) to conduct accreditation of departments of educational administration in colleges of education, but only as part of the NCATE review. The SPA continues as the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) and to date has approved approximately 178 programs.

PROS

The public has a crucial stake in the quality and caliber of educational administration program accreditation: The organization, management, and evaluation of preparation programs are the rationale for accreditation in educational administration. Nationally noted accreditation expert Kenneth E. Young and his associates in their 1983 Understanding Accreditation presented five aspects or themes of institutional and specialized accreditation. Although written two decades ago, these guidelines remain relevant today, especially in the field of educational administration:

1. Accreditation is a valuable—perhaps even essential—social tool whose usefulness and effectiveness have not been fully appreciated and whose full potential has yet to be realized.
2. Accreditation began as a voluntary, nongovernmental process and should remain so if its inherent values are to be preserved and enhanced.
3. Accreditation is a process that, at its heart, consists of guided self-evaluation and self-improvement and serves as a centerpiece to the little-understood, informal, but elaborate commitment to self-regulation in postsecondary education. The primary value of accreditation is to be found in the process itself, not in the formal results of the process—that is, the announced decision of whether a program is accredited.
4. Accreditation should be judged by its effectiveness in encouraging and assisting the program to evaluate and improve its educational offerings. All other outcomes and uses of accreditation are secondary to this objective and should not undermine it. To be effective, accreditation must focus primarily on the program, just as education must focus on the student.
5. Accreditation is highly vulnerable to misuse and abuse by those who wish to turn it into other purposes. But there are enough countervailing forces to offset perversions of the process or power plays.

Accreditation is the principal mechanism whereby university preparation programs in educational administration review, renew, and improve their preparation of school leaders. Accreditation serves the interests of the students enrolled in our programs as well, by signifying that the preparation they are receiving meets or exceeds the standards of what our profession has judged appropriate academic preparation. Accredited programs attract more highly qualified candidates, and more highly qualified candidates have greater potential to improve practice as education leaders and increase student success.

CONS

Any accreditation process can be misused and abused. In addition, some argue that the process is counterproductive and actually promotes standardization at the expense of creativity, experimentation, and innovation. The application of the “one right method” closes off any serious reconsideration of the outcome and the processes involved in the constructive process.
To some, present accreditation processes represent external regulation resulting in a lessening of commitment to excellence. The argument is that only “lowest common denominators” can be used to assess wide groups of programs and individuals. In addition, the result is a depression of personal ownership in the professional decision-making process. Performance is then measured by rules followed rather than attention to the ever-expanding dimensions of professional excellence: Programs become stagnant, repetitive, and predictable.

No professional field remains static. Educational administration is no exception. Our knowledge base continues to change as new research affects what we know about effective leadership. Effective accreditation must be an ongoing process, as opposed to a “once every 5 years” practice. There is much debate suggesting the two national accrediting bodies (NCATE and Teacher Education Accreditation Council, or TEAC) are the wrong tools for validating quality and acting as a driver of program improvement in educational administration. This position suggests the real problem relates to the absence of an accreditation process that accredits educational administration programs independently. And though the ELCC process is specialized to administration programs, it is too closely tied to the NCATE college of education accreditation. Some educational experts are questioning whether specialty fields such as educational administration should rely entirely on unit organizations for accreditation. Alternatives include accrediting our program independently, as is done in the field of psychology, two of whose specializations—counseling and school psychology—have greatly improved program quality standards and accreditation processes more independent of national accreditation bodies.

The argument over whether the NCATE/ELCC accreditation process accomplishes its purpose has led to another accreditation choice in the field. Recently, the U.S. Department of Education recognized the Teacher Education Accrediting Council (TEAC) as a second accrediting alternative. TEAC describes its process as an audit of evidence of student achievement. Through the use of “inquiry briefs,” institutions must provide evidence of several quality principles related to student learning, assessment, and instructional learning, in addition to seven standards of student learning. The TEAC process seems to rely less on specific program standards formulated by professional specialty associations than does NCATE.

In the field of educational administration, the adoption of the Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards and implementation of the ELCC accreditation process have been important components of program improvement. Currently, efforts are under way to review the existing program standards and focus additional attention on the models of educational administration accreditation. The most likely vehicle for such improvement is the National Policy Board of Educational Administration.

—Theodore B. Creighton

See also accountability; admissions; behaviorism; bureaucracy; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium; knowledge base, of the field; management theories; theory movement, in educational administration; total quality management; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration

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Achievement Gap, of Students

The gap between majority-minority students has attained the status of the search for the Holy Grail in education, especially since the provisions and penalties of Public Law 107-110, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, are aimed at removing it. Despite the expectations of the erasure of the gap in achievement test scores advanced in the federal legislation, the discrepancy
between minority-majority students on school achievement tests continues into the present. It is neither a recent phenomenon nor confined to the United States. Scholars who have examined the persistent gap in achievement are convinced that there is no single cause and that the gap is not monolithic. However, nearly all indicate that socioeconomic status is a key indicator: that children from lower-income families tend not to do as well in school as their higher-income counterparts. Lack of access to the dominant forms of cultural capital in the larger society remains a key stumbling block for children of lower-income families. Other critical variables include the level of education of the parents, the number of parents in the home, and the type of community in which a family resides. In this respect, schools reflect rather than act as social change agents for lower-class families. Schools also embody forms of power that reinforce the subservient status of children of color and poverty.

Another key aspect of the achievement gap is the nature of the tests themselves. Originally, both intelligence and achievement tests were based on assumptions anchored in eugenics, and they were consistently biased against the poor. Alfred Binet, the creator of the IQ test in France, noticed that lower test scores were invariably from children in lower-class homes. The differences such tests revealed were often considered as measures of innate properties rather than measures of cultural access. A key supporting argument of the notion that children of the lower classes were “less able” was based on the alleged research of Cyril Burt in England. Burt, the director of testing in England’s schools, publicized studies in which he showed that environment had less impact on schooling success than the student’s general intelligence. Today, Cyril Burt’s research has been listed as fraudulent. Burt invented his data to support his biases. There are still modern proponents of the IQ as an explanation of the achievement gap, that is, the viewpoint that the discrepancy is due to the fact that some children are simply less intelligent than others. Such was the view proffered by Richard Herrnstein and Charles Murray in 1994 with their book The Bell Curve. The assertions of Herrnstein and Murray are that differences in test scores are more innate than acquired and that government spending on the poor to improve their learning in schools will largely be futile. Such views are considered by most scholars as arguments advancing racism in public policy.

Tests used in school are not only measures (partial or otherwise) of the curriculum and general schooling experience, they are also measures of culture, and culture is a multidimensional phenomenon bringing with it a host of attitudes, expectations, and strategies for coping with life. The schooling experience is not neutral. It is packed with values both written and hidden. Children of different cultures come to the school with a broad range of familiarity with its routines and values. Children with less familiarity are at a disadvantage in a competitive environment.

Some research conducted for the Council of the Great City Schools in 2002 on successful school systems where definite progress had been reported on closing the gap in achievement indicated that important changes began with the board of education, which pursued reform with a singular purpose. The board did not engage in micromanagement of the day-to-day affairs of the school district, but focused on the overall direction of the school system with the superintendent. These were other successful strategies reported:

- A focus on student achievement with specific goals on a definite timetable for accomplishment, aligned curricula with state standards, and institutionalized means to translate such standards into classroom practice
- The installation of concrete accountability systems that held administrators personally responsible for progress in reducing the gap
- A focus on the lowest-performing schools with methods to improve the competence of the instructional personnel and leadership at those schools
- Adopting districtwide curricula and working toward consistent implementation of those curricula across the school system
- Focused professional development that reinforced the district’s curricula and worked toward improving constancy of delivery
- Determination to engage in data-driven decision making where budgetary and other decisions were anchored to the results (or lack thereof) being attained
- Beginning reforms at the elementary schools to reduce the flow of unprepared students coming into the secondary schools
- Providing expanded and intensive instruction in reading and math at the secondary schools, even at the expense of other parts of the curriculum

School districts that were not able to show a reduction in the achievement gap were marked by the lack of clear consensus on the part of stakeholders about
the district’s direction and its approach to reform. The districts also lacked clear indicators of success, timelines, and consequences for not doing well. The district’s central office took little to no responsibility for improving teaching or reducing the gap, and the policies and practices of the central office were not connected to the schools nor to classrooms.

School leaders in these systems were often confronted with conflicting or ambiguous directives but were largely left to their own devices in trying to reduce the achievement gap.

It is also clear that certain forms of site-based management are dysfunctional in reducing achievement gaps, especially where the gaps are the result of unaligned teaching or disjointed curricula and other instructional materials being used in a nonconsistent manner. A high-stakes centralized testing program requires a centralized curriculum, not a decentralized one. This fact has not been appreciated by many school reformers, who desire the benefits of decentralized decision making to encourage creative responses but insist on using centralized, standardized measures to gauge success of school interventions.

Despite the public rhetoric from politicians and other educational leaders about eliminating the achievement gap, it is not likely to become a reality until the causes are understood much better than they are now.

—Fenwick W. English

See also accountability; achievement tests; alignment, of curriculum; at-risk students; Binet, Alfred; Black education; bureaucracy; Burt, Cyril; critical race theory; critical theory; cultural capital; cultural politics, wars; Department of Education; decentralization/centralization controversy; discrimination; diversity; efficacy theory; elementary education; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; feedback; governance; high schools; human capital; immigration, history and impact in education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning environments; literacy, theories of; measurement, theories of; National Assessment of Educational Progress; No Child Left Behind; planning models; politics, of education; psychometrics; reading, history of, use in schools; school improvement models; site-based management; systemic reform; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


**ACHIEVEMENT TESTS**

An achievement test is an assessment tool that measures what students have learned over a period of time. Student learning may take place in a number of domains. In the 1950s, Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues proposed a six-level taxonomy of cognitive learning: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The lowest level of the taxonomy, knowledge, generally requires a student to memorize facts and concepts. The next level, comprehension, is a result of more internal processing of the information a student has learned. The more advanced levels, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, involve more complex skills and mental processes. Student learning may also occur in the affective domain. For example, it is widely believed that student motivation toward a subject may change as a result of instructions. There is also the psychomotor domain that deals with a student’s use of muscles, such as typing and athletic skills. Unfortunately, assessment in the affective and psychomotor domains seldom receives adequate, if any, attention.

The various types of learning suggest different assessment approaches. For instance, the knowledge level of the cognitive domain is usually assessed through the use of multiple-choice items and other traditional types of test questions. The assessment of a student’s
ability to apply knowledge to solve problems, however, seems to be best accomplished through more complicated assessment tasks, such as an open-ended essay question or a performance task. The assessment of psychomotor skills may also be conducted through a performance task. Student attitude or interest is usually assessed through either classroom observation or, more formally, a survey. An achievement test, however, is often perceived as a traditional paper-and-pencil test. Although performance tasks, classroom observations, and surveys are all important tools used in assessing student achievement, they are seldom considered achievement tests.

An achievement test is often differentiated from other forms of traditional tests. It differs from an intelligence test since it assesses student learning rather than student ability or intelligence. It is also distinguishable from an aptitude test because the latter measures a student’s learning ability and potential to succeed in future studies. Despite this, an achievement test may be used to predict a student’s future academic success. Take for an example the Scholastic Aptitude/Achievement Test (SAT) that is used for college admission. The SAT Reasoning Test is an aptitude test used to predict a student’s overall college GPA. The SAT Subject Tests are achievement tests that are used by many institutions of higher education for predicting student academic success in specific subject areas.

HISTORY OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTING

The history of achievement tests in America started in the mid-nineteenth century, when written tests were first used to replace oral examinations of students in American schools. A major reason for the change was the increase of student population in schools due to immigration. The use of formal written examinations provided a more objective and efficient way to assess student learning. Although the original purpose of using written tests was for teachers to classify students for instructional purposes, it also provided an opportunity for policymakers to monitor school effectiveness. The tests were also used by reformists such as Horace Mann, of Massachusetts, to effect changes in schools.

The end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century saw the beginning of intelligence testing, first in Europe and then later in America. The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale that was revised in 1914 marked the beginning of large-scale individual intelligence testing in the United States. World War I provided a rare opportunity for the experimentation of group intelligence testing on a large scale. Parallel to the development of intelligence tests, achievement tests became for the first time standardized and administered on large scales. The uniform test designed by Joseph Mayer Rice toward the end of the nineteenth century was one of the earliest attempts to use standardized tests on a large scale for the purpose of comparing student learning across schools. More standardized achievement tests were developed in the beginning of the twentieth century, such as the tests developed by Edward Thorndike and his students at Columbia University. Another major development in achievement testing in the beginning of the century was the common exams developed by the College Entrance Examination Board, which were based on the common curricula in nine subject areas.

After World War I, standardized intelligence and achievement testing became well established in American schools. The introduction of multiple-choice questions in the 1920s, developed by Arthur S. Otis, helped to popularize standardized testing. The administration of the SAT by the College Board in 1926 was another major development in the history of standardized testing, which provided the foundation for norm-referenced testing. Although achievement tests were used as supplements to intelligence tests in estimating student ability, there was a general preference in American society for standardized achievement tests to intelligence tests. One of the most influential standardized achievement tests developed at that time was Terman’s Stanford Achievement Test. The Iowa Program, started in 1929 through the leadership of E. F. Lindquist for the purpose of diagnosis and guidance, marked the beginning of large-scale state testing. The program proved that large-scale achievement testing could be conducted efficiently and at a reasonable cost.

The period after World War II saw the rapid increase of access to education in the United States. Standardized tests, which were once used to screen and select students, had become tools to provide opportunity for students to demonstrate their ability and achievement. For example, the GED (test of General Educational Development), a test that was first designed for returning army personnel short of high school graduation, provided people with the opportunity to earn an equivalent high school diploma by
demonstrating their academic achievement through unconventional schooling. With the introduction of machine scoring originally from the Iowa Program in the 1950s, standardized testing was now conducted on an even larger scale. Starting from the 1950s, the federal government began to be involved in education, first through federal funding and later directly through a national standardized testing program, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP).

TYPES OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Achievement tests can be divided into classroom assessments and standardized achievement tests. Classroom teachers frequently engage themselves in designing unit quizzes, midterms, and final examinations. Unit tests are often shorter and simple in structure, whereas final examinations are longer and contain more varieties of test items. Such quizzes and exams form the basis for a teacher to assign grades to students in class. The teacher may also use the results of the tests to monitor student progress. Based on the results of the tests, the teacher learns if the teaching has been effective and if changes are needed in instruction. The assessment approaches of the classroom teacher are often flexible. Aside from achievement tests, the teacher can also use classroom observation, discussion, performance tasks, group projects, and portfolios to assess student learning.

Besides achievement tests developed by the classroom teacher, there are standardized achievement tests developed by commercial testing companies. For example, the TerraNova is a test battery developed by CTB-McGraw-Hill that can be used to assess student achievement in reading, language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. The NAEP, a national test administered by the National Center for Educational Statistics, is a congressionally mandated assessment program to monitor the nation’s educational achievement and progress. Since the 1990s, standardized achievement tests have also been developed at the state level. Standardized tests typically use multiple-choice questions and a limited number of constructed response items to assess learning. The development of standardized achievement tests usually involves the use of content experts, whose job it is to review test items to ensure that the test measures what it is supposed to measure. A useful tool that may be used by both testing companies and classroom teachers in the test construction process is the test blueprint, which specifies important instructional objectives and the number and type of items that will be developed to assess those objectives. Standardized achievement tests are very often used as high-stakes tests. Results of such tests often become the basis for grade promotion and graduation for students. They are also used in evaluating the effectiveness of teachers and principals.

The standards movement in the 1990s resulted in most states developing challenging curriculums in the school systems. The new curriculums also specified performance standards for student learning. For this reason, most statewide assessments are often called “standards-based tests.” Based on those standards, a scoring system is typically set up to specify various achievement levels for an achievement test. For instance, the achievement levels may be divided into Below Basic, Basic, Proficient, and Advanced. Based on the results of such tests, students may be recommended for remediation, placement in special services or gifted/talented programs, or promotion to a higher grade. The standards-based approach to achievement tests has a number of things to be recommended. For one thing, the use of standards helps to ensure that the construction of an assessment is guided by important curriculum standards and instructional objectives. The specification of standards also forms a useful guide for classroom teachers to focus their attention on important instructional objectives. As a result of this, teachers may adequately prepare their students for important achievement tests without having to teach to the specific items of the test. The use of performance level in score reporting makes score interpretation both easy and meaningful to most stakeholders.

MISUSES OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

The history of achievement tests, especially standardized achievement tests, is full of misuses. When the written tests were first used in the mid-nineteenth century, they were primarily for teachers to assess student learning for the sake of instructional planning. Policymakers, however, were quick to seize the opportunity to compare schools in terms of their effectiveness. Despite the benign intention, the tests were not designed for such comparisons, since there were big differences across schools in terms of school curriculum and other factors.

In reaction to criticism toward such unwarranted test use, several norm-referenced standardized achievement tests were developed that tried to minimize local
actions in curriculum and emphasize instead common curricula in core subject areas, which made it possible to compare schools and students based on test results. The popularity of such tests, however, attracted many schools to once again misuse the tests, that is, using the norm-referenced test results to make criterion-referenced decisions. Since norm-referenced tests focus on the common curricula and typically use few items per subject area, it is not justifiable to use the test results to infer student performance in each specific subject area. In other words, norm-referenced tests are often mistakenly used for diagnostic information.

A common misuse of standardized testing concerns the SAT. For most of its time, the SAT has been an aptitude test used to predict student performance in college studies. The test results do not reflect student achievement in high schools. Students also take part in the test on a voluntary basis, with some of them never attempting the test, while others may take it several times. Despite this, many states continue to use the test results to compare and rank schools in terms of their effectiveness.

The Mental Measurements Yearbook, published by the Buros Institute in Lincoln, Nebraska, provides comprehensive information about and reviews of every commercially available standardized test. It is an excellent resource that can be used to prevent misuse of standardized tests.

—Yuankun Yao

See also accountability; Asian Pacific Americans; Black education; critical race theory; cultural capital; Department of Education; Educational Testing Service; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; immigration, history and impact in education; intelligence; item response theory; Latinos; minorities, in schools; psychometrics; quantitative research methods; testing and test theory development

Further Readings and References


Action learning (AL) is an emerging leadership development activity with two basic goals: (a) solve the organizational problem and (b) engage in learning that can be used elsewhere in a real-time situation. In AL, the first priority is learning; the second is solving the problem. The focus on learning also distinguishes AL from task forces, teams, quality circles, committees, and work groups.

The concept of AL is attributed to Reg Revans, a Cambridge physicist. Revans observed that by sharing problems and asking probing questions of other scientists, significant new insights could be achieved.

Revans codified his work in AL and continued applying his learning principles to his work as a professor in industrial administration. The strength of the AL process is derived from the interaction of three major elements identified by Revans: programmed knowledge (P), questioning (Q), and reflection (R). In other words, Learning (L) = P + Q + R. Factual information, or knowledge, about the problem is gathered on an ongoing basis. Hypothesis forming and questioning occur during set meetings and center around a continuous learning cycle composed of five questions:

1. What are we trying to do?
2. What is stopping us?
3. What might we try?
4. Who knows about this problem?
5. Who can do anything about this problem?

AL programs are built around five distinctive interactive components: (a) the problem, (b) the set, (c) the process, (d) the client, and (e) the facilitator. The solution of the problem must matter to the AL participants. In addition, the problem(s) may either deal with strategic issues (what to do) or tactical issues (how to do it).
AL takes place through a “set.” The set (ALS) refers to the four to six action learners who work as a cooperative learning group to define the problem, ask questions, collect and analyze data, form conclusions, present findings, and make recommendations.

The client is the person, or organization, who owns the problem at hand. Leaders in these organizations identify real problems to which they seek a solution. Ideally, clients should be committed to taking action on the recommendations.

The facilitator is most important at the beginning of AL process. They increase group cohesiveness by explaining the AL process to the group and, when necessary, building appropriate interpersonal skills. In addition, the set advisor may increase the confidence and commitment of the client through open communication with the client. Once the group has started, the set advisor may assist individuals in gaining a better self-perception and may act as a resource by asking appropriate questions or suggesting appropriate references.

The unique features of working with an authentic problem and with a live client set AL apart from other leadership development tools, such as case studies, simulations, action research, motivation theories, and problem-based learning.

The term action research was first used in the 1940s to characterize group research activities that resulted in changed community practices (such as Native American farming tactics). In time, the principles of action research came to be applied to the examination of pedagogical and educational reform activities. Today, action research stands in marked contrast to traditional educational research (or “pure” research), in which an outside investigator examines an issue, generates findings, and then leaves interpretation and implementation of the results up to school practitioners. Through applied social science data collection and analysis methods, school-based action researchers explore and test new ideas, methods, and materials; assess the effectiveness of the new approaches; and determine the most worthwhile approaches to curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Action research is most effective when it becomes an embedded and routine part of practice, when educators collaboratively initiate and manage systematic inquiry as part of their teaching and administrative responsibilities. When undertaken by educators in school-based learning communities, action research becomes an exceptional and powerful means of professional development.

**STEPS OF ACTION RESEARCH**

Action research is predicated on collaborative systematic inquiry within a group of educators and involves multiple elements characteristic of applied social...
science research. These elements include (a) identifying and defining an issue, problem, or idea of shared interest to a community of practitioners; (b) reviewing established theory, research, and other information related to that which is being studied; (c) posing specific questions to be addressed through the research; (d) developing a plan and the data collection methods related to the research question(s); (e) collecting and analyzing information in order to elicit findings; (f) individual review and structured group discussion about research findings; and (g) adapting individual and collective pedagogical practices based on the research findings. To be empowering and credible, the steps of action research need to be informed by common values that educators want to realize in practice, and findings should be shared publicly and open to professional scrutiny.

**BENEFITS OF ACTION RESEARCH**

Efficacy studies of the action research model suggest it is a highly beneficial process for educators. Teachers involved in action research tend to grow intellectually and professionally, develop more positive attitudes toward their colleagues, and expand their analytical and pedagogical skills. Action research, when collaborative and embedded in practice, stimulates the ingenuity of teachers and cultivates their ability to creatively and effectively address important educational problems and issues. Increasingly, the establishment of professional learning communities predicated on the action research model of inquiry is being championed by educational leaders (such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals) as the most effective means to promote student performance and school improvement.

**BARRIERS TO ACTION RESEARCH IN THE SCHOOLS**

If action research is one of the most effective means through which teachers and administrators can improve their practice, increase student achievement, and cultivate personalized learning communities, why is engagement in action research generally sporadic, inconsistent, or nonexistent? Action research requires time and sustained commitment on the part of educators; yet our current system of schooling is an individual action-oriented enterprise that excludes the concerted and collaborative evaluation of practice. Too often, action research is ineffective because it is perceived or treated as an add-on. Teachers need systemic opportunities and support as they work with colleagues to continuously examine the effects of their practice on student learning and school performance. Some educational leaders may not be willing to support teacher-conducted action research because they believe it to be less credible than pure educational research conducted by outside investigators. However, it is widely recognized that all research suffers from issues of validity, reliability, generalizability, and investigator bias to some degree; there is nothing inherently less rigorous about action research as a method of systematic inquiry. Perhaps the greatest barrier to reaping the enormous personal and professional benefits of action research is the closed and competitive nature of schooling. Teachers tend to focus on what takes place in their own classrooms and give little consideration to the curricular and instructional practices of their colleagues. The cooperative evaluation of instructional practices and public sharing of evidence-based findings can feel uncomfortable and threatening to educators used to working in isolation and without critical and supportive feedback. Educational leaders need to address the isolationist and action-oriented nature of schooling and create systemic opportunities for teachers to engage in action research if sustained school improvement and student achievement are to become a reality.

—Rebecca Gajda

See also critical thinking; field theory; fieldwork, in qualitative research; frame theory; hypotheses, in research; interpretive studies; measurement, theories of; qualitative research; history, theories, issues; quantitative research methods; research methods; systems theory/thinking

**Further Readings and References**


Charles Francis Adams II (1835–1915), descendant of the politically famous line of Adamses in Massachusetts, influenced issues of the economy, railroading, politics, the Civil War, and basic and higher education. His contributions to basic education foreshadowed ongoing issues such as professional development and lifelong learning.

Adams was born in Boston, son of the well-known public official Charles Francis Adams, the first. The second Charles Francis fought in the Civil War as an officer, seeing action at Antietam and Gettysburg. After the war, he turned his attention to railroading, writing several exposés on the problems of railroading, especially mismanagement of the Erie Railroad.

After serving on several railroad commissions and boards, including the Massachusetts board and the Union Pacific, he turned his attention to the public school system in the Adams hometown of Quincy, Massachusetts. His autobiography conveys his concern about the lack of public attention to the quality of public schools. He observed that the lack of attention to school management resulted in ineffective education yet carried a hefty price tag.

Adams suggested reforms for Quincy, which were widely adopted. The Quincy board hired a superintendent with experience in German Common Schools, giving him freedom to make reforms such as combining the basics of reading, writing, and arithmetic with the concept of hands-on experiences. Adams believed that quality would result from improved practices, rather than just increased expenditures. He also delivered an influential address to the National Education Association in 1880, in which he called for increased professionalization of school administration, including the creation of formal preparation programs in elite colleges and universities.

Adams served higher education for 24 years as a member of the Harvard Board of Overseers, and he gave a series of lectures at Oxford University. Two years after publishing those lectures, he died and was buried in Mount Wollaston Cemetery in Quincy. His educational legacy was a blueprint for reform reflective of current practice.

—Helen C. Sobehart

See also accountability; boards of education; bureaucracy; constructivism; philosophies of education; productivity; professional development; property tax; reform, of schools; restructuring, of schools; school improvement models; systemic reform; taxes, to support education

Further Readings and References


Until recently, most school organizations enjoyed considerable autonomy in their daily operations and did not concern themselves with the development of specialized adaptive functions. Political influence, formal and informal expectations, authority, and problems of perceived legitimacy have fostered a climate of accelerated change, compelling educational organizations to become increasingly responsive, innovative, and adaptive. The underlying factors driving transformation in public education’s areas of operation are well publicized. Federal and state supported initiatives, like charter schools, vouchers, parental choice, high-stakes testing, teacher and administrator turnover and decentralization, coupled with shrinking budgets for professional development, families living in poverty, and fulfilling the needs of ethnically diverse and special education student populations, provoke substantive questions in the minds of many about the future of public education. In particular, the recently revised Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), also known as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, Public Law 107-110, presents sweeping implications for those who work in educational organizations. These pressures have also resulted in a not-so-subtle transformation in how school organizations view themselves, their roles, and most important, what it means to be successful.

The texture and slope of this precarious landscape has produced public perceptions of chaos and disequilibrium in the “fields” that interact with educational organizations. More specifically, these various external pressures have resulted in heightened anxiety around the manner in which school organizations and in particular
school leaders will conceptualize and implement effective responses to these emerging demands. Undoubtedly, these types of adaptive problems press complex organizations, like public schools, to articulate and eventually depend on forms of knowledge, expertise, and operations not necessarily related to the principal tasks of the organization. Although the organizational literature provides a significant body of research focused on issues of organization adaptation and change, the ability of complex organizations to successfully adapt to social and regulatory forces continues to be the subject of much theorizing and research. Issues of structural inertia created by organizational age, size, and density raise questions about the tolerance of school organizations to adapt their structures and conform to institutional pressures in order to be perceived as legitimate and remain competitive in this turbulent environment.

What is adaptiveness of organizations? There are numerous theoretical orientations that have examined adaptive mechanisms and “logics” used by organizations to respond to changing environments. In each instance, adaptive functions are focused on the survival of the organization. Extant literature suggests that adaptiveness of organizations implies a process of transitive learning and an appropriate response to change. Adaptation involves a deliberate process in which organizational leaders (managers or subunits) systematically scan relevant environments for threats and opportunities in order to develop strategic responses and modify organizational processes and structures accordingly.

Scholars have pointed to the fact that institutionalizing adaptiveness requires increased levels of organizational learning, communication, and leadership. As organizations find themselves enmeshed in rapidly changing milieus, their ability to scan the environment and modify search strategies is important. An unambiguous perception of the organization’s relationship with the external environment greatly affects adaptive activities. It also requires leaders to be cognizant of organizations’ existing competencies in light of these changing demands. Modification of existing organizational structures and routines is accomplished through a “social process” directed at organizational learning. Although leaders provide a formalized context for this process, learning in these instances is organic and evolutionary. It involves a process of socialization (e.g., sharing the tacit knowledge of individuals) around the pressing issues of the organization, making that knowledge explicit through dialogue and collective reflection (e.g., metaphors, analogies and concepts), and then internalizing and acting upon it by members of the organization. Through the learning process, leaders utilize knowledge to establish an organizational environment that is more dynamic, flexible, and responsive to change.

Finally, research in this area has demonstrated that institutionalizing adaptiveness has an effect on “expanding the organization.” The outcomes of this process often result in the reallocation of resources; changes in organizational aspirations, performances, and outcomes; adoption of new technologies (e.g., human expertise, mechanical equipment); as well as organizational rules, cultural norms, and routines.

Unlike some very large and powerful corporations, educational organizations are not designed or able to control external forces. For that reason, they find themselves responding to relentless and pervasive national attention and pressures focused on the quality of their programs and achievement of their students. The current structure of many educational organizations makes them vulnerable in their ability to appropriately address these external demands. Yet existing research and theory articulates that survival of school organizations is intricately tied to their attention and response to the external environment coupled with an inward focus and the development of a complex, dynamic, and flexible adaptive structure.

—George J. Petersen

See also accountability; collaboration theory; hierarchy, in organizations; innovation, in education; matrix organization (the “adhocracy”); organizational theories; restructuring, of schools; staffing, concepts of; systemic reform; systems theory/thinking

Further Readings and References


ADAMS, JANE

Jane Addams (1860–1935), a leader in social reform, women’s rights, antiwar, and civil liberties issues,
founded the social settlement Hull-House on Chicago’s Near West Side in 1889. Hull-House was modeled on London’s Toynbee Hall and was designed to enrich the lives of poor people in Chicago’s immigrant community. She was the first American woman to receive the Nobel Peace Prize (1931). Among her activities, she was a founder of the National Federation of Settlements (president 1911–1935), the World War I Women’s Peace Party (1915), the Women’s International League for Peace and Freedom (served as first president 1919–1929), and the American Civil Liberties Union (1920). She was vice president of the National Woman’s Trade Union League, served on the Chicago Board of Education, helped found the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (1909), was elected first woman president of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections (later known as the National Conference of Social Work), served as first vice president of the National American Women’s Suffrage Association, seconded the nomination of Theodore Roosevelt at the Progressive Party convention, and presided at the International Congress of Women at the Hague in 1915.

Addams belonged to the first generation of women college graduates. She graduated from the Rockford Female Seminary in 1881. She was granted a bachelor's degree the following year, when the school became accredited as the Rockford College for Women.

Reform projects that emerged from Hull-House included the Immigrants’ Protective League, The Juvenile Protective Association, the first juvenile court in the United States, and a Juvenile Psychopathic Clinic or Institute for Juvenile Research. Through Hull-House efforts, Illinois enacted protective legislation for women and children, which in 1903 included a strong labor law and a compulsory education law. These efforts expanded to a national level when the Federal Children’s Bureau was created in 1912 and a federal child labor law was passed in 1916.

Addams wrote 11 books, including Democracy and Social Ethics (1902), Newer Ideals of Peace (1907), The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets (1909), Twenty Years at Hull-House (1910), A New Conscience and an Ancient Evil (1912), Women at the Hague (1915) with Emily Balch and Alice Hamilton, The Long Road of Woman’s Memory (1916), Peace and Bread in Time of War (1922), The Second Twenty Years at Hull-House (1930), The Excellent Becomes the Permanent (1932), and My Friend, Julia Lathrop (1935). She authored multiple articles on subjects such as immigration, ethnicity, child welfare, juvenile justice, civil rights, life in the settlement house, industrial conditions, reform, and suffrage.

When speaking about the work of Hull-House, she emphasized caring for the children of the immigrants, nursing the sick, and offering classes for adults and children. She encouraged young women to assist in this work. Through her speeches, she raised money to support the activities of Hull-House. She also gave speeches publicly opposing America’s entry into war. She was expelled from the Daughters of the American Revolution.

Jane Addams is a model of educational leadership. Beginning with her insistence on receiving a bachelor’s degree as one of the first women college graduates and throughout her career as an advocate and provider of education for children and adults, her leadership is evident. The work of Hull-House, the enduring reform initiatives, her public speeches, her leadership roles, her fund-raising activities, and the books and articles she penned reflect her contributions as a leader in promoting education for all.

Recognized around the world for her work on behalf of those who suffered from hunger, poverty, and oppression, Addams was referred to as “Mother of the World” because of her work for peace and justice.

—Marilyn L. Grady

See also class, social; compulsory education; equality, in schools; feminism and theories of leadership; immigration, history and impact in education; peace education; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References

[️] ADMINISTRATION, THEORIES OF

The Industrial Revolution produced a growing number of increasingly complex organizations, including schools and school systems. Organizational scholars of the time, most often experienced practitioners, were
seeking new and better ways to manage their organizations, focusing especially on the industrial worker. Many of the concepts and principles that were developed within classical organization theory had a lasting influence on organizational thought, essentially to maximize performance to increase production. Administration theory (formal organization theory) was one of three major strands identified within classical organizational theory that included scientific management and bureaucracy.

Within this growing group of organizational theorists, the professional school superintendency evolved as a new administrative position in educational systems only after other approaches failed to administer effectively the growing, complex, urban systems of public education. In the last 20 years of the nineteenth century, as industries were moving toward a model of efficiency and scientific rationality rose in full force to challenge religion, a potpourri of corporate-minded reformers, university professors, and other educators found urban schools inefficient and stuck in corrupt politics. From the factory-like city schools with unwieldy large school boards, these reformers began to professionalize the urban superintendency to the current model of the superintendency of the twenty-first century schools.

The first movement to have a major impact on professionalizing the superintendency was scientific management, led by Frederick Taylor, credited as the founding father of the movement. Arguing in 1911 that there was much waste and inefficiency in industry, Taylor stressed the need for organizing human beings for work in the most efficient way possible. He emphasized a scientific analysis of each element of the work, job descriptions in terms of recruitment and training of employees, employee appraisal, and a reward system. His principles of management included time and motion studies, price per rate of work, the separation of planning from performance, and the principle of the scientific methods of work to increase efficiency.

Ellwood Cubberley, who was superintendent of schools in San Diego before becoming dean of the School of Education at Stanford University, designed an administrative system for schools. Cubberley took Taylor's methods and devised a new industrial management theory that applied scientific management theory to school leadership, effectively modernizing early twentieth-century school administration. Even then, Cubberley’s model was criticized for stressing efficiency and bureaucracy as the answer to multifaceted pedagogical problems. Like those who disagreed with Taylor's methods, critics argued that students were not raw material and that schools were not factories charged with molding students in what amounted to a production process. Today, some consider Cubberley’s views to be denigrating to women, non-Americans—his published views on European students were especially harsh, classifying those students as lacking both intelligence and motivation—and even the democratic process.

Raymond Callahan documented in 1962 the extent to which school administrators of this period adopted the business/efficiency ideology. He compared the efficiency experts of the industrial era with educational efficiency experts and the factory system of education. Efficiency was demonstrated, for example, using records and reports, educational cost accounting, the educational balance sheet, child accounting, and the standardized testing and accountability movement in schools.

Taylor’s scientific management approach, to analyze and prescribe for the worker, is considered a microlevel approach to organizational maximization, for the bottom of the organizational pyramid upward. The other two strands of classical theory, administrative theory and bureaucracy, are considered a macrolevel approach, dealing with structure and principles applicable to higher-authority levels in the organization, from the top down. What Taylor did for the worker, Henry Fayol (in 1949) and others did for management and developed formal organizational, or administrative, theory. This group contended that organizations could be managed more efficiently if certain universal principles were applied. They developed a set of common processes and principles that provided the guidelines for formal organizational structure and eventually were adopted by educators as descriptive of the functions of school administrators. An organization should be specialized by function and division of labor. A chain of command would be established as a line authority moving downward through the structure of the organization, with employees reporting to one supervisor. Vertical communication would proceed through this chain. There should be a particular span of control per supervisor, which, though variable, usually included five or six subordinates. Authority levels should be at a minimum, making communication and control easier, improving efficiency. Finally, line departments were to have direct responsibility for decisions relating to the production of a good or service, and staff departments,
for example, personnel, were to provide specialist advice and services to assist line departments. School organizational structures including governance and administration were developed from a combination of scientific management and administrative theories.

The third strand of classical theory, bureaucracy, was developed by German sociologist Max Weber. Weber asked: How is it a leader can give a command and have actions carried out? He answered the question by classifying claims to the “legitimacy” in the exercise of authority. He suggested the bureaucratic model as the most appropriate form of organization for industrial production, and it is based on the notion of rational authority that is inherent in the manager’s position in the hierarchical structure. Since leaders usually inherited status and authority and thus did not always have “charisma” to lead the organization, Weber maintained that a division of labor was needed that would provide the organizational hierarchy and authority, rules and regulations for order, and power for goal attainment within the organization. Each position in the organization was defined by a set of rules and procedures guiding the organizational members’ activities. Duties and rights are predetermined. The amounts of discretion and authority would be strictly controlled at each level.

In the 1930s and 1940s, dissatisfaction with the classical approach to administration, with its heavy emphasis on production and efficiency, a mechanistic view of man, the prevalence of hierarchy and authority, and the neglect of social and psychological influences on the behavior of people in organizations, led to the human relations period in administration. Mary Parker Follett, the most influential contributor to the philosophy of the period, noted in 1924 that the fundamental problem of any organization was the building and maintenance of dynamic, yet harmonious, human relationships. Among the first to speak out on the value and dignity of satisfied workers, she helped lay the groundwork for organizational behavior as an interdisciplinary science. Perhaps her best-known contribution is her concept of the four principles of organization. First, Follett maintained that adherence to the principles should contribute to dynamic, harmonious human relationships. Second, she suggested there should be direct contact with workers in the early stages of their work. Third, coordination of work activities is a reciprocal and a continuing process. Fourth, in dealing with conflict, which Follett considered a normal process in management, she urged the creative solution or problem-solving approach, “integration,” rather than domination or compromise.

Studies conducted by Harvard professor Elton Mayo, in addition to the writings of John Dewey and Kurt Lewin, gave credence to the human relations theories of Follett. The studies were conducted at the Western Electric Company’s Hawthorne plant near Chicago between 1924 and 1932 and published in the mid-1930s by Mayo and his colleagues. Results showed that wages and physical working conditions were not the chief factors in employee motivation and productivity—a long-held assumption. Among other influences, the amount of work accomplished by workers was determined in part by their social capacities and perceptions of their importance to management. Informal norms of behavior such as social codes, conventions, traditions, and routine or customary ways of responding to situations influenced effective work relations.

The experiments at the Hawthorne plant stimulated further investigations of human behavior in formal organizations, as the human relations approach to school administration became a major theme between 1930 and 1950. The studies helped generate a new perception of management as a social process of influencing human behavior in organizations rather than a mechanical process of manipulating impersonal production factors. In the field of education, for example, people—teachers, children, parents—became the focus of administrators rather than “ledgers and statistics.” Some critics contend, however, that it still remains to be established whether the concepts of the humanistic approach to administration have carried over into practice.

After the classical period and the human relations movement, a third influence on the concept of the superintendency might be characterized as a move to develop a theory of administrative behavior within a social science framework. Chester I. Barnard, former president of the Rockefeller Foundation and of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, influenced the movement by combining scientific management with humanistic concepts, forming a new concept of effectiveness and efficiency. While he placed great stress on the importance of leadership in the management of institutions and saw cooperation as the basis for creative activities within the organization, Barnard recognized leadership as being influenced by variables such as the individual, social groupings, and conditions surrounding the organization.
Barnard considered organizational effectiveness as having to do with achievement of two kinds of goals: physical or physiological and social. He suggested organizational effectiveness and efficiency were linked together through an identifiable, stable system of communications, maintained by the executive who has three chief functions. First, the executive maintained a system of organizational communication, achieved through a division of labor, the supervision or control of the organizational whole which included techniques for effectiveness in selection, promotion, demotion, and dismissal of personnel and maintenance of an informal system of communication, which involved the compatibility of personnel. The second function of the executive was to promote the recruitment and maintenance of key personnel into cooperative relationships with the organization, accomplished chiefly through the maintenance of morale, inducements, deterrents, supervision and control, inspection, education and training. Finally, the executive was to formulate and define the purposes, ends, and objectives of the organization.

Barnard’s sociological analysis of the two dimensions of organizational efficiency and effectiveness was a precursor to other social scientists who extended the theory of administration. After the classical theorists, the human relations school, and the social scientists movement, the next period of scholarship in administration took place within systems theory, an attempt to combat the criticism of the closed-system emphasis of both the efficiency theories and human relation theories.

The work of Jacob Getzels has been most influential to the theory of administrative work from a social systems perspective. With colleagues and students at the University of Chicago, Getzels formulated a theoretical model that viewed administration as a social process where the social system influenced operations. This model gave theoretical assistance to numerous empirical studies based upon an attempt to integrate the formal and informal aspects of administration. These social scientists considered the educational organization as a unique social system in which administration functions within a network of interpersonal or social relationships. The network of interactions is a crucial factor in the administrative process. Within this social system, behavior is shaped by both psychological (idiographic) and sociological (nomothetic) factors. In the two-component system, the observed behavior is a function of the institutional role, as defined by the expectations attached to it, and the personality component of the role incumbent, as defined by the person’s needs.

In open systems theory, the source of diversity and variety within the system is the environment. Open systems are capable of self-maintenance based on environmental input or interaction, essential for open systems functioning. Within the open systems perspective are several schools of thought, of which contingency, or situational, theory has been influential in educational administration. In the situational perspective, principles of management are not fixed, but are affected by many variables, such as size, objectives, leadership styles, education and training of staff, availability of resources, nature of market, economic pressures, and government policies. When managers make a decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are key to the situation at hand. Thus, organizational and administrative processes and choices are contingent upon the particular character or nature of the organization itself, the environment of the organization at that particular moment, and the specific task or tasks the organization seeks to accomplish at a particular time. Some scholars maintain that the notion of contingency is not theoretical, rather a selection set, an array of existing theories within a general framework of postmodern and critical theories.

Critical and postmodern theorists in educational administration believe the factory model of schooling with its time-clocked units of learning, division of labor, and attempts to standardize learning and achievement is in need of change. These theorists have begun a shift, an expansion to scholarship in leadership and community building with academic work in diverse areas, such as social action research, school improvement and reform, community action, the democratic community and civic engagement, accountability issues, equality and equity, ethics and values, and social justice.

The context of schooling has changed, and inexorably, administration, of necessity will change. Public school services have been extended, in some communities, into the sponsorship of community centers, adult education, summer schools, and recreation programs. With the increase in the number of households in which both parents work and in the number of single-parent households, programs such as Head Start have been established to care for preschool children. In large cities, special high schools are sometimes established to serve special student needs; for example,
there may be separate schools for artistic, industrial, scientific, or classical subjects or for students with behavior problems. Many twenty-first-century public schools, particularly in economically depressed urban areas, suffer from economic cutbacks, an increase in student crime, and an inability to find qualified administrators and teachers. Efforts to revitalize public school systems have included such varied approaches as decentralized community control in large urban areas, privatization of public school administration, school vouchers, and charter schools.

In these early years of the twenty-first century, the need for a bureaucratic administrator is giving way to the need for an interpretivist administrator, an effective leader; and communication skills, team-building skills, transformational management skills, and values will be vital to future school leaders as the management pyramid is flattened. The need to maintain a stable organization is giving way to the need to make change; school improvement, human action, aligning people, and the value of that change will be important. The need to maintain bureaucratic rigor is giving way to the need for school reform; bureaucratic authority will shift to moral authority; leadership will become transformational. The need to maintain human relations in the school will shift to the larger community beyond the school campus; community empowerment and involvement, group commitment, and collaboration are the focus for the school leader/administrator. If communication is at the heart of an effective leader, information will be the leader’s lifeblood, the power source from which change will come. There will not be a singular gatekeeper of information; the administrator will obtain information from a mixed group and share with others. Information will drive value-laden decision making.

—JoAnn Danelo Barbour

See also Barnard, Chester I.; bureaucracy; contingency theories; Cuberley, Ellwood; division of labor; efficacy theory; Follett, Mary Parker; Hawthorne Studies. The: hierarchy, in organizations; leadership, situational; nomothetic/idiographic dimensions; open systems theory; satisficing theory; scientific management; superintendency; systems theory/thinking; Taylor, Frederick; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


The field of educational administration has long been criticized for the ways in which men and women are prepared for school leadership positions. In 1960, the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) characterized the preparation of superintendents and principals as a “dismal montage.” Later in the 1970s, researchers described university preparation programs as “dysfunctional structural incrementalism.”

Effective educational leadership programs consist both of program experiences and the quality of entering candidates. The selection of candidates is fully as critical as the preparation program itself. A review of the empirical research related to candidate recruitment and selection reveals (a) a scarcity of comprehensive studies and (b) the utilization of excessively small samples.

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) published Improving the Preparation of School Administrators in 1989, a bulletin emphasizing the need to strengthen the procedures
used to identify and select students into educational administration programs, and recommended raising standards of administrator preparation programs to ensure candidates have effective analytical ability and administrative potential and have demonstrated successful teaching.

There is some evidence that a more proactive stance to the recruitment and selection of potential school leaders in the nation’s university preparation programs has taken place over the last decade. Most of the research up to 2000 resulted from small sample sizes and relied on data from department chairs and deans. More recent studies have expanded to study more of the over 500 university preparation programs.

More recent studies found that the majority of universities still rely primarily on Graduate Record Examination (GRE) scores, letters of recommendation, and grade point averages in the recruitment and selection of candidates. Evidence of the use of strategies focused on analytical ability, high administrative potential, and demonstrated success in teaching is minimal at best.

The problem relates to how we select prospective school administrators for our university preparation programs. Recent research has identified the criteria weighted most heavily in the selection of candidates as GREs scores. And are these requirements sufficiently high to attract the brightest and most capable candidates to our programs? Data published by the Graduate Record Examination Guide reveal that students entering educational administration programs from 1996 to 1999 attained scores ranking third from the bottom when compared with 41 graduate fields. Compared with seven specific education majors, education administration ranked second from the bottom in verbal reasoning, third from the bottom in quantitative reasoning, and second from the bottom in analytical reasoning.

The present use of GRE scores, undergraduate grade point averages, and letters of recommendation for the selection of candidates for school administration in isolation are not in question—they have their place—but when they are the sole basis for selection, they are and have been found to be only partially effective.

The lack of rigorous selection procedures has several potentially negative effects:

- Weak selection procedures lower the quality of instruction offered, since courses and instruction are often geared to the background and intelligence of the students
- Easy entry diminishes the status of education administration programs in the eyes of the public
- The candidates themselves realize that anyone can get the credential if he or she keeps paying for credits
- Low standards of admission permit and encourage enrollment of candidates interested only in a master’s degree in education with little intent of vigorously pursuing an administration position

Increasing the level of selection will likely result in a higher quality of administrator prepared by institutions of higher education (IHEs), thus providing better principals and superintendents for the nation’s schools. Many studies point to the importance of quality leaders, and support exists for the stance that no amount of significant education reform or restructuring will occur without strong effective leadership. The prediction that as many as 50% of school administrators in the nation will leave their positions in the next decade due to retirement and career change translates to the potential of replacing approximately half of the education leaders in our country in a relatively short period of time. Emphasizing that strong effective leaders throughout the nation have a direct effect on student achievement and organizational change, the impact on and potential for implementing major educational reform is immense. If such a large number of school administrators is replaced in the next decade, a window of opportunity exists to radically improve the quality of education.

Improving the selection of school administrators must become a higher priority in all university preparation programs. How will the greater education community respond to this need for numbers? Will IHEs address the supply and demand with current selection processes, or will they focus on the opportunity to improve quality and effectiveness in education? If the latter, education leaders must be certain that university selection procedures are rigorous, effective, and cost-efficient. A specific fear is the possibility that universities might even lower standards for admission to accommodate the growing need for candidates, allowing the issue of supply and demand to undercut the quality of prospective school leaders admitted to education administration programs.

It is interesting to note the heavy emphasis on quality of university program (e.g., National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium, Educational Leadership
Constituent Council, and NPBEA) with an accompanying absence of emphasis on quality of candidates selected to education administration programs. Why is it assumed that high-quality effective administrators can be produced by university programs without first attracting and selecting candidates with existing potential for administration and leadership? And why do IHEs still utilize the common non-behavior-based selection criteria that show no evidence of relationship with leadership skills, knowledge, and dispositions?

Along with existing selection criteria, universities must give thought to considering more behavior-based criteria to better identify candidates with leadership potential. Until all involved parties address the selection of candidates with strong analytical ability, high administrative potential, and demonstrated success in teaching, the education administration profession will continue to be a refuge for mediocre candidates.

—Theodore B. Creighton and Stacey Edmonson

See also accreditation; gender studies, in educational leadership; leadership, national standards; schools of education; sexism (glass ceiling); universities, preparation of educational leaders in

Further Readings and References


ADOLESCENCE

Adolescence, in industrialized countries, is viewed as the transition stage between childhood and emerging adulthood. In the United States, because of physical and social shifts, adolescence can currently be said to span ages 10 or 11 to 18. But the actual life stage of adolescence is socially and historically variable, dependent on the coming to adulthood within the context of current economic circumstances, social norms, and policies.

In the United States, G. Stanley Hall established adolescence as an area of study, publishing the first textbooks on adolescence in the early 1900s. At that time, he defined the age range of adolescence as beginning at age 14 and continuing into young adulthood, capped at age 24. His influential theory of adolescence as a time of “storm and stress” is still widely touted. According to Hall, this stage was characterized by conflict with parents, mood disruptions, and risk behaviors. More recent research suggests that this description does not accurately reflect the life experience of most adolescents. Scholars today emphasize that most adolescents have good relationships with their parents, that their mood swings are rarely so extreme as to need psychological interventions, and that most of them do not engage in highly reckless behavior on a regular basis. However, the storm-and-stress descriptor continues to be evoked for this age group.

Early adolescence is usually seen as the ages 10 to 14 and is regarded as an increasingly significant developmental period. Early adolescence is a time of physical, sexual, and psychological awakening. The median age for menarche, the onset of a girl’s first menstruation, has steadily dropped in the last century and has now leveled out to age 12.5. Initial changes of puberty begin about 2 years earlier, currently marking the beginning of adolescence at about age 10. Incredible physical growth coincides with major changes in the social life of early adolescents as most move from elementary to middle schools. Identity issues permeate the whole adolescent period, with adolescents addressing the questions “Who am I?” and “Who can I become?” For early adolescents, it is thought that they first engage these questions through affiliation with others their ages. They take on a “group identity,” where through their choices of affiliation they are essentially signaling “I am like you.” Early adolescent culture is permeated with the presence of “cliques” that reflect these choices.

Later adolescence, ages 15 and up, brings youth closer to the issues and eventual roles of adulthood. During this time, it is expected that an adolescent begins to form a sense of self that is distinct from friends and family. While sharing some traits and beliefs in common with both of these important groups, at the same time an adolescent may exert his or her differences from them. This sense of distinctness is a hallmark of adolescent behaviors. There is also an emphasis on future thinking during this time, where adolescents begin to envision life possibilities
or, conversely, begin to lose hope in a personal future for themselves. These choices are reflected in choices such as planning for college and dropping out of high school.

Over the past 200 years, youth have been reaching puberty at earlier ages. Ironically, this change has occurred simultaneously with a postponement of adulthood, with increasing numbers of adolescents in college, prolonging a period of dependence and preparation for the future. The past 50 years have seen the widest separation ever experienced between the timing of sexual maturation and the assumption of adult roles such as marriage.

—Kathryn G. Herr

See also cognition, theories of; compulsory education; counseling; creativity, theories of; dropouts; esteem needs; giftedness, gifted education; grades, of students; high schools; individual differences, in children; learning, theories of; lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgender issues in education; life span development; parental involvement; pregnancy, of students; tracking, of students; tutoring; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References

ADULT EDUCATION

The lack of a singular definition complicates the term adult education, which encompasses the following indicators:

- A broad description of the process by which individuals continue learning after formal schooling
- Institutional or organizational coordinated activities to accomplish specific educational objectives

More concisely, adult education can be defined as those planned educational activities that enhance an adult’s ability to function on a day-to-day basis. This may involve improving an individual’s knowledge, skills, and/or attitude. What constitutes an adult will vary due to the individual’s social, maturation, cultural, biological, and psychological differences; however, adult education primarily refers to individuals involved in postsecondary learning activities.

In the field of adult education, the concept of andragogy was stylized by Malcolm Knowles, who is known as the father of adult education. Andragogy is referred to as the art and science of helping adults learn, whereas pedagogy is more teacher-directed learning and is considered the art and science of teaching children. One is not better than the other, since andragogy and pedagogy exist on a continuum, taking into consideration the role of the learner’s experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning, and maturity level.

Determining adult education clientele will also vary due to the role and capacity in which an individual, agency, organization, or institution is structured to work with adults. Adult education can range from a consultant providing customized training to a business or industry, assisting individuals interested in obtaining their General Educational Development (GED), organizing and leading a community-based activity, or teaching a blacksmithing class. Adult education can take place in a variety of settings; it involves all types of individuals, can have specific curriculum or none at all, is sometimes not even labeled adult education, but such things as staff development, manpower development, developmental education, professional development, in-service education, continuing education, or lifelong education.

Typically, adult educators work with adults in some form of teaching or administration, such as business and industry trainers; college and university faculty; individuals with special interests or expertise offering sessions through professional, community, or educational agencies; basic education educators providing adult literacy or English as a Second Language (ESL) and working in corrections, corporations, or social agencies; conducting evening adult classes in schools; organizers of community, health, or social networks; authors of self-help books; or volunteers who help others learn.

Development within the field of adult education has led to characterization through the use of agency typologies. The variety of programs available to meet individuals’ continuing education, skills, and knowledge-building needs have been organized and categorized as the following types:

- Type I—Independent adult education agencies: These are private agencies specifically established to serve education needs of adults. Examples include
correspondence schools, technical, trade and business schools, sports officials schools, residential adult centers, and professional drivers schools. Type I agencies are usually privately funded.

- Type II—Educational institutions: The primary purpose of this type is to provide education for individuals of all ages; however, adult education is not the primary goal or function. A secondary goal is to address the educational needs of adults. Examples include public school adult education, community colleges, universities, cooperative extension service, community education, and evening colleges.

- Type III—Quasi-educational organizations: The purpose of these organizations is to serve educational and noneeducational needs of the community. Education is considered an allied function to fulfill some goal of an agency. Examples include libraries, museums, community and religious organizations, YMCA/YWCA, senior citizen centers, health agencies, welfare agencies, theater, art, and community interests.

- Type IV—Noneducational organizations: In these organizations, adult education is a subordinate function, since education is used to enhance the achievement of organizational goals. Education is viewed as a component that can further the organization’s primary goals and serve the interests of special groups. Examples include the armed forces, unions, hospitals, government agencies, and trade associations.

Classifying organizations in terms of their adult education foundation is an integral function within the field of adult education. The institutional dimension is important because we can increase understanding of the field by considering how types of organizations have shaped it over the years. The organization’s function thus reflects the adult educator’s role in society. To fully characterize the field of adult education in terms of its agencies and programs, continued and/or additional use of the typologies is warranted.

Adult education has responded to specific needs that have arisen either individually or within the surrounding environment. The link between adult education and the surrounding environment is a critical one. The link is important because of the continual changes taking place throughout the workplace, home, and community. These changes include advances in technology, company acquisitions, mergers, reorganizations, and new policies, procedures or regulations. In addition, changes may relate to health issues as one gets older, aging in itself, job changes, promotions, relocations, marriages, divorces, family role reversals, and drug/alcohol abuse. All can be unsettling manifestations of change affecting individuals at different levels and intensity.

It is not the events of change that can overwhelm individuals, it is the unanticipated implications these events bring into their lives. Change can be either positive or negative; however, change in any form may cause disruption. The need for adult education will likewise come from a variety of factors. This variety of stimuli strengthens the importance and current thinking of adult education. The field of adult education acknowledges that adults are a much more diverse group than children; therefore, the field of adult education should continue to develop and meet the needs of diverse populations.

Current thinking requires a deeper understanding of the learner’s decision-making process, since adult learners usually guide and plan a majority of their own learning. Adults will participate in learning activities in order to (a) pursue a utilitarian goal, such as a degree, certification, or licensure; (b) enjoy the activity associated with the learning setting, such as socialization of school or being with individuals who have similar interests; or (c) seek learning for its own sake, such as the lifelong learner or intellectually curious.

Competency-driven education affects and shifts teaching methodologies to learning methodologies. Adults require unique learning conditions and usually pursue a certain topic because of a genuine interest. Individual motivation or self-direction provides a purpose for continuing their education even if early learning conditions were not positive or encouraging. This learner self-direction emphasis has redefined the role of the teacher from being a simple content provider to a resource and facilitator of self-directed learning and identifies lifelong learning as the organizing principle for all education.

Current thinking in the field of adult education includes providing for the senior citizen community, community-based education programs, and individuals involved in basic skills development. Adult education will continue filling these training and development gaps.

By the year 2020, the median age of North America’s population will be 50 years, and the number of adult learners will increase. Rapid changes in technology and workplace demands will force individuals to retrain, update, or change careers. The increasing number of universities and colleges are addressing the needs of the older student. University-level programs are now of more interest to the senior citizen.
Community-based programs are another population served through adult education efforts. They cover a wide variety of learning activities conducted in local locations by a broad range of independent sponsoring institutions, agencies, and organizations. Generally, communities will be rural or urban, and within these communities, educational services are part of the infrastructure. Community-based education is an important part of community and economic development. Another population that adult education serves is those involved in basic skills development or adult basic education (ABE). Basic education refers to the fundamental areas of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and mathematics. The basic areas of communication and computation are the foundation that provides individuals the power and freedom to control their own lives and to meet demands of an ever-changing society. With these skills, the building of basic education is possible. Prospects of gaining economic and social success are relatively low without a high school level diploma or its equivalent. One popular alternative for completing high school is for individuals to pass the General Educational Development (GED) test.

Adult educators should continue to acknowledge the growing population of interested senior citizens who want to learn and have the time and resources to participate in educational endeavors. By doing so, this population’s contributions will continue to enhance their communities and society in general.

Community-based education will continue to evolve as projections are made based on jobs, population mobility, and identity with a specific community. The lack of basic education skills has been highly publicized; however, meeting those individuals’ needs has not been as responsive.

Education is expected to be viewed as the key to economic growth and technology, along with flexible home, work, and learning schedules. Lifetime employment is not viable in today’s economy, as workers are expected to change jobs or careers five or more times. This will require lifelong training and learning, with the accompanying increase in the number of adult educators to meet the needs of all populations.

See also ageism; career and technical education; career stages; classification of education; communities, types, building of; community relations; computers, use and impact of; consideration, caring; continuing education; decision making; diversity; economics, theories of; learning, online; learning, theories of; life span development; mentoring; motivation, theories of; philosophies of education; problem-based learning; problem solving; Web-based teaching and learning; working conditions, in schools; workplace trends

Further Readings and References


AESTHETICS, IN EDUCATION

Aesthetics (or esthetics) is a branch of philosophy dealing with the definition of beauty. The word aesthetics was first used by the eighteenth-century German philosopher Alexander Gottlieb Baumgarten, who derived it from the Greek aisthanomai, which means “perception by means of the senses.” Aesthetics refers to the whole region of human perception and sensation, in contrast to the domain of conceptual thought. Baumgarten helped establish the study of aesthetics as a separate philosophical field of study, envisioning aesthetics as a label encompassing the study of sensuous cognition. Because of the connection of the arts to perception (the sensuous element in this formulation), aesthetics made the arts its central domain.

However, the perception of artworks is not merely an affair of sensation. Memory, expectation, imagination, emotion, and reason (including narrative reasoning) play key roles as well. Consequently, since its advent, the field of aesthetics has been concerned with the operation of fundamental psychological and cognitive processes, especially in relation to the arts. Aesthetics is born of the recognition that the world of
perception and experience cannot simply be derived from abstract universal laws, but demands its own appropriate discourse and displays its own inner logic.

As aesthetics is now understood, it consists of two parts: the philosophy of art and the philosophy of the aesthetic experience and character of objects or phenomena that are not art. Non-art items include both artifacts that possess aspects susceptible of aesthetic appreciation and phenomena that lack any traces of human design in virtue of being products of nature, not humanity. The relationship of the two sides of aesthetics may be explained in two possible ways.

First is that the philosophy of art is basic, since the aesthetic appreciation of anything that is not art is the appreciation of it as if it were art. Aesthetic appreciation of nature is essentially informed by ideas intrinsic to the appreciation of art, such as style, reference, and the expression of psychological states. For extrinsic ideas to be aesthetic, or for one to delight in the beauty of a flower, it is unnecessary for one to imagine natural objects as being works of art. One’s appreciation of them is determined by their lack of features specific to works of art and perhaps also by their possession of features available only to aspects of nature. Second is that there is a unitary notion of the aesthetic that applies to both art and non-art; this notion defines the idea of aesthetic appreciation as disinterested delight in the immediately perceptible properties of an object for their own sake; and artistic appreciation is just aesthetic appreciation of works of art. But neither of these possibilities is plausible.

A more acceptable view represents the two parts of aesthetics as being related to each other in a looser fashion, each part exhibiting variety in itself, the two being united by a number of common issues or counterpart problems, but nevertheless manifesting considerable differences in virtue of the topics that are specific to them. In fact, although some issues are common to the two parts, many are specific to the philosophy of art and a few specific to the aesthetics of non-art objects.

Aesthetics is what permits human beings to emerge from the purely physical while retaining the concrete and sensuous in their compositions. It is the condition both of human freedom and the well-regulated political state. Aesthetics provides the foundations of culture as an active, transformative medium in which people mutually civilize one another and proclaim their necessary sphere of freedom from the state.

Aesthetics plays an important role in education, with respect to curriculum, instruction, cognitive development, and so on. John Dewey, in his Art as Experience, elaborated his theory of aesthetics. For Dewey, there is an aesthetic quality inherent in an experience carried by the flow of movement toward an integrated consummation. Such an aesthetic aspect brings the drama of life into fulfillment and makes transformation possible. An experience must be developed by an intensified engagement of the self in the world, and an interactive relation between doing and undergoing the dynamic combination of thinking and feeling. Dewey also implies ordinary experience can be shaped in an aesthetic and artful manner to become an experience.

The heart of Dewey’s aesthetics resides in his formulation about the artistic experience (as opposed to a normal experience). According to his definition, an experience is viewed as a total encounter with external phenomena, which runs a complete course from beginning to end and is totally integrated into consciousness as an entity distinct from other experiences.

To the extent that Dewey affirmed the unifying character of experience, he saw that the fundamental nature of any aesthetic event was a certain organized coherence of individual phenomena. What he did argue against was a conception of unity to which all parts were subservient in every case; it was the pragmatic nature of his aesthetic—tension, seizure, conflict, energy, diffusion, the strength of individual moments—that best reveals the instructive value of his theory of aesthetics for education.

An aesthetic experience has its own rhythm, tone, resonance, and drama. To follow Dewey’s notion of an experience in its inception, development, and fulfillment, an aesthetic way of education begins with the wonder about life, evolves with an absorbed engagement with the world, and reaches consummation in transformative moments. The beauty, the wonder, and the power of the world in both its minute details and its vastness can be captured only by sensitive eyes and appreciated by an open heart. To cultivate this sensitivity and openness is an aesthetic task of education.

An experience, instructed by aesthetics, becomes truly educative when something new, problematic, or unsettling creates a disequilibrium, a need, and challenges previous habits of action, belief, and knowledge. It is then that the process of learning enables one to reestablish a sense of equilibrium through the cooperation and differentiation of emotional, sensational, and ideational activity.

—Patrick M. Jenlink
See also arts education; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; curriculum, theories of; imagination; instruction, survey of; moral education; philosophies of education

Further Readings and References


AFFECTIVE DOMAIN

When considering how individuals learn and process information, the affective domain is credited with one’s value, personal, and esthetic development. The term affect originally was used when referring to emotional reactions in the absence of reason. For today’s educators, it is used to discuss the integration of cognition and action. An essential element to the taxonomies of David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, and Bertram Masia, the affective domain provides levels of commitment within the ascending categories: receiving, responding, valuing, organization, and characterization by value. Exposure to and participation with each category result in the ability to acknowledge and respond to phenomena, make judgments as to their worth, resolve existing conflicts, and ultimately internalize values that impact individual behavior. Taking into account a child’s readiness to learn, the affective domain enhances the framework for understanding essential to language development, and assessment and evaluation, the two processes common to all learning domains. The taxonomy is organized to display levels of commitment and contains examples of observable verbs to assist in understanding its purpose and for use by teachers in designing educational objectives (see Table 1).

When applied to schools, affect refers to those aspects of education that deal with personal and social development. In its broadest sense, affect is seen as instrumental in developing self-esteem as well as one’s moral or ethical nature. For this reason, commercially prepared programs that focus on character development are often used to meet the affect needs of students as well as those of society. However, in a time of increased accountability resulting from the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and mandated high-stakes testing, teaching directly to the affective domain may assist educators in closing the learning gaps presently existing among children at risk of academic failure, because this domain integrates emotion and reason. As early as 1984, George Mandler referred to the implications of psychological research, which demonstrated that in the presence of stimuli, thought and feeling occur simultaneously in human experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Appropriate Verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receiving</td>
<td>Being aware of or attending to something in the environment</td>
<td>Asks, chooses, describes, follows, gives, holds, identifies, locates, names, points to, replies, selects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding</td>
<td>Showing some new behaviors as a result of experience</td>
<td>Answers, articulates, reads, assists, communicates, complies, conforms, writes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valuing</td>
<td>Showing some definite involvement or commitment</td>
<td>Completes, contributes, decides, justifies, shares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Integrating a new value into one’s general values, giving it some ranking</td>
<td>Adheres, alters, combines, compares, defends, generalizes, integrates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characterization by value</td>
<td>Acting consistently with the new value</td>
<td>Acts, advocates, resolves, collaborates, performs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For today’s educators, integrating social-emotional learning with required content has the potential of strengthening understanding as well as organizing student action in a positive and goal-directed manner. It recognizes that cognitive growth is dependent on the development of social and emotional understanding. Jonathan Cohen reminds us that children cannot just input academic knowledge, but rather grow along a number of developmental pathways of which the affect is only one. Because these pathways are so interconnected, underdevelopment in one inhibits growth in all others; however, expanded growth in any one can also lead to the further growth of others. Developing the whole child, which includes not only the cognitive domain but the affective domain as well, only makes sense in the global world in which we live.

—Shirley Jackson

See also affective education; behavior, student; esteem needs; learning, theories of; moral education; motivation, theories of; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; self-actualization; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References

Affective Education

Affect is defined as a feeling or emotion, as distinguished from cognition, thought, or action. Emotion is an intense feeling, a complex and usually strong subjective response, such as love or fear, or a state of agitation or disturbance. Psychological curricula deal with emotions or the affect. The movement has been called “affective education” by educators. Affective education includes a large variety of curricula and programs designed to change the values and the behavior of students. John Steinberg discussed the history of affective education or teaching toward emotional intelligence in 1998. He maintained that affective education is integral to all learning.

In the early 1970s, the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts became a center for humanistic-affective education. Methods for values clarification, self-concept development and conflict resolution were developed. George Brown, at the University of California in Santa Barbara, began developing the concept called “confluent education,” in which he maintained that affective and cognitive growth work together.

Another concept to be developed during the 1970s was the moral education movement. Lawrence Kohlberg from Harvard University led this movement. Kohlberg’s research revealed that there were a number of different levels of moral behavior. The levels of moral behavior were similar to the levels for cognitive or intellectual development proposed by Jean Piaget. Piaget’s work suggested that children move from concrete reasoning to abstract reasoning. The movement from the simple or elementary levels to the more complex or advanced levels is common to both concepts.

In 1975, affective education was presented in the form of an educational program called Quest. The Quest program, the first of its kind, was designed to be a humanistic values education curriculum. In 1982, a second version was introduced and several more have been published since.

Affective or humanistic education means that we see the “whole” child. During the last three decades, there has been a movement toward spending more time and thought on developing affective skills along with cognitive skills in the classroom. Both affective and cognitive skills are taught and valued. Educators recognize that to be a successful doctor, teacher, nurse, boss, or salesperson, a person needs both knowledge and social skills.

Affective education programs are intended to help students learn to solve social problems. Many programs are described as “value-free,” but most of the programs deal with values or values clarification. Most affective education programs are designed to improve self-esteem, good decision making, academic performance, and sensitivity to others. They may also help students reduce stress. For the most part, the curricula use moral relativism as a foundation and self-interest as the primary motivation for developing character or for modifying behavior. Some of the programs are labeled as living or coping skills development programs. As a group, the programs are affective education programs, which address the emotional content of a student’s learning process, rather than the cognitive education programs, which deal with the academics such as reading, writing, and math.

Instructional designers, instructors, teachers, or those who plan the lessons for students need instructional
objectives to guide the lesson plans. The purpose of instructional objectives is to identify and specifically define the requirements of the lesson. When the requirements are clearly identified, the instructor will know what to include in the lesson. A clear definition allows the teacher to measure the outcome of the lesson. The instructional objectives will guide the measurement of the learning achieved as a result of instruction for a specific learning objective. The outcome or benefit of the instruction is described by or indicated by the precise description of what the learner is to accomplish. Objectives that are clearly defined are necessary for determining the most effective instructional or teaching strategies to promote the student’s mastery of the lesson’s objective.

Learning objectives have generally been grouped into three categories or domains. The three domains are cognitive, psychomotor, and affective. It is important to understand the levels within each domain before planning a lesson or unit of instruction. There needs to be a match between the instructional objective and the appropriate level of the domain.

The instructional objectives in the affective domain concern attitudes, appreciations, values, and emotions such as enjoying, conserving, and respecting. The affective domain is generally considered important in education and training, but it is a domain in which educators have had difficulty in writing useful instructional objectives.

David Krathwohl, Benjamin Bloom, and Bertram Masia organized the affective domain into five levels in 1964. The levels form a continuum for attitudinal behavior, from simple awareness and acceptance to internalization, as attitudes become part of an individual’s practicing value system. The five levels are receiving, responding, valuing, organizing, and characterizing by a value complex. Receiving is being willing to give attention to an event or activity. Responding is being willing to react to an event through some form of participation. Valuing is being willing to accept or reject an event through the expression of a positive or negative attitude. Organizing occurs when encountering situations to which more than one value applies and being willing to organize the values, determine relationships among values, and accept some values as dominant over others according to the importance to the individual learner. Characterizing by a value complex occurs when the learner consistently acts in accordance with accepted values and incorporates this behavior as a part of his or her personality.

Over the years, there have been many supporters of affective education programs, but there have also been many who have criticized the programs. Some of the complaints directed at the programs include the following: The programs teach “New Age” and Eastern religious precepts; they violate the student’s right of privacy by probing into private feelings and attitudes; some programs resemble group psychotherapy; they waste valuable time that could be used for academics; and they shift the Christian child’s view from an Almighty God to a humanistic worldview.

—Carolyn Sayers Russell

Further Readings and References


AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Affirmative action as a means of redressing past, ongoing, and/or lingering inequities due to race and other factors entered the American legal and educational national lexicon in 1978’s Regents of University of California v. Bakke (Bakke), a dispute over the constitutionality of a medical school’s race-based admissions policy. Affirmative action stands for the notion that courts and other institutions may take race (and other characteristics such as gender and ethnicity) into consideration as affirmative factors in making decisions with regard to admissions and hiring in education as well as other arenas.

In Bakke, a divided Supreme Court reviewed a challenge to a medical school program filed by a White
applicant who was denied admission under an affirmative action program that set aside 16 seats out of 100 openings for specified minority groups. In a plurality, meaning that the Justices failed to reach the requisite five-member majority necessary to make their order binding precedent, the Court opened the door to further controversy. The Court held that even though the admissions program was illegal and the White student should have been admitted, the consideration of race per se was not unconstitutional. Yet no single opinion agreed on this point. Four members of the Court agreed that while the White applicant was unlawfully excluded, the constitutional question need not and should not have been reached. Justice Powell, who cast the fifth vote in favor of the applicant, wrote that there was a constitutional problem with the plan because the specified minorities could compete for all 100 of the seats but Whites could apply for only 84 seats. Powell explained that the Constitution did not prohibit a consideration of race or ethnicity as an admissions factor since a university’s quest for a diverse student body can be considered of paramount importance in fulfilling its mission; four other Justices joined Powell in agreeing that the plan was constitutional.

Over the next 25 years, the Court reached mixed results in cases involving affirmative action in various settings. For example, in the 1980 Fullilove v. Klutznik, another plurality upheld a statute authorizing federal public works projects that gave preferences to businesses owned by members of racial minorities. Conversely, in Richmond v. J. A. Croson, Co., in 1989, the Court struck down a federal law that would have increased the number of minority-owned businesses that were awarded construction contracts. A year later, the Court upheld a preference policy with regard to minority ownership of new radio or television stations in Metro Broadcasting v. Federal Communications Commission (1990), since it believed that it had a substantial relationship to an important Congressional interest. Five years later, the Court overruled this judgment in Adarand Constructors Inc. v. Pena (1995), reasoning that a program that would have given preferences to minority contractors in building projects could not be upheld unless it could pass the so-called strict scrutiny test.

The Court’s only previous judgment on the merits in a dispute involving education, Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education (1989), concerned a school board’s attempt to maintain a racially integrated faculty during a reduction in force (RIF). The Court decided that a layoff of nonminority teachers based solely on race violated the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Another case involving school employment, Taxman v. Board of Education of the Township of Piscataway (Taxman) in 1996 and 1997 was days from oral argument before the Court when the parties reached a settlement. Taxman involved a dispute wherein a school board, erroneously thinking that its affirmative action plan required it to terminate the contract of a White, rather than an African American, female teacher based solely on race, dismissed the White woman even though the two had virtually identical credentials. The Third Circuit affirmed that since the board’s RIF plan, which was adopted for the purpose of promoting racial diversity rather than remedying discrimination or the effects of past discrimination, violated the rights of nonminorities, it was unconstitutional.

Following the lead of the Supreme Court, lower federal courts reached mixed results over the use of affirmative action plans in education. In cases involving K–12 schools, the First (Wessman v. Gittens, 1998) and Fourth (Eisenberg v. Montgomery County Public Schools, 1999) Circuits struck down the use of race, but the Ninth Circuit initially upheld its use as criteria in admissions decisions, in the 1999 case, Hunter ex rel. Brandt v. Regents of the University of California. More recently, in 2004, the Ninth Circuit struck down an “open choice” assignment plan for a school district that was not under desegregation order on the basis that while racial diversity is a compelling interest, the plan was unacceptable since it was not narrowly tailored to achieve its goal in Parents Involved v. Seattle Sch. Dist. 1.

In higher education, the Fourth (Podberesky v. Kirwan, 1994), Fifth (Hopwood v. Texas, 1996), and Eleventh (Johnson v. Board of Regents of the University of Georgia, 2001) Circuits initiated affirmative action plans. Conversely, the Sixth (Grutter v. Bollinger, 2002a) and Ninth Circuits rejected such challenges (Smith v. University of Washington Law School, 2000), thereby setting the stage for the Supreme Court to enter the fray.

The Court’s most recent rulings on affirmative action both originated at the University of Michigan (Grutter v. Bollinger, 2003 and Gratz v. Bollinger, 2003). Grutter was filed by an unsuccessful 43-year-old White female applicant who was in the 86th percentile nationally and challenged the Michigan Law School’s use of race as a factor in admissions. During
the litigation, school officials conceded that the plaintiff probably would have been admitted had she been a member of one of the underrepresented minority groups, defined as African Americans, Hispanics, and Native Americans. Ultimately, the Sixth Circuit upheld the policy in 2002, since it thought that it was narrowly tailored to achieving the law school’s goal of a diverse student body.

Gratz was filed by two unsuccessful White applicants, one female and the other male, to undergraduate programs at the University of Michigan’s College of Literature, Science, and the Arts. The students claimed that the use of race as a factor applied a more stringent standard to nonminorities. In fact, during the year the female sought admission, university officials accepted all 46 applicants from the preferred minority group with the same adjusted grade point average and test scores as nonpreferred candidates, less than one third of whom were admitted. In addition, the policy gave members of the same minority groups as in Grutter a bonus of 20 points on a 150-point admissions scale, an amount roughly equivalent to one full grade on a 4-point GPA. This scale awarded only 12 points for a perfect score of 1,600 on the Scholastic Aptitude Test.

A federal trial court in Gratz struck down the race-conscious admissions policy on the basis that it was not a sufficiently narrowly tailored means of achieving the governmental interest in remedying the current effects of past discrimination or the discriminatory impact of other admissions criteria. Before the Sixth Circuit could act on the case, the Supreme Court agreed to hear an appeal in both cases.

The Supreme Court’s rulings in Grutter and Gratz may well have left more questions unanswered than they resolved. In Grutter, by a five-to-four margin, the Court upheld the university’s affirmative action admissions policy in its law school, maintaining that since diversity is a compelling governmental interest, officials could use race in decision making where the criteria were sufficiently narrowly tailored to achieve the compelling state interest of having a racially diverse student body. Conversely, in Gratz, in a six-to-three judgment, the Court struck down the university’s reliance on a point system in undergraduate admissions since its use of race was not sufficiently narrowly tailored to achieve its goal of a diverse student body.

Writing for the five-member majority in Grutter, Justice O’Connor found it unnecessary to consider whether diversity is a compelling state interest, since she endorsed Justice Powell’s concurrence in Bakke, which established this premise. She thus declared that insofar as diversity is a compelling state interest and officials at the law school narrowly tailored their plans to achieve a “critical mass” of underrepresented racial and ethnic minorities in the student body, they could use race as a “plus” factor in admissions decisions. O’Connor also wrote that diversity could be used as a factor as long as officials did not apply a quota system and since all candidates were subject to review. Rounding out her opinion with the hope that racial preferences will no longer be necessary in 25 years, a time frame she did not expound on, to further the government’s interest in diversity, Justice O’Connor never addressed under what circumstances such set aides should end or when the goal will have been achieved, thereby all but inviting future litigation.

As author of the majority opinion in the Court’s six-to-three judgment in Gratz, Chief Justice Rehnquist rejected the notion that diversity cannot constitute a compelling state interest. Even so, Rehnquist’s opinion struck down the undergraduate admissions policy as being insufficiently narrowly tailored to achieve the state’s compelling interest of achieving a diverse student body because it did not provide the individualized consideration that Justice O’Connor described in Grutter or that Justice Powell called for in Bakke.

The immediate impact of Grutter and Gratz on K–12 schools is uncertain. Perhaps the most interesting development in Grutter and Gratz is that Justices on both sides of the issue agreed that diversity is a compelling state interest. While it could have been anticipated that the supporters of affirmative action accepted diversity as a compelling state interest, it is surprising that the other justices did not raise more of a challenge, especially given the lack of empirical data supporting their position.

Grutter and Gratz have the potential to influence admissions and hiring decisions in education even as questions remain about the meaning and application of diversity. To the extent that only a handful of public elementary and secondary schools use admissions criteria, typically in the form of entrance examinations augmented by grades and teacher recommendations, the impact of these cases is likely to be minimal. Put another way, as long as any entrance procedures use examinations that control for cultural bias, are valid and reliable, and are only one part of an overall admissions protocol, then the Court’s affirmative action
guidelines may have a limited impact because school officials are not treating race as the only factor in making decisions.

Insofar as Grutter and Gratz involved race-conscious admissions policies in higher education, an important question arises about what additional steps educational leaders in elementary and secondary schools can do to assist students who typically rely on affirmative action policies.

Among the options that educational leaders in elementary and secondary schools might wish to make available to all students, but most notably those who are underprivileged and at risk, are before- and after-school programs, enrichment activities, and other programs designed to enhance their academic standing. Such an approach may make students less dependent on affirmative action programs in admission to institutions of higher learning. As costly and/or time-consuming as it may be to implement such programs, as long as their goal is to raise student achievement, it will be difficult for critics to question such a proactive approach to enhancing learning.

Following Grutter and Gratz, the future of affirmative action in higher education also remains in some doubt. Put another way, in Grutter, the Court treated race in a manner consistent with Regents of University of California v. Bakke in reiterating that it can be a factor but not the determining element in admissions decisions. The upshot is that race may wind up playing a smaller, rather than a greater, role in admissions processes such as in the undergraduate program at issue in Gratz unless officials can demonstrate a compelling interest not only to achieve diversity but also to avoid quota systems in creating narrowly tailored policies. Furthermore, critics of affirmative action may rely on Gratz for the proposition that numerical designations such as scores cannot be employed in admissions decisions. Either way, more litigation on the future of affirmative action is all but certain.

—Charles J. Russo and Ralph D. Mawdsley

See also Black education; civil rights movement; critical race theory; discrimination; minorities in schools; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law

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AFROCENTRIC THEORIES

The early scholarship on Afrocentric theories can be found in the work of Black scholars such as W. E. B. Du Bois and Carter G. Woodson. While the particular philosophies of these turn-of-the-century scholars were different, they spoke to an emphasis on the education of Black people. This emphasis included the integration of Black history, language, and culture in schooling and the elimination of segregation as a way of life for Blacks in the United States.

Contemporary Afrocentric theories emphasize Black self-identity, multiculturalism, pluralism, and curricular change in education. Dominant strands of scholarship on Afrocentric theories posit that Blacks are educated based on a Eurocentric paradigm in
which White language, culture, and history are privileged over all others. Two core presuppositions represent a starting point for thinking about Afrocentric theory as necessary for the education of Blacks as well as other marginalized populations: (a) Education is fundamentally a social phenomenon whose ultimate purpose is to socialize the learner; to send a child to school is to prepare a child to become a part of a social group; (b) schools are reflective of the societies that develop them (i.e., a White-supremacist-dominated society will develop a White-supremacist educational system). M. K. Asante’s Afrocentric theory represents an epistemological grounding that focuses on the inclusion of all cultures in the curriculum rather than a single, dominant culture. Multicultural education is fundamental for subject matter competency, and a multicultural education should include an Afrocentric initiative. Afrocentric theory represents a change in how curriculum is theorized, developed, and implemented and provides educators an opportunity to rethink and reexamine their perceptions of Blacks within the dominant society. Afrocentric theories are not anti-White theory; rather, Afrocentric theories are antiracism and antihegemony in the curriculum.

Centrality in education is defined as a perspective that positions students within the context of their own cultural references and allows them to relate socially and psychologically to other cultural perspectives. Afrocentric theories provide a lens for viewing a phenomenon from an African/Black perspective.

The central question in Afrocentric theories is: What kind of education takes place in the classroom? In educational settings where Afrocentric theories are recognized and included in the curriculum, teachers do not marginalize Black students and cause them to question the value of their language, culture, or history. Rather, the curriculum allows Black children to see themselves in the events and depictions of life in America as well as globally and as active participants in the construction of knowledge. All subject matter areas are adaptable to Afrocentric theory, and Black students can be centered inside all subjects. Ideally, Afrocentric educational programs should be infused throughout all classes, rather than considered an add-on to the curriculum.

Three challenges have been posed by Afrocentric theory:

1. It questions the imposition of the White supremacist view as universal and/or classical.

2. It demonstrates the indefensibility of racist theories that assault multiculturalism and pluralism.

3. It projects a humanistic and pluralistic viewpoint by articulating Afrocentricity as a valid, nonhegemonic perspective.

—Linda C. Tillman

Further Readings and References

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**AGEISM**

Ageism has three distinct yet interconnected aspects: (a) prejudicial attitudes toward older persons, old age, and the aging process, which includes attitudes held by older adults themselves; (b) discriminatory practices against older persons; and (c) institutional practices and policies that perpetuate stereotypes of older persons. Ageism is also the belief that the old are to be pitied, have endless physical and social problems, and need to be supervised and patronized. Like other prejudices, ageism influences a person’s self-view and behavior, often in a negative manner. Prejudice is socially rather than biologically determined. The social construction of old age is more damaging to the elderly than is the biological aging process.

Descriptions of ageism usually include the following features: (a) Ageism represents and creates prejudices about the nature and experience of old age; (b) ageism is not a new phenomenon; its history predates capitalism as a form of social organization; (c) negative images of old age are instilled in almost all individuals by a process of socialization through language,
religion, literature, the media, and the theories and practices of the medical establishment and social services professionals; (d) negative attitudes are confirmed and reinforced by the phenomenon of “structural ageism,” which operates to determine the functions and rules of everyday life; and (e) ageism leads to a perception of old age as some kind of disease or affliction.

AGE DISCRIMINATION

Negative stereotypes about older workers as well as the elderly in general may act as precursors to discriminatory practices toward them. Todd Nelson wrote in 2002 that the Age Discrimination Act of 1967 (ADEA) was designed to protect individuals older than 40 years of age from employment discrimination based on age, as well as to promote opportunities for older workers who were capable of meeting job requirements. Under the ADEA, it is unlawful for an employer to discriminate against a person because of his or her age with respect to terms, conditions, or privileges of employment—including but not limited to promotion, firing, hiring, layoff, compensation, job assignments, training, and benefits. The act was amended in 1974, 1978, and 1986. The act now prohibits mandatory retirement for most federal, state, and private employees based on age. However, there are areas of discrimination not addressed in ADEA, some of which are subtle, such as qualified older adults not being hired for positions or job-displaced middle-aged and older workers having a difficult time finding employment.

AGEISM REDUCTION

Following are 10 suggestions for ageism reduction:

1. Heightening sensitivity to the stereotyping of older persons
2. Creating greater exposure to diversity in the personal characteristics of older people
3. Having greater commitment to recognizing and responding to diversity in dealing with older people
4. Making deliberate use of perspective taking to see the older person as an individual
5. Seeking out opportunities for intergenerational cooperation
6. Taking advantage of opportunities to promote the social attractiveness of older people
7. Strengthening institutional practices that promote the norm of human-heartedness
8. Sensitizing ourselves to the stigma of degeneration and dependency
9. Reviewing policies and practices for evidence of stigmatizing through disrespect, particularly the disrespect communicated through treating older people as an invisible group
10. Mandating inclusiveness of older people in policy planning and implementation

—Jean M. Haar

See also adult education; attitudes; discrimination; human capital; life span development

Further Readings and References


 ALIGNMENT, OF CURRICULUM

Alignment refers to the match or congruence of the written curriculum, in whatever form it may exist, and the testing or assessment program(s) in use. Earlier terms for the idea were instructional alignment or curriculum overlap. Research in the 1980s revealed that achievement scores were greater when the curriculum in use “overlapped” the “test content.” The key idea is that children do better on tests if they are familiar with or have practiced or been exposed to the content and format of the test(s) in use. Nearly all of the test prep courses available to students utilize the concept of alignment to enhance test performance. The idea of “no surprises for children” captures this idea. Children should be familiar not only with test content but also test context or format. How a student comes to be familiar with test content and format has been the subject of debate and contention. It lies at the heart of whether students, teachers, or administrators have “cheated” in preparing students for tests, especially
high-stakes testing where students, teachers, and administrators may suffer some form of punishment for poor test scores.

One may begin aligning by writing curriculum first by securing a set of validated curricular objectives, and then moving to match the curriculum with a test or battery of tests. This approach is called a *frontload*. The problem with this approach is that unless objectives are quite specific, the range of potential test items is so broad as not to be very helpful in improving test performance. In cases where curricular objectives are ambiguous or excessive, front-loading is not a very productive way to go about establishing alignment. It is too time-consuming and slippery to provide solid alignment data. This is a problem in using the national standards: There are so many as to not provide a realistic instructional focus. Many state departments of education curricular frameworks are also not very helpful as tools of alignment. Nonetheless, frontloading is the traditional method of engaging in alignment.

The second approach to curriculum alignment is to begin with publicly released test items and deconstruct them (break into smaller, analytical pieces) to discern the level of cognitive difficulty, the format, and the type of content. The purpose of test item deconstruction is not to copy and teach the item to students. This would be of very little value, especially as nearly all tests are being changed. The purpose is to provide for aligned teaching so that students are fully prepared to engage in high-stakes assessment. This practice has been called *backloading*, and it can produce dramatic results on a short-term basis.

The concept of deep curriculum alignment refers to the practice of teaching beyond any particular test, at higher levels of cognition than any specific test, so that students are prepared not only for the current battery of tests but also alternative tests and different formats. Deep alignment retains the idea of curricular-test congruence but does not confine levels of learning to only tested knowledge, skills, or applications. It transcends any immediate test prep situation but retains the initial congruence between any specific curriculum and any specific test. The matter of curriculum alignment has been found to be of singular importance in studying urban school systems that have been able to make progress on closing the achievement gap.

Additional research of over 200 elementary schools in Chicago found that instructional program coherence was a critical factor in explaining improvements in standardized achievement test scores. Creating a schoolwide curriculum framework was a crucial ingredient in improving student test scores. Such a framework is one example of curriculum alignment.

—Fenwick W. English

**See also** accountability; achievement gap, of students; achievement tests; critical race theory; cultural capital; minorities, in schools; Scholastic Aptitude Test; school improvement models; systemic reform

**Further Readings and References**


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**AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION**

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) is a national organization that solicits voluntary member institutions of teacher education “to promote the learning of all PK–12 students through the promotion of high-quality preparation and continuing education for all school personnel” (www.aacte.org). This Washington D.C.–based organization boasts membership of over 740 liberal arts colleges, state universities, research institutions, and education organizations from throughout the United States that prepare approximately two thirds of the nation’s new school personnel each year. State chapters of AACTE have been established in 45 states. The presidents (or their designees) from these chapters are members of the Advisory Council of State Representatives (ACSR), which meets twice a year to advise the national association on policy issues and concerns in the member states.

In 1902, the organization began as the American Association of Teachers Colleges (AATC). Together with the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education and the National Association
of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts, AATC merged in 1948 to create the present structure, with its newly formulated constitution and bylaws. Currently, membership is limited to institutions, not individuals. The three categories for participation include regular, affiliate, and candidate. Regular membership is granted to 4-year colleges and universities that have established their commitment to the preparation of school personnel, while affiliate membership is designated for various other institutions, including not-for-profit 2-year or 4-year foreign colleges and universities, not-for-profit 2-year American institutions of higher education, and other not-for-profit groups, such as state education associations, regional education laboratories, and university-based research or policy centers. A national board of directors and executive committee help to make decisions for the organization, along with the Advisory Council of State Representatives, as previously noted.

As a leading voice for educational preparation, AACTE publishes myriad publications throughout the year. For example, newsletters or briefs on issues related to teacher education, state and federal policy and legislation, and professional development offerings are sent to institutions 17 times a year to keep members informed about association programs, guidelines, and activities. Recent briefs included commentary on the presidential education budget cuts, high school reform, and proceedings from the AACTE annual meeting. Members may submit short articles, news stories, editorials, job postings, and professional development opportunities by e-mail or hard copy to the association to be included in the newsletter.

The Journal of Teacher Education is also published by AACTE through Corwin Press. For over 50 years, it has provided information on policy, practice, and research in the field of teacher education. Each year, five issues complete a peer review process, highlighting a special issue related to the preparation of school personnel. Past journal themes have addressed accreditation, assessment and evaluation, extended programs, teacher education faculty, and student teaching, to name a few.

Professional development is provided to the nation’s teacher education faculty through a variety of means. The overall organizational meeting is held once a year in various locations across the United States. Practitioners and professors present research and papers, related to the conference theme and its substrands. Approximately 2,000 deans, chairs, and faculty of colleges and universities, researchers, K–12 educators, and policymakers attend this annual event. An additional series of institutes and trainings are made available through the Academy for Leadership Development. Two conferences focus specifically on the needs of department chairs and new deans. Web seminars are also organized to bring together professionals from across the country, without the cost of time and travel.

—Melissa A. Rasberry

See also accreditation; higher education; schools of education; unions, of teachers; universities, preparation of educational leaders in

Further Readings and References


The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) is a national association comprised largely though not exclusively of central office administrators, and it is considered the national school superintendents’ organization. The precursor to the AASA was the National Association of School Superintendents, organized in 1865 in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, several months after Abraham Lincoln’s assassination. In 1870, the organization merged with the National Teachers Association and the American Normal School Association to become the National Education Association (NEA). Within the NEA, it was known as the Department of Superintendence until 1937, when it was changed to its current designation. AASA is no longer affiliated with the NEA, having separated from the larger body in 1972.

In its heyday, the Department of Superintendence was hugely influential in public education. Many of the most important discussions and debates regarding
contemporary educational issues occurred at its annual meetings. Some of the most important factors in the adoption of scientific management and business ideology perspectives occurred as a result of the Department of Superintendence’s activities, documented extensively in Raymond Callahan’s (1962) classic book *Education and the Cult of Efficiency*. The AASA would also later push for the spread of W. Edwards Deming’s *total quality management* ideas in education.

The AASA holds a national conference each year. In the past, the national conference drew between 25,000 and 30,000 individuals. In recent times, both membership and conference attendance have substantially dwindled to much smaller numbers. The association still supports a study of the American superintendency every 10 years. This document has become an important data source for scholarship regarding the changing nature of the school superintendency. In addition to the annual national conference, the AASA sponsors a summer institute for rural and suburban superintendents, a women administrators’ conference, a national school facilities conference, and an annual indoor air quality (IAQ) tools for schools symposium.

The current mission of the AASA, as stated on its Web site (http://www.asa.org), is “to support and develop effective school system leaders who are dedicated to the highest-quality public education for all children.” The AASA has also been a staunch supporter of the creation and implementation of the Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards for school leaders.

—Fenwick W. English

See also accountability; boards of education; bureaucracy; chain of command; chief academic officer; community relations; Council of the Great City Schools; decision making; Department of Education; ethos, of organizations; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; Interstate Leaders Licensure Consortium; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, distributed; leadership, theories of; leadership effectiveness; leadership styles; line and staff concept; locus of control; management theories; National Education Association; politics, of education; power; restructuring, of schools; school districts, history and development; span of control; standard setting; state departments of education; stress, in school administration; superintendency; systemic reform; table of organization; total quality management; unions, of teachers; values of organizations and leadership; vulnerability thesis, of superintendents; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References

## American Federation of Teachers

Founded in 1916 by teacher locals from Chicago, Gary (Indiana), New York City, Scranton (Pennsylvania), and Washington, D.C., the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) is a union representing 1.3 million teachers and educational support personnel in more than 3,000 local and state affiliates. Based on a labor union model, the AFT had its charter signed by Samuel Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, which represented primarily skilled workers. Margaret Haley, a sixth-grade Chicago teacher, headed the Chicago teacher local, which was one of the founding groups. At the onset, the militancy that became characteristic of the AFT was hardly apparent, since the cooperation among all educational employees dominated its rhetoric and policy on teacher welfare. Notable educators and academicians such as John Dewey and Albert Einstein have been members of the AFT.

The formative years of the AFT were characterized by division between the factions in the Midwest and the more militant Easterners, particularly those from New York City. The AFT had been plagued by divisiveness and internal problems owing to a lack of a strong national staff and funds. Effective communication between the locals and the national and the dispersal of national AFT officers throughout the country weakened the national structure until the centralization of executive power in the 1950s. After an initial period of rapid growth that included charters for almost 200 locals in 4 years, AFT membership declined in the face of attacks aimed at the socialistic leanings of some AFT locals. The radicalism of some AFT members created tension with its parent organization,
the AFL. When George S. Counts, of Teachers College, Columbia University, was elected president in 1940, the revocation of several local charters—representing a third of the AFT’s membership—was under consideration. When the charters of those locals whose actions were defined as hostile to democracy were revoked, the membership loss was compounded by the AFT’s difficulty in generating support outside of large, industrial cities. Some localities issued “yellow dog contracts” that forbade teachers from joining unions. During the 1930s, the AFT worked successfully for tenure legislation in almost 20 states, and its defense of classroom teachers and minority educators predated that of its most important rival, the National Education Association (NEA). As early as 1918, the AFT called for equal pay for African American teachers, the election of African Americans to local school boards, compulsory school attendance for African American children, and the end of segregated AFT locals in the South, which was not realized until the 1950s.

The course of AFT history has been shaped by its locals, which have been far stronger than those of the NEA. A focus on crises at the local level characterized the AFT and contributed to its militancy. However, the strength of AFT locals was problematic at times. The charges of communist infiltration that occurred in the late 1930s and the early 1940s resurfaced in the McCarthy era of the 1950s, when the AFT became aggressive in the defense of academic freedom. The AFT’s organizational structure strengthened under President Carl J. Megel from 1954 to 1961, but the AFT lost the financial subsidy of the AFL-CIO. However, state affiliates had become more significant, and under Megel’s direction, the AFT devoted greater attention to public relations.

In 1960, a one-day walkout of the United Federation of Teachers, an AFT local in New York City, buttressed the AFT’s image as a strong proponent of collective bargaining and increased the AFT’s membership from 60,000 in 1960 to more than 200,000 by 1970. AFT members concentrated in large metropolitan areas made significant collective bargaining gains. During this period, with teacher strikes more prevalent, the AFT’s rate of growth far exceeded that of the NEA. The AFT’s success contributed in part to the NEA’s metamorphosis into a labor union. While the NEA adopted similar tactics and goals, it continued to couch its actions in “professional” terminology with “negotiations” and “sanctions” replacing “collective bargaining” and “strikes.” However, some AFT locals engaged in activity that diminished the national’s record of commitment to social justice, which had included support of voter registration drives in the South and local training programs for minorities. For example, in 1968, during the Ocean Hill Brownsville crisis, in New York City, the United Federation of Teachers, an AFT local, opposed community control and thus invited charges of racism.

The AFT’s relationship with the AFL-CIO suffered during the 1970s with the teachers union far less conservative than its parent labor organization. Consequently, the AFT had to double its efforts to secure the support of local labor for school bond issues and school board members. The AFT’s incorporation of other education personnel such as paraprofessionals occurred in the 1960s, but unlike the NEA, which welcomed school administrators and teachers under one umbrella, the AFT maintained an adversarial relationship with school administrators who did not belong to the AFT, but to separate associations. Albert Shanker of the United Federation of Teachers (UFT), a strong local leader, assumed the presidency of the AFT and became an important national figure in discussions on educational reform. Shanker took the union concept of skilled workers and shaped it into an appeal for qualified professionals. In 1977, the AFL-CIO created a Department for Professional Employees, which AFT President Shanker headed. The AFT expanded its constituency to include health care professionals in 1978 and local, state, and federal employees in 1983. In addition, AFT activity in the 1980s reflected a global perspective marked by its support of the Polish Solidarity union movement, the Black trade union movement in South Africa, and the Chilean teachers union. A merger of the AFT and NEA failed in the late 1990s. However, local and state affiliates of the two associations have merged in several metropolitan areas, and the two national organizations cooperate on occasion. Today, the AFT includes many people not directly involved with education. The American Teacher is the official publication of the AFT, which holds a biennial convention at which elected officers and delegates set policy.

—Carol F. Karpinski

See also boards of education; bureaucracy; Chicago school reform; collective bargaining; contracts, with teacher unions; differentiated staffing; elections, of school boards, bond issues; fringe benefits; governance; just cause; management theories; market theory of schooling; National
Anti-Semitism refers to bias, political, social, and economic agitation and discriminatory activities directed against Jews. The contemporary definition of anti-Semitism includes bias based on religion, ethnicity, and race. The roots of anti-Semitism, however, were religious and based in large part on historical events and monotheistic beliefs that separated Judaism from other major civilizations and religions in ancient times.

The word Semitic was used historically to identify the descendants (both Jews and Arabs) of Shem, the eldest son of the biblical Noah. The term anti-Semitic was purportedly coined by the German Wilhelm Marr in 1879 to describe the anti-Jewish campaigns occurring in Europe. Anti-Semitism was a misnomer, though, because it implies discrimination against all Semites—both Jews and Arabs—but the term has since been used to describe all anti-Jewish discrimination. Although there is no clear explanation for the phenomenon of anti-Semitism, social scientists suggest that anti-Semitism grows during periods of crisis and instability, when fears and frustrations are deflected to scapegoats (such as in the 1880s and pre–World War II Germany).

The hostility against Jews in the late 1880s was based on the ethnologist theory that people of Semitic lineage were inferior to those of Aryan decent. Drawing from the concepts of Social Darwinism, discrimination against Jews expanded from religious to racial discrimination and thus limited any possibility of Jewish assimilation. Although most respected ethnologists rejected this theory, it continued to gain popularity, due in large part to the widely read writing of the French philosopher Comte Joseph Arthur de Gobineau and the German economist Karl Duhring, and was used to justify the persecution of Jews that has existed for thousands of years. It thus set the stage for Hitler’s Final Solution: Nazi Germany’s systematic murder of approximately 6 million Jews.

Although the term was coined in the late 1800s, the monotheistic beliefs of Jews had clashed with other predominate cultures for hundreds of years. In the Roman Empire, Jews were discriminated against politically, and very few were allowed to become Roman citizens. After Constantine the Great made Christianity the state religion of the Roman Empire in the early fourth century, Jews were regarded as the killers of Jesus Christ and discrimination against Jews on religious grounds spread throughout the Western world.

In the seventh century, Jewish refusal to acknowledge Mohammed as a prophet formed the foundation of anti-Semitism in the Middle East.

Throughout history, Jews have been massacred (especially during the Crusades and in Nazi Germany), required to wear identifying clothes and markings (beginning as early as 1215), segregated into ghettos (as early as the 1431 Council of Basel decree), and economically crippled through restrictions or quotas on enrollment in higher education and restrictions on the types of business activities open to them (Jews throughout Europe could not own land and were not allowed to join commerce guilds).

In the United States, anti-Semitism peaked after World War I and was part of a general wave of resentment of minority groups, also including Roman Catholics and African Americans. Anti-Semitic sentiments grew as economic conditions declined during the Great Depression. It was not until 1965 that the Second Vatican Council Nostra Aetate of the Catholic Church finally repudiated and reversed the church’s 1900 years of unofficial anti-Judaic and anti-Semitic teachings and practices by declaring that the Jewish people were not to be held responsible for the death of Christ. Nevertheless, periodic outbreaks of acts of vandalism to synagogues continue to occur. One contemporary manifestation of anti-Semitism is seen in the neo-Nazis and White supremacist groups who are responsible for modern anti-Semitic propaganda (such as the denial of the Holocaust) and violence against Jews.
In the Middle East, the establishment of the state of Israel in 1948 (on land claimed by Arabs) generated a resurgence of Jewish anti-Semitism in an attempt to stop Zionist immigration to the region. This conflict continues, and Israeli people live with the constant threat of terrorism from numerous pro-Arab terrorist organizations.

—Bonnie C. Fusarelli and Max S. Nathison

See also discrimination; diversity; eugenics; history, in curriculum; Holocaust education; minorities, in schools; neo-Nazism

Further Readings and References


ARCHITECTURE OF SCHOOLS

School architecture is the art and the science of designing educational facilities. The expanded definition includes the school planning process, the design process, the interior design elements and furniture, and the exterior landscaping. Most architects and school administrators consider school architecture within the confines of aesthetics, form, and function.

Schools have evolved from being in homes, churches, and one-room schoolhouses to buildings that are designed and constructed for the sole purpose of instruction with multiple rooms. As this transformation has occurred, the complexity of the school facility increased: from simply a “box” with one or more classrooms to a complicated maze of offices, clinics, laboratories, auditoriums, cafeterias, computer complexes, and gymnasiums.

Glen I. Earthman and Linda K. Lemasters noted that one of the most crucial decisions that a school board will make after deciding to build a school is the selection of the architect. Such a process can be lengthy; however, if the end product is a school that is useful to students, teachers, administrators, and the public, the time spent in selection of the architect is worthwhile. Selection of the architect should be based on experience, recommendations from previous clients, and style and personality match with the school board and administration.

Earthman and Lemasters suggested three methods of architect selection: direct selection, competitive review, and design competition. Small school systems or communities, private schools, and charter schools may opt to simply select an architectural firm to design a school for them. It is a method that can be time-saving, but is not a process without risk. The selection may be based on friendship, convenience, or simply a recommendation, rather than selection occurring based upon qualifications.

A competitive review process is required in most states to secure any professional services. Often both state and local agreements for professional services require competitive bids, with the lowest bid being selected. The lowest bid can be a cost advantage, as long as the architect is the most qualified as well.

The third process is a design competition. With this process, a school or school system sets forward a design problem with specifications. Architects are requested to submit educational specifications and preliminary drawings. These documents are submitted to the school board or a committee to review the submissions and to select the most qualified submittal. Care needs to be taken that selections are based not solely on aesthetics, but knowledge of what is best for the users.

Earthman wrote that no matter which process is used, the emphasis should be with the architectural firm with the best past experiences, an understanding of purchasing procedures, quality prior work, ability to bring projects to fruition on time, ability to be on the site daily, and past commitments to equal-employment opportunities and minority business partnerships. All architects must be licensed or registered in the state in which they are working.

School architecture has become much more complicated than simply having an architect design a facility, oversee the construction, and ensure that the design meets the needs of the users. Architecture requires a team of individuals to design various features of a building; engineers to design the heating, ventilation, and air-conditioning systems (HVAC) and the infrastructure to support them; and scientists to oversee environmental aspects of the facility, to name a few. Architecture has been called a product as well as a discipline. It also is a process.

The process includes schematics design development. The architect develops a schematic concept for the building and works to place all of the components within the structure. These schematic drawings include the location of the site, features of the site, and
surrounding structures; size, number, and kinds of spaces in the building; and the design of HVAC, plumbing, and other systems. Other parts of the process are the design development, construction documents, bidding advisement, and construction monitoring.

There are two recent developments in school architecture: including school safety designs in architectural features and creating sustainable designs. The former has developed over the last two decades and is driven by violence in schools. Some of the design elements for consideration to ensure school safety include the following but are not limited to this listing:

- Landscape designs that do not limit visual acuity surrounding the building
- Lighting indoors and outdoors that does not leave dark areas and limited vision
- Unobstructed visual lines in hallways and offices designed with windows from which people can be seen going and coming from the building
- Door and key systems that keep what is meant to be in the facility safe and whatever is to be outside of the building locked out
- Security cameras and other safety systems that are placed in the building in the most advantageous areas of the facility or on the grounds
- The migration of students from one area of the grounds to another without crossing bus routes or parent drop-offs

If the architect is not familiar with safety design, a consultant should be hired to review architectural plans to ensure that all meaningful safety features possible are included.

A recent development is that of sustainable design. Such designs are restorative to natural systems; they are energy-efficient buildings. According to the United States Department of Education, there are several principles that lead to sustainable design:

- Enhanced teaching and learning spaces that accommodate the needs of learners
- Areas serving as the center of the community
- Planning/design processes involving all stakeholders
- Consideration for health, safety, and security needs
- Effective use of all available resources

—Linda K. Lemasters

Further Readings and References


ARISTOTLE

Born in Stagira, Greece, Aristotle (384–322 BC) was the son of the physician to the King of Macedonia. When he was in his late teens, he moved to Athens and joined Plato. He stayed at Plato’s academy for nearly 20 years. After Plato’s death, Aristotle married and became the tutor to Alexander the Great. From 335 BC to 323 BC, Aristotle again took up residence in Athens, where he wrote most of the works we honor today. When Alexander died, Aristotle fled Athens, as did others who were considered friends of the conqueror.

In 1946, Bertrand Russell referred to Aristotle’s philosophy as similar to Plato’s mixed with common sense. Aristotle did not believe in Plato’s notion of reality as a pursuit of ideal forms that were transcendent. Aristotle rejected Plato’s theory of ideas and substituted the theory of universals, in which he concentrated on a thing’s essence, which he divided into matter and form. Matter becomes definite when it assumes a specific form. Matter without form is only a possibility, a kind of potentiality. Aristotle’s importance to early Christianity is to be found in this distinction because he believed that undifferentiated matter contained the possibility of all forms. As matter becomes more differentiated, it becomes more “real.” God, in Aristotle’s mind, was pure form and pure reality. From this perspective, the evolution of form was its own answer and reason for being. Here was the notion of progress, the idea that something is continually becoming better over time. And God was the unmoved mover of all things, eternal, existing in pure thought, complete and perfect.
Aristotle wrote on ethics, politics, and physics. While highly influential for hundreds of years following his death, his ideas are not so influential today, though certain vestiges of influence remain. Aristotle believed that the aim of the state, at least as it related to education, was to produce cultured gentlemen who honored learning for the sake of learning and were schooled in the arts. Virtue, or the "golden mean," was the position between two extremes. Thus, modesty was the mean between being demure and defiant.

Perhaps Aristotle’s most lasting contribution has been in his logics. In this respect, his method of reasoning using syllogisms is still used by teachers today, especially in Catholic education. A syllogism consists of three statements:

1. All men are mortal.
2. All Americans are men.
3. All Americans are mortal.

Although Bertrand Russell pointed out the defects within this system, Aristotle’s approach marked the beginning of formal logic. The use of such syllogisms can still be found in the modern educational writings of someone such as Mortimer Adler’s 1982 *The Paideia Proposal.*

The tradition of syllogistic logic used by Aristotle continues to reach into the modern school curriculum within a conservative ideology for schooling called by William O’Neill in 1981 *educational intellectualism,* one of three educational ideologies within the conservative educational tradition.

In the broader intellectual streams of Platonic-Aristotelian discourse rests the current ideology of some of the neoconservatives in the Bush administration who are disciples of the writings of Leo Strauss (1899–1973), a professor of political science at the University of Chicago who specialized in the writings of Plato and other philosophers. The neoconservative Republicans are concerned about the loss of manliness in the feminization of politics. Liberal critics of Strauss and his disciples see the reestablishment of authoritarianism in the ideals of leadership they personify. The legacy of Aristotle is indeed a long one.

—Fenwick W. English

See also authority; Catholic education; Christian Coalition; cultural politics, wars; curriculum, theories of; ethics; fundamentalism; global cultural politics; idealism, as a philosophy in education; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; Plato; Russell, Bertrand

Further Readings and References


**ARTS EDUCATION**

Historically, *art* referred to useful skills, such as shoemaking, metalworking, medicine, agriculture, and even warfare, and in a broad sense, art is still associated with a skill in making or doing. Traditional categories encompass diverse media, including literature (e.g., drama, poetry, prose), visual arts (e.g., drawing, painting, sculpture), and graphic arts (e.g., lithography, photography, printmaking). The definition, among many possible that exist today, that is perhaps most relevant is that art is the conscious use of a person’s skills and creative imagination in the production of aesthetic objects. The fine arts are those expressive modalities that require both skill and imagination in the creation of aesthetic products, environments, or other kinds of experiences that can be shared with others.

Art movements and periods are numerous. Among the most well-known, originating in either Europe or the United States, are abstract expressionism, classicism, conceptual art, cubism, dadaism, expressionism, impressionism, minimalism, neoclassicism, pointilism, pop art, realism, romanticism, surrealism, and symbolism.

In their extreme forms, the visual arts range from purely aesthetic to purely utilitarian. In the twentieth century, debates arising over the definition of art and its stylistic, formal aesthetic elements manifested in intellectual experimentation. By the turn of the twenty-first century, a variety of new media (e.g., video art, computer-based interactive multimedia, virtual reality) further challenged traditional definitions of art.

*Performing arts* offers a variation on these meanings but involves artistic forms that are found in the theater, dance, and music.
STANDARDIZATION AND COUNTERMOVEMENTS

The critical acts of appreciating, perceiving, reflecting, imagining, judging, constructing, problem solving, evaluating, criticizing, and more are all integral to the arts. These are of no lesser value in the field of education. Over a decade ago, the Consortium of National Arts Education Associations produced voluntary standards for K–12 American schools that address these elements. Developing students’ capacity for learning promotes benefits such as improved self-esteem and increased motivation, necessary for success within and beyond school. These standards are rooted in the premise that arts education and a student’s achievement in other subjects and on standardized tests correspond directly.

In contrast to a national movement to standardize arts education in the schools, educators in the academy, searching for alternatives to empirical approaches within their own domain of the social sciences, created a “paradigm” known as arts-based inquiry. This movement originates in multiple, influential sources and concepts, including John Dewey’s 1934 Art as Experience and the Deweyian notion that artists, unlike scientists, aim to express, not state, meaning. Arts-based approaches to research combine the arts and humanities, which challenge tradition as well as the status quo.

The pioneering work of educators Maxine Greene, Suzanne Langer, Elliot Eisner, Tom Barone, Robert Donmoyer, Norman Denzin, and others since the 1970s has led to groundbreaking efforts to infuse education and the arts with critique and analysis. Together with a rapidly developing cadre of faculty and students, these innovators essentially maintain that the arts inform educational research and yield intellectual and practical outcomes. Performance in arts-based research, the second area, thrives within cultural spaces extending beyond the theater’s platform. Performance as an emancipatory pedagogical platform is enacted around the country in countless places, not only classrooms but also academic confer- ence sites and, perhaps most important, community-based public spaces. A shared goal of researchers/artists is to create conditions for enabling students, citizens, and others to become critically reflective.

To qualify as arts-based educational research, a work must satisfy, at least to some degree, these criteria:

- The creation of a virtual reality
- The presence of ambiguity
- The use of expressive language
- The use of contextualized and vernacular language
- The promotion of empathy
- The personal signature of the researcher/writer
- The presence of aesthetic form

Using such principles, arts-based thesis/dissertation writers have broken with convention through experimentation with narrative and aesthetic forms. These range from stage setting, character development, dialogue, and monologue to portraiture, fiction, and script and novelistic writing, in addition to extended metaphor, poetry, and visual artwork.

AREAS OF ARTS-BASED RESEARCH

Three areas of arts-based research—quality-based criteria, research-based performance, and cultural politics—are characteristic of many works of arts-based inquirers. Complex questions have been raised regarding quality, such as how to evaluate the quality of a work and whether distinctions exist between art and research. The issue of quality in qualitative social research remains a prevalent issue.

Performance in arts-based research, the second area, is theorized and demonstrated using a range of modes, including story, painting, poetry, dialogue, script, action, and argument. Dance and theater are also commonly understood as performance. Text, identity, and culture have been added to this list. However, the definition of performance is not static—it is created and re-created in the very act of performing.

The third area, cultural politics, refers to the idea that culture can be performed, just as culture itself performs. Through this lens, the researcher/artist “performs” culture in ways that render the personal simultaneously cultural and political. The stage, like performance art itself, thrives within cultural spaces extending beyond the theater’s platform. Performance as an emancipatory pedagogical event is enacted around the country in countless places, not only classrooms but also academic conference sites and, perhaps most important, community-based public spaces. A shared goal of researchers/artists is to create conditions for enabling students, citizens, and others to become critically reflective.

Some arts-based educators and performers view the process of identity construction as an art form and as political. Cultural politics plays a conscious role in many arts-based works in education today. Researchers/artists raise socioeducational issues through artistic production and critique. As examples, ethnotheatrical presentations address controversial material (e.g., racism) and strive for impact with audiences. And by legitimating “the body” as a site for teaching and
learning through improvisational movement inquiry, the exalted place of the written text in the academy is questioned.

VALUES OF THE ARTS AND ARTS EDUCATION

Finally, multiple values of the arts and arts education have been documented. Furthermore, the arts are a way of knowing. Students (and others) grow in their ability to apprehend their world when they learn the arts. Freedom of expression in the arts has long been the hallmark of a free society.

—Carol A. Mullen

See also action learning; aesthetics, in education; cognition, theories of; constructivism; creativity, theories of; critical thinking; curriculum, theories of; early childhood education; giftedness, gifted education; literacy, theories of; measurement, theories of; performance assessment; problem solving; social context; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


Asbestos

Asbestos is a mineral found in rock formations. When mined and processed, it takes the form of very small fibers that are invisible. A typical asbestos fiber is 1,200 times smaller than a hair strand. According to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in 2004, these fibers, mixed with binding materials are then used in asbestos-containing building materials that include fireproofing material (sprayed on beams), insulation material (on pipes), acoustical or soundproofing material (sprayed onto ceilings and walls), and in miscellaneous building materials, such as asphalt, vinyl, and cement to make products like roofing felts, shingles, siding, wallboard, and floor tiles. The fibers, if released from the product in some manner, remain in the air and can be inhaled. Asbestos is categorized as either friable or nonfriable. Friable asbestos can be crumbled or broken by hand pressure and is of the most concern because these fibers can be released into the air more readily and inhaled into the lungs. Nonfriable asbestos is less invasive but requires monitoring for deterioration and change to a friable state.

The peak of asbestos use in schools was from the mid-1940s through the 1970s. The EPA estimated in 2004 that nearly all elementary and secondary schools in the United States have asbestos-containing insulation and building materials. The percentage of asbestos in any one material varies, and few precise estimates can be made about the amount of asbestos due to lack of standards in labeling during peak years of use in schools.

Asbestos, left undisturbed, does not pose a major health risk. But as schools have aged and been subjected to renovation and deterioration, concerns grew, and in 1987, the Asbestos Hazard Emergency Response Act (AHERA), Title 20, Chapter 52, Section 4011, was enacted. It required the EPA to develop regulations to address asbestos issues in public and private schools. School districts were made responsible for (a) conducting periodic inspection for both friable and nonfriable asbestos, (b) establishing plans for asbestos management, and (c) creating a framework to provide information about the status of asbestos in the district to parents, teachers, and citizens. The EPA has an asbestos-in-schools assistance program and creates multiple publications to help districts understand the potential harm, and possible actions have been created and are updated as new information emerges.

MANAGING ASBESTOS IN SCHOOLS

Management of asbestos is critical and ongoing. Undisturbed, asbestos causes few problems. Thus, the AHERA rules rarely require removal of asbestos. Trained and licensed inspectors gauge the state of
asbestos; it must be inspected at least semiannually with trained custodial and maintenance staff so that damages or deterioration can be detected and corrected. Three actions to control asbestos are usually undertaken: encapsulation, enclosure, and removal. These procedures must be done by accredited asbestos professionals. Encapsulation requires spraying the fiber with a sealant. Enclosure requires placing barriers around the material. Removal is only necessary when material damage is extensive and severe. Only an AHERA-accredited professional can advise school officials on the appropriate response action in any given situation.

Making the AHERA schools rule effective in protecting the school workplace is a joint responsibility of district leadership, school employees, parents, and students working with federal and state governments and asbestos control professionals. Local and national parent organizations provide information about asbestos control. The EPA conducts compliance inspections of a sample of schools annually. The agency is responsible for ensuring that schools are adhering to AHERA regulations. The EPA provides an asbestos ombudsman to assist citizens with questions and asbestos issues. This office can be reached through a toll-free number.

—Barbara Y. LaCost

See also architecture of schools; hazards, environmental, in schools; learning environments; school plant management; school safety; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References


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Teachers’ sense of efficacy has primarily been assessed with two factors: sense of personal teaching efficacy and sense of teaching efficacy. The first refers to individuals’ assessment of their own teacher competence; the second refers to teachers’ expectations that teaching can influence student learning. In 1986, Patricia Ashton and Rodman Webb defined teacher efficacy as an educator’s expectation of being able to assist student learning. They further noted that the notion of efficacy is similar to, but not identical to, other motivation constructs, such as attributions, personal causation, expectancies for success, and intrinsic motivation.

Ashton and Webb’s seminal research on self-efficacy in K–12 education has found that efficacy beliefs of teachers are related to their instructional practices and to various student outcomes. Their 1986 work with seasoned teachers of students placed in classes for basic skills because of severe academic deficiencies further demonstrated that teacher efficacy was related to student achievement. They specifically found that when teachers’ instructional efficacy measures were added to the regression equation predicting student achievement, an additional 24% of the variance in mathematics achievement and 46% of the variance in language achievement was explained. Teachers with a high sense of instructional efficacy tend to view difficult students as reachable and teachable and regard their learning problems as surmountable by ingenuity and extra effort. Teachers of low perceived efficacy are inclined to invoke low student ability as an explanation for why their students cannot be taught.

Reasons for these relationships are many, but research has found that teachers who have a high sense of instructional efficacy devote more classroom time to academic activities, provide students who encounter difficulties with the guidance they need to succeed, and praise their academic accomplishments. In contrast, teachers of low perceived efficacy spend more time on nonacademic pastimes, readily give up on students if they do not get quick results, and criticize them for their failures.

—Larry E. Frase

See also cognition, theories of; curriculum, theories of; efficacy theory; flow theory; learning environments; measurement, theories of; motivation, theories of; walk-throughs, of classrooms

Further Readings and References

ASIAN PACIFIC AMERICANS

Since the first groups of Chinese “sugar masters” working in Hawaii, Asian Pacific Americans (APA) and their descendants have been on the land of the United States for more than 150 years. Their arrival not only brought enormous contributions to aspects of construction, agriculture, industry, technology, and so forth, but also inevitably impacted America’s historical, economic, cultural, and social advancement.

Personal interests and their native countries’ socioeconomic contexts combined with military, economic, and political interventions of the United States have created an impetus for Asian people immigrating to the United States. The immigration history of Asian Pacific people can be divided into two broad periods: from 1835 to 1964, characterized by low-paid laborers, and from 1965 to the present, characterized by refugees and professionals.

The earliest Asian immigrants were characterized as “cheap laborers.” The Chinese were the first group to arrive in the United States during the early nineteenth century, as the ancient Chinese feudal empire was declining. They eventually settled on the West Coast, in Los Angeles and San Francisco, working as railroad constructors, miners, or farmers; and by the 1830s, Chinese were living in New York City selling goods and in Hawaii toiling in sugarcane fields. After gold was discovered in California in 1848, the numbers of Asian miners and laborers kept rising from over 1,000 to nearly 37,000 (mostly Chinese). Their numbers continued to increase after the Burlingame Seward Treaty with China in 1868, which guaranteed the right of Chinese immigration; it did not, however, grant the right of naturalization. In the following decades, a great deal of anti-Chinese sentiment arose in California, and in 1877, anti-Chinese riots occurred in San Francisco. This event culminated in the promulgation of the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, which banned Chinese immigration for 10 years. This Act was renewed every 10 years and was finally made indefinite in 1904.

In 1885, the Japanese government loosened its emigration restrictions. Meanwhile, California employers were feeling the effects of Chinese exclusion and saw Japan as a new source of cheap Asian labor. The increasing contact between Japanese and American governments prompted more Japanese to move to Hawaii and California to work on sugar and agricultural plantations. In 1908, the number of Japanese immigrants exceeded 120,000 in Hawaii alone. Naturally, Japanese immigrants inherited the anti-Asian sentiment that had long been directed toward the Chinese. In 1907, in response to the increasing threats of violence against the Japanese, Japan and the United States reached the “Gentlemen’s Agreement.” Under this law, Japan stopped issuing passports to laborers desiring to immigrate to the United States in exchange for respectful treatment of Japanese citizens already in the United States. The 1924 Immigration Act (also known as the Oriental Exclusion Act) banned immigration from Japan entirely.

To fill the shortage of low-paid laborers resulting from both the Chinese Exclusion Act and the Gentlemen’s Agreement with Japan, the Filipinos came in the 1900s. Still, Filipinos could not escape anti-Asian resentment, which was pervasive among the dominant White groups, even though Filipinos were classified as American nationals because of their special colonial status. Filipino immigration to the United States slowed down in 1934 when the U.S. government passed the Tydings McDuffie Act, which changed the status of Filipinos from nationals to aliens. Asian immigration came to almost a standstill after World War II.

For most Asian immigrants and their children, the history from the mid-nineteenth to the early twentieth century in the United States is the history of discrimination, segregation, and exclusion. From the very beginning, Asians were seen as the “yellow peril” and regarded as racially inferior people. Violent protests were held against them; internment camps were built to segregate them; and discriminatory laws were enacted to exclude them from naturalization and owning lands.

By extension, education for APA children was always under the shadow of racial discrimination within this period of history. The Committee of the San Francisco Board of Education estimated there were 722 Chinese children living in Chinatown in 1880. However, San Francisco Board of Education policy prohibited them from attending the city’s public schools. Earlier, in 1859, California’s first Chinese public school opened on the corner of Stockton and Sacramento Streets. It was reorganized as a night institution 2 years later for the convenience of Chinese workingmen. Racists criticized this school the moment it was established, by questioning its legality and propriety. The board of education accepted such criticism, and the Chinese school finally closed in 1871.

During this period of time, private sectors, such as Christian missionary organizations, were very active in providing educational services. Documentation indicates that Baptists, Methodists, Congregationalists,
Presbyterians, and Episcopalians all provided some form of English instruction in Chinatown. These religious groups not only defended Chinese from harassment and racial discrimination but also founded more and more schools for Chinese immigrants. In 1876, after the Chinese public school was entirely shut down, 5,500 Chinese were enrolled in Christian schools. However, after the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act took effect, schooling efforts made by the private sector faced more difficulties than ever before. To cope with this situation, the Chinese Consolidated Benevolent Association (also known as “Six Companies”) established one of the biggest Chinese language schools in 1884, intending to teach traditional Chinese culture and values. However, neither the Christian nor the Chinese language schools could provide what a normal public school could: a standard public education. The case *Tape v. Hurley* (1885) then stimulated the combat between the American public school system and Chinese parents into a new phase. The California Supreme Court ruled that there was no legal basis for the exclusion of Chinese children from the public schools. After this case, the San Francisco Board of Education adopted a new principle regarding Chinese schooling, separate but equal, and this policy remained effective until the late 1930s.

Unlike their Chinese counterparts, Japanese children had attended integrated American neighborhood schools in San Francisco prior to 1906, partly because anti-Japanese sentiment was always overshadowed by anti-Chinese hysteria, and also because Japan was the only Asian country that had modernized industry paralleling Western countries. However, after Chinese exclusion, as more Japanese immigrants entered the United States, anti-Japanese feelings among Americans increased. In 1906, the San Francisco Board of Education resolved to send all 93 Japanese students and some Korean children to the Oriental Public School located between Powell and Mason streets. Only two of the Japanese students showed up. Leaders of San Francisco’s Japanese community determined to use public opinion to combat such discrimination in California. This action fostered *Aoki v. Deane* (1907). The plaintiff argued that the policy of the board was violating the Treaty of 1894 between Japan and the United States and that San Francisco did not segregate pupils of European immigrants, so it should not segregate those of Japanese descent. This case was dismissed in exchange for the 1907 “Gentlemen’s Agreement.”

The Gentlemen’s Agreement of 1907 did not completely solve the problem of Japanese schooling. Meanwhile, because of continuing immigration and high natural birth rate, Japanese population was booming, to over 71,000 in 1920. Japanese then turned to private language schools to seek better educational opportunities. Around that time, there were almost 80 Japanese language schools scattered in California. The role of the school, opposite to that of the Chinese language school, was to help the *Nisei* (second-generation Japanese) fit into the Americanized life. In general, before World War II, segregation of Japanese schooling did not constitute a phenomenon. In 1929, there were only 575 students in the segregated schools, but 30,000 attended integrated schools.

Japanese children experienced serious school segregation and racial discrimination in 1942, when President Roosevelt’s executive order required more than 100,000 Japanese people to move to internment camps. The War Relocation Agency (WRA) inherited the responsibility of educating over 25,000 Japanese American children. Although conditions for schooling were very tough—always short in textbooks, instructional equipment, classroom furniture, and even qualified teachers—schools were operated regularly. These internment camps had existed for several years. By 1945, people were released from the camps, and WRA determined not to enroll any new Japanese students.

The second wave of Asian immigration began with the passage of the 1965 Immigration Act. It facilitated a diversified influx to the Asian demographic landscape in the United States. In addition to Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos, Indians, Pakistanis, and people from other Asian countries joined the immigrant trend to America. Among these Asian ethnic groups, the upsurge of Indians in particular became salient. By 2000, approximately 1.7 million Indians were residing in the United States, mostly in the “high-tech” concentrated areas such as Texas and California. After the Vietnam War, more than 130,000 refugees, mostly identified as Indochinese, entered the United States from Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos as Communists took over. This substantial increase can be in large measure attributed to the Indo-Chinese Refugee Resettlement Program Act of 1975 and the Refugee Act of 1980. The legislation of the 1990 Immigration Act further strengthened the steady increase of Asian immigration. In recent decades,
APA, as a racial category, has become a more and more diverse group that consists of approximately 30 ethnic subgroups, including Chinese, Filipino, East Indian, Vietnamese, Korean, Japanese, Hmong, Cambodian, Guamanian, Hawaiian, Indonesian, Laotian, and Samoan. The 1980 U.S. census included smaller Asian American groups in the category of all other Asians: Bangladeshi, Bhutanese, Bornean, Burmese, Celebesian, Indo-Chinese, Iwo Jiman, Javanese, Malay, Maldivian, Nepali, Okinawan, Sikkimese, Singaporean, and Sri Lankan. Meanwhile, APA is also one of the fastest-growing groups in the United States. According to the latest census, the total APA population reached 11 million in 2000 and makes up 4.2% of the U.S. population, in comparison with 2.8% in 1990. More than three quarters of the APA population lives in 10 states (in rank order): California, New York, Texas, Ohio, New Jersey, Illinois, Washington D.C., Florida, Virginia, and Massachusetts.

In addition to its diversity and growth, the APA population has undergone other significant demographic changes during current decades. The APA population shifted remarkably from being largely American-born to foreign-born. For example, in 1994, 64% of all APA were born abroad; and population projections estimate that the percentage of foreign-born will remain in the majority for several decades. The resident pattern of APA has changed as well. Unlike their ancestors, APA immigrants after 1965 tended to not only concentrate in areas along the East and West Coast but also spread out nationally. These demographic changes will undoubtedly present challenges to educational practitioners, scholars, and policymakers in the United States, particularly when confronted with issues such as curricula, linguistic proficiency, cultural adjustment and maintenance, identity formation, school climate, academic performance, and so forth. The high speed of Asian population growth has already greatly affected schools and colleges in the United States. According to the 2000 census, the school age youth of APA (5 to 19) has reached 2.1 million, compared to 1.7 million in 1990. Recent population projections indicate that by the year 2020, the APA school age population will continue to increase to over 3 million and make up nearly 8% of the whole. These demographic shifts indicate that almost every elementary and secondary school district across the country will face changes and challenges accompanying the increasing APA enrollment.

During the last decades, efforts have been made to address minority students’ needs and to promote educational equality, both of which had been long neglected, consciously or unconsciously. Landmark cases, such as Brown v. Board of Education in 1954 and Lau v. Nichole in 1974, are manifestations of such efforts. The former abolished segregated schools, whereas the latter brought children who speak little English in public schools a bilingual education, although the inadequacy of programs for APA students is indeed more common than for African Americans. In 2001, the national No Child Left Behind Act further put APA children on equal footing with other ethnic groups by requiring American schools to educate every child in this country and facilitate all of them to reach academic and social success.

Since the 1980s, a body of research has begun to emerge with the aim to document, analyze, and explain the high educational attainments of Asians in the last four decades. Census 2000 showed that Asians exceeded Whites, African Americans, and Hispanics in the percentage of college education: Whites, 26.1%; African Americans, 14.3%; Hispanics, 10.4%; Asians, 44.1%. Asians, as a group, were generally believed to be culturally, or even genetically, more competitive in education. However, more recent studies have found this commonly held perception not accurate. Scholars have found that evidence does not support the genetic interpretation and that Asian cultural values, beliefs, and practices have low correlations with their academic achievements. However, the belief held by the majority of APA peoples that education is the best way to succeed and perceptions, expectancies, and beliefs about opportunities for other areas of mobility may have significant research implications to studies regarding Asians’ education phenomenon.

There are various Asian American stereotypes commonly accepted by contemporary American educators affecting schooling for APA children. Some stereotypes identify Asian Americans as “intelligent,” “high achievers in math and science,” “poor English speakers,” “humble,” “quiet,” “boring,” “obedient,” “foreigners,” and the like. Among these stereotypes, the most influential is the one that labels APA as “whiz kids,” or model minorities. This monolithic image of APA emerged for the reason of Asians being depicted as educationally and economically successful during the mid 1960s, when African Americans were striving to make charges of racial injustice. Asian scholars, however, unanimously criticize the
“model minority” stereotype as being dangerous to Asian American children. In their studies, this stereotype is, rather, a political tool used by the dominant group against other minority groups to silence claims of inequality, and hence silence the multiple voices of Asian Americans. While the stereotype attributes educational and economic success to all APA students, it naturally denies the needs of people who are suffering poverty and illiteracy, and ignores the between- and within-group disparities exhibited in immigrant history, place of birth, linguistic proficiency, educational experience/achievement, acculturation, religion originational/religious propensity, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

The lack of knowledge of the diverse nature of Asian American children directly resulted in a great paucity of comprehensive programs designed specifically for this group. Some studies conducted by psychological scholars revealed that Asian American students, especially those who are not intellectually gifted and cannot reach the academic standards that the teachers and parents have set up for them, are experiencing emotional distress and intensive peer tension both inside and outside their own ethnic group. As a matter of fact, because Asian students traditionally do not solicit help for their mental problems, the pressure sometimes leads to even more serious problems, such as suicide, homicide, the use of drugs, and joining gangs.

Notwithstanding the privilege of being “whiz kids,” Asian American students have constantly found themselves with feelings of marginalization, insecurity, and excessive self-consciousness. These adverse perceptions about themselves are largely attributed to rather subtle, implicit forms of racial discrimination, which can be both institutionalized and individualized. Researchers have suggested that the difficulty of Asian American children to express and assert themselves articulately is a result not only of the unfriendly classroom/school climate that could foster ridicule or hostile peer reactions but also of the cultural incongruity of the “Anglo-conformity” orientation of school systems.

To most teachers and educational administrators, it is said that identifying inter- and intrastudent conflicts is far more complex than spotting language proficiency problems. In addition to this complexity, American school systems still have difficulty dealing with children who enter with various languages, values, backgrounds, and developmental needs. Schooling for APA children facilitates both academic and social success. At this point, adjusting educators’ attitudes toward them and hence understanding their diverse needs is crucial. Meanwhile, creation and renovation of curricula, textbooks, and instructional strategies that are more appropriate to APA primary, secondary, and higher education are imperative. Asian American students cannot have equal educational opportunity if they continue to be regarded as “strangers from a different shore.”

—Mei Luo

Further Readings and References


in the United States, athletic notoriety continues to define the very life world of many schools and the communities they serve. Culture, climate, mores, and values are developed and maintained in direct relationship to the athletic success enjoyed by the local schools. Along with this heavy emphasis on sports comes a variety of critical issues that must be addressed by the school administration.

**FUNDING**

Funding public school education is a critical issue being faced by almost every school district in the country. Higher operating costs in general, along with unfunded federal mandates, coupled with declining enrollment figures especially in small and rural schools are forcing districts to cut programs and personnel. Since very few school athletic programs are able to “pay their own way,” they face the possibility of severe reduction or elimination. Obviously, any discussion regarding athletic programs is of critical community concern and will surely test the leadership skills of local school administrators.

**GENDER EQUITY**

Gender equity in athletics is another issue local school administrators must effectively address. Under the requirements of Title IX of The Education Amendments of 1972, school districts that receive federal funds must ensure gender equity in every program. Although the past two decades have shown significant progress in women’s athletics, there continues to be substantial national concern regarding the issues of equity and accessibility. School athletic departments along with local, state, and national athletic associations continue to be administered mostly by males, and school facilities provided for female athletes are often inferior to those provided for their male counterparts. Addressing these issues, especially in the poorer school districts throughout the country, will continue to be a priority in operation, policy, and procedure for some years to come.

**DRUG TESTING**

As districts continue to battle drug abuse in their schools, there is an increased emphasis on drug testing for students participating in interscholastic sports. Along with the increase in drug testing has developed an increase in litigation, which, in most cases, has upheld the practice. Other legal issues such as professional ethics, no-pass no-play policies, and employee negligence continue to surround interscholastic athletic programs as well.

Athletics in schools will remain an important part of the American culture. Dealing effectively with the issues and problems associated with sports will remain a challenge to most school administrators.

—Jerry M. Lowe

**See also** budgeting; equality, in schools; extracurricular activities; gender studies, in educational leadership; high schools

**Further Readings and References**


**AT-RISK STUDENTS**

The term *at-risk students* describes youth who are seen as being in danger of not being able to assume constructive adult roles in society, whose life chances may be diminished long before they reach adulthood. It is a term attributed to those students who are not succeeding in school, who often eventually leave school without graduating, or who graduate without the necessary skills to function as productive citizens and workers. How students come to be unsuccessful in school has been framed in various ways, and this framing becomes critical to any discussion of what can be done to remedy the problem.

Commonly, school failure has been individually attributed as a personal and private failure on the part of a student. From this lens, the factors associated with being at risk are seen as residing in the individual student and/or the student’s family. These factors could include membership in a racial or ethnic minority and/or low socioeconomic status. Students growing up in homes where parents have a low level of educational attainment are also seen as placing students at greater risk for school failure. Beyond this, issues such as truancy, retention, or below-grade-level performance are all seen as indicators that the student’s connection to school is tenuous.
Students may be described by terms such as “lazy” or “unmotivated,” or they may be considered diagnosable, with either behavioral or emotional disorders or learning disabilities. Their families may be described as “broken” or headed by a single parent, probably female. Parents may be viewed as not caring about their child’s school success. They are perhaps not involved in school functions, and therefore a “blank canvas” on which negative attributes such as these can be inscribed. The students and their families may live in low-socioeconomic, often urban areas, which are seen as having little to offer students in terms of future success.

These renderings of at-risk students frame the issues as individual attributes (perhaps nonnormative development on the part of the youth) or a set of problems, such as a response to family or environmental problems. Viewed this way, the issues fall within the realm of the individual, and the solutions suggested include counseling or psychological testing and diagnosis. With older students, the remedies may fall within the realm of disciplinary actions designed to pull wayward students into line or finally confirm that they do not fit in the school setting in a productive way. This individualistic orientation leaves unexamined the institutional and societal responsibility in constructing the problems of students considered at risk. It avoids the realities of how societies place some students at risk.

Much of this viewpoint fits within a “culture of poverty” argument originally developed in the work of Oscar Lewis. The “culture of poverty” argument evolved into a stance that children are handicapped because their homes do not provide them with the cultural patterns necessary for the types of learning characteristic of schools and the larger society. In essence, this point of view argues that the children’s homes do not provide the necessary stimulation for the “normal” development of these children. For example, some researchers link the experiences of children growing up in a “culture of poverty” with a lower sense of self-esteem. This thesis was specific to a particular socioeconomic niche in American society: the poor.

John Ogbu, in working to explain the lower academic performance of various marginalized groups in relationship to the dominant group, proposed a theory of academic underperformance that has come to be known as oppositional culture theory. From this stance, Ogbu argued that some racial and ethnic groups are underachievers in school because educational systems are seen as extensions of the dominant culture. As such, the school experience is seen as a threat to a group’s cultural identity. Students, then, are seen as developing behaviors that conflict with or challenge dominant cultural practices. Within this framework, students resist success and academic achievement, since both are seen as the domain of White students. In fact, those peers who are perceived as adopting White norms and behavior were accused of “acting White.”

Work by Ogbu and others relied on a shift from the “culture of poverty” argument to one describing cultural deprivation. From this lens, the “problem” of school failure was not the home environment or inferior cognitive capabilities of, in this case, Black students. Rather, Ogbu focused on the deficient motivations and values that impeded successful adaptation to improved opportunities. He argued that these motivations and values have acquired a historical and cultural life of their own and, according to Ogbu, must be transformed. This kind of theorizing moved the emphasis from inadequate stimulation at home or in the neighborhood to values and mechanisms that maintain academic underachievement. This theorizing regarding the creation of an oppositional culture toward school cast a wider net in terms of the group whose behavior it attempts to explain, moving the conversation beyond the poor to include issues of race as well.

The conceptions of at-risk students delineated above are problematic in that educational problems are located in individuals, their families, and/or their communities. These conceptions are implicitly racist and classist. Institutions and structures that help create and maintain educational inequality are left unaddressed and unexamined. Persistent social stratification in the United States is maintained in part by systems that pathologize persons based on their race, family structure, social class, geographic location, and/or first language. While the identification of certain groups of children as “at risk” can be traced back through over 200 years of public policy in the United States, these designations originally referred to children with handicaps and serious diseases, orphans and indigent children, or those who had been abused. Only very recently have the children belonging to specified ethnic, racial, and language groups been added as major “risk” categories.

Surrounding this private and personal framing of at-risk students is a discourse of meritocracy, the belief that privileges are earned and available to all who work hard enough for them. The idea that opportunities are there for the taking to all who avail
themselves of the possibilities further stigmatizes those who are not “making it.” It is thought that they have only themselves to blame, and therefore any solution or problem solving is geared toward intervention on a personal basis.

This rendering of the term at-risk students points toward individualistic solutions whereby students need to try harder, cooperate more, and so on. Yet many children of privilege receive and internalize both tacit and explicit messages concerning their “right” to see their privileges perpetuated. Youth of privilege often benefit from parents who are “successes,” that is, are highly educated and have accumulated wealth and resources that allow them to provide opportunities to their children. Families in the United States are virtually on their own in providing care for their children and are judged according to the same standards of success or failures as individuals are, that is, how much private wealth they can accumulate to “take care of their own.”

In portraying at-risk students as those who are not able to take advantage of the opportunities of the meritocracy, the parallel concern is the image of a “domestic third world.” In this conception, children who are underachievers are described as placing U.S. society at risk of becoming a “third world,” inhabited by individuals who cannot contribute to the economy and, in fact, will be a drain. This description is in direct contrast to those traits valued and cultivated in the United States: independent, competitive, and self-sufficient. Left out of this analysis is the reality of domestic jobs being “outsourced” to other countries and the economic gutting of urban areas, both of which greatly impact the job prospects of the next generation of workers.

Discourses linking being “at risk” and education appear at least as early as 1983, when the National Commission on Excellence in Education issued A Nation at Risk. Citing a rising tide of mediocrity that threatened the very future of the nation, the report was seen as a call to action for educators, parents, and students. Concerned that the country had squandered the gains made in the wake of the Sputnik era, the commission laid at educators’ feet the fear that the nation would no longer be competitive in the world market.

Billed as “an open letter to the American people,” the report highlighted the conflicting demands placed on the nation’s schools, whereby education and educators are asked to provide solutions to personal, social, and political problems that have not been solved elsewhere. But the recommendations coming from the commission focused on a relatively simple equation: Put more effort into one’s education and experience more “payoff” for both the student and the country. These recommendations included strengthening graduation requirements, adopting more rigorous standards and higher expectations, and lengthening the school day as well as the amount of time spent on homework. Beyond this, the commission spoke to effective leadership of schools and fiscal responsibility. Ending with a word to parents and students, students were warned that they forfeit life’s best chances when they withhold their best effort in learning. Parents were asked to encourage more diligent study and discourage satisfaction with mediocrity. The language of the commission and its recommendations were completely in line with a belief in the meritocracy: Hard work pays off for the student and the country; if students are not succeeding, they are settling for mediocrity. This discourse continues today, particularly as it surrounds those youth considered most “at risk” in today’s society: that they are responsible for their failure and their task is to address those issues that interfere with their own school success.

More recently, the Children’s Defense Fund, an advocacy group for children, offered a comprehensive examination of how children are faring in the United States. Speaking specifically regarding the state of education, founder Marian Wright Edelman noted that 40 years after a War on Poverty was declared, many minority and lower-income children still lack a fair chance to live, learn, thrive, and contribute in America. Moving the lens from the failures of individual children to the failures of a society, Edelman described the task of the country in the first decade of the twenty-first century as one of opening wide the doors of equal education and economic opportunity to every child.

This perspective is echoed in the work of the Annie E. Casey Foundation, which annually produces Kids Count, a state-by-state assessment of the condition of children on a number of indicators of well-being. Most recently, the president of the foundation, Douglas Nelson, singled out for attention youth who are “disconnected,” that is, adolescents and young adults who are neither in school, in the workplace, nor in the military. Nelson made the case that these disconnected youth face a lifetime of challenges, including chronic unemployment. Contained within this population are subpopulations who face even more extreme risks and an even higher probability of failure: These
include, for example, those who are in foster care or are detained or incarcerated. The Annie E. Casey Foundation makes the case that if the nation could do no better, then the waste of potential of these youth would be regarded as a tragedy. Yet the very data gathered in the annual Kids Count data books debunk the notion that federal and state governments consider youth and their well-being as top priorities of policy initiatives.

Current statistics suggest that children in the poorest families are 6 times more likely than children in more affluent families to drop out of high school. African American, Latino, and American Indian children are overrepresented among the poor. These kinds of disaggregated statistics help sharpen the focus on who is not succeeding in school or, reframed through the lens of the Children’s Defense Fund perspective, who is not offered a fair chance to live, learn, thrive, and contribute in the United States. The accuracy of the descriptions of at-risk children are not at question so much as the location of the “blame” for their circumstances.

Advocacy groups for youth locate the responsibility for the 14 million children, about 1 in 5, living in poverty in the United States in the public domain. From this vantage point, measures to address the children at risk include affordable child care, full funding of Head Start, and an increase in the minimum wage, among other interventions. These suggested interventions are in direct contrast to the argument that each family is on its own in terms of accruing the resources sufficient for their children, instead of seeing the welfare of children as part of a public trust.

In their work on children and families “at promise,” Beth Blue Swadener and Sally Lubeck posed questions to redirect the “at-risk” conversation. They wondered whether, for example, families have the sole responsibility for getting children “ready” for school or whether schools should be “ready” for increasingly diverse and often marginalized children. This vantage point calls into question whether instructional programs and schools developed for a White, Anglo Saxon, English-speaking, middle-class school population can be adequate for a non-White, non–Anglo Saxon, non-English-speaking or non-middle-class population of students. And, finally, if the responsibility for placing children at risk is located at a broader societal level that includes the very institutions charged with educating them, how can these institutions be held accountable and more responsive to the needs of these marginalized children and families?

Questions such as these are based on the assumption that all children can learn and achieve school success and that no child should be labeled as a likely failure due to economic, social, or racial characteristics of families or communities. Beyond this, Swadener and Lubeck wonder what would happen if the “at-risk” label were replaced with “at-promise” and policies and programs were constructed in congruence with this latter label. What might the full implementation of such an “at-promise” view of children entail?

—Kathryn G. Herr

See also accountability; achievement tests; adolescence; affective education; Black education; brain research and practice; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; critical race theory; contextual teaching and learning; determinism, sociocultural; discipline in schools; discrimination; dropouts; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; expulsion, of students; high schools; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning, theories of; literacy, theories of; mastery learning; metacognition; migrant students; motivation, theories of; multiculturalism; A Nation at Risk; National Assessment of Educational Progress; neuroscience; productivity; promotion, social; school improvement models; special education; standardized testing; state departments of education; systemic reform; time-on-task; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools; vandalism in schools; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


Attitudes are defined as the conceptual beginning of opinions, which may be regarded as an expressed attitude. The fundamental difference between an opinion and an attitude is that an opinion can be defined as an observable, usually verbalized response to an issue, situation, or question, whereas an attitude is a covert, unexpressed psychological predisposition or tendency. An additional difference is that attitudes often are thought of as expressions of fundamental likes or dislikes (affects), and opinions as more cognitive conscious decisions about what or whom to support. Large-scale measurement of attitudes, particularly through survey methods, was made possible through the development of psychometric theory and related statistical methods in the early twentieth century and accelerated greatly with the availability of easily used statistical computing packages and high-speed computer equipment.

Attitudes vary along several dimensions. They may be manifest, meaning that they are openly expressed—such as attitudes about whether privatizing public school functions is desirable—or latent, in which case attitudes have not yet been formulated—as with attitudes about how to address education in a new ice age that hasn’t yet happened.

Attitudes also vary in strength. Some attitudes are held very firmly, such as support for prayer in public schools, and those who hold them may battle fiercely on behalf of their viewpoints at school board meetings. Other attitudes are maintained only weakly; their holders are less likely to argue forcefully and probably are more open to change. An example of weakly held opinions might be a teacher who has a slight preference for constructivist teaching methods over other alternatives but isn’t prepared to fight hard for her preference. Yet other attitudes might barely register at all, and holders of such views may have a very difficult time even articulating what they believe. Clearly, education administrators in most cases will have less to worry about regarding possible public reaction when citizens’ views are barely articulated, although such issues can flare up later, when they present problems for policymakers and may stimulate conflict. For example, public views about which middle school mathematics curriculum is superior wouldn’t be expected to generate much Sturm und Drang until a district’s standardized scores drop below the 50th percentile, at which point an extraordinary amount of passion can be unleashed.

Generally, attitudes tend to be stronger the more closely attuned one is to a subject. Special education teachers in a school district are more likely than a young couple without children to feel strongly about a decision by the school board to cut costs by ending the mainstreaming of students with individual education programs. Parents who otherwise may not have much interest in public affairs can become very impassioned when they are dealing with school boards or principals about their children, who many parents would regard as the most important part of their lives.

Attitudes also vary in valence, or direction. For example, someone with generally libertarian views is more likely to oppose a principal’s ban on middle school students wearing caps (ostensibly to prevent the introduction of gang symbols), whereas voters with a law-and-order mind-set are more likely to find the principal’s edict more appealing. Valence is what education administrators need to worry about when public attitudes form after a particular policy decision is taken: Will the public generally favor or oppose a new school bond referendum? Is there support for building a new middle school? How strong is the opposition to busing students to achieve racial and ethnic balance?

Attitudes held by opinion leaders can be expected to have a bigger impact than views held by others. Opinion leaders are more likely to express and articulate their attitudes, and to try to convince others to agree with them. Attitudes among a more passive audience and the opinions that are articulated based on those attitudes are structured by both formal and informal opinion leaders. Formal opinion leaders exercise their talents for persuasive leadership through elected or appointed positions—for example, as school board members or superintendents—while informal opinion leaders attempt to sway others in more mundane contexts at work, at home, or by communicating through means such as letters to the editors of local newspapers. Most people, most of the time, on most issues, constitute what could be thought of as a passive attentive public—potentially engaged.

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on a topic (school prayer, for example) but not necessarily actively involved yet. The role of formal and informal opinion leaders is to provide the context for mobilizing more passive members of the public and to stimulate thought and action.

Attitudes are measured in a variety of ways, generally in the form of opinions expressed in response to survey questions. Probably the most commonly used questionnaire items employ the Likert set of ordered alternatives, generally arranged monotonically from most favorable to least favorable. Another commonly used procedure is the semantic differential, which presents items along a continuum with antonymic pairs of terms at the extremes. Examples would be:

The No Child Left Behind legislation is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Needed</th>
<th>Unneeded</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Empire State building is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beautiful</th>
<th>Ugly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generally, several such Likert or semantic differential items are included in a survey and factor analysis (extraction of principal components, commonly followed by rotation of the components to achieve clearer interpretability), and reliability measures (e.g., Cronbach’s alpha) are employed to ascertain the number of dimensions represented by the set of items and whether the items form a monotonic scale. Scales can be formed in a number of other ways, including by adding the number of “yes” responses to a series of dichotomous items.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also affective domain; attitudes toward work; behaviorism; behavior, student; brain research and practice; cognition, theories of; consideration, caring; contextual teaching and learning; egocentrism, theories of; Gallup Polls, on public education; learning environments; literacy, theories of; mastery learning; metacognition; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; social psychology; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


**ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK**

An attitude is a mental position, feeling, or emotion toward a fact or state. Attitudes toward work are the mental positions, feelings, or emotions that employees associate with work and the workplace.

In the classical perspective on organizations, employees are viewed generally as having negative attitudes toward work. The classical perspective is based on the view that employees are “basically lazy” and “motivated almost entirely by money.” Thus, management needs to keep firm control over employees and closely supervise their work to increase employee productivity.

The classical view is fundamental to Douglas McGregor’s 1960 Theory X, which assumes that:

- Human beings inherently dislike work and will avoid it when possible.
- Employees then must be closely supervised, directed, or threatened to ensure that they maintain an adequate work effort to achieve the organization’s objectives.
- The average employee prefers direction from those in charge in order to avoid responsibility.
- Most employees have little ambition and value job security more than any other job factor.

The human resource development perspective, on the other hand, is based on the view that employees share common needs for belonging, recognition, and respect and want to contribute effectively and creatively to work that is worthwhile and meaningful. Michael Maccoby wrote in 1988 that employees’ positive attitudes toward work are influenced by feelings of trust, caring, meaning, self-knowledge, challenge, opportunity for personal growth, and dignity. Leadership needs to develop an environment where employees can contribute their talents to the accomplishment of organizational goals.

The human resource development view is basic to McGregor’s 1960 Theory Y, which assumes that:
Employees view work as natural and accept it if it is satisfying to them.

When employees feel committed to the goals of the organization, they will exercise initiative, self-direction, and self-control.

Under the right conditions, the average employee not only accepts responsibility but seeks it.

The average employee values creativity and looks for opportunities to be creative at work.

In a Theory Y work environment, autonomy and a sense of control and empowerment are important factors in employees’ positive attitudes toward work.

Shared values also influence work attitudes and performance. In 1985, Barry Posner, James Kouzes, and W. H. Schmidt found that shared values foster strong feelings of personal effectiveness, promote high levels of company loyalty, and foster pride in the company. Shared values facilitate understanding about job expectations and consensus about key organizational goals and stakeholders. Shared values also encourage ethical behavior, promote strong norms about working hard and caring, and foster teamwork and esprit de corps.

Not only do leaders want employees with positive attitudes, but employees want leaders with positive attitudes. When leaders are enthusiastic, energetic, and have a positive attitude about the future of the organization, they make the context of work more meaningful and employees are more likely to buy into organizational goals. In addition, positive attitudes can sustain people through difficult and challenging times. There is also evidence that a leader’s credibility influences employee attitudes toward work and work behavior. Credibility is the power to inspire belief. Employees want to be able to believe in their leaders. When workers perceive their immediate managers to have high credibility, they are more likely to be proud to tell others they are part of an organization. However, when managers are perceived as having low credibility, employees generally feel unsupported and unappreciated. They are more likely to be productive only if they are watched. They are motivated primarily by money and would consider looking for another job if the organization were having problems. They would also say good things about the organization in public but criticize it privately.

There is a distinction between a job and work. A job is doing tasks for pay. Work, on the other hand, involves one’s inner being. Employees’ positive attitudes toward work are influenced by the meaningfulness of their work. Research on workplace spirituality acknowledges that when employees feel a sense of wholeness and a strong connection to coworkers and others associated with work, and sense consistency between their personal core beliefs and the values of the organization, employee attitudes toward work are more positive.

—Judith A. Ponticell

See also affective domain; career stages; consideration, caring; esprit (school climate); esteem needs; involvement, in organizations; job descriptions; motivation, theories of; personnel management; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References


Authority

Authority is often considered to be the ability to demand obedience or influence the actions, opinions, and beliefs of others. Modern definitions of power, authority, and influence are commonly used interchangeably. Power is not reserved for only the leadership, but can be exercised by individuals at all levels within and outside an organization. Teachers, students, and parents, for example, may be able to influence the behavior and policy formulation of administrators and boards of education. Authority, however, is power vested to individuals as a consequence of their official position or rank within an organization, such as the authority a sergeant may be able to exercise over a private in the military. Organizations typically include many people who are able to exercise power because of their knowledge or access to information; however, authentic authority is reserved only for persons holding formal positions. Although there are a variety of different components that define authority, the most popular definitions examined by students in educational administration fall within the framework of “authentic authority,” as proposed by the German sociologist Max Weber during the early 1900s.
Weber regarded authority as comprising three types of legitimate power that is accepted circumstantially by followers: legal-rational, traditional, and charismatic.

LEGAL-RATIONAL AUTHORITY
According to Weber, legal-rational authority is legitimized by complex, usually written, rules laid out in the form of constitutions, statutes, and other sources of societal law. This form of authority is found not only in governmental settings but is also prevalent in defining the organization and control of most large corporations as well. Authority is vested to superiors by specific legal parameters that serve to structure the positions or offices they hold.

TRADITIONAL AUTHORITY
The foundation for traditional authority lies in the preservation of the social order as it has existed throughout history. Obligations of followers are based on personal loyalty to the ruler whose governance is legitimized by traditional rules and regulations. Obedience is unswerving among the faithful and adheres to the doctrine of “The Divine Right of Kings.” Some examples of traditional authority include ruling families, the feudal systems in early Europe and Asia, some family businesses, and various tribal organizations. It is interesting to note that the ruler is also bound by the same traditional regulations as the subjects and any deviation from this norm would erode the legitimacy of his authority.

CHARISMATIC AUTHORITY
Charismatic authority results in the devotion of followers to an individual based upon his or her character, heroism, or gifts of grace. These leaders are obeyed because of certain divine gifts or unusual qualities they possess, such as revelations from God, extraordinary intelligence, and powerful speech. Examples of the charismatic leader include war heroes, prophets, and visionaries. Allegiance to the charismatic leader lasts only as long as the followers ascribe special qualities to him or her.

Weber’s conception of authority focused on the relationships between the leader and follower and not attributes of the leader alone. He understood also that types of legitimate authority may overlap and be evident in the styles of certain leaders.

—Jerry M. Lowe

See also chain of command; division of labor; hierarchy, in organizations; leadership, complex theory of; leadership, theories of; leadership effectiveness; leadership styles; management theories; power; power, remunerative; principalship; span of control; stewardship; superintendency; table of organization; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


 AXIOMATIC THEORY

For a theory to be axiomatic, it must follow a deductive logic flow, from major premise, to minor premise, to logically deduced consequences. Adapted from Euclidian mathematics and later enhancements, applications of axiomatic theory to education and the social sciences express a model as a set of formally presented linguistic statements, in which new concepts are introduced through definitions, assertions about the model are stated as theorems, and those assertions then are proved from the axioms, which may be considered to be either truths or just assumptions.

A classic example of axiomatic logic is the set of three statements:

1. All humans are mortal (major premise).
2. Socrates is a human (minor premise).
3. Therefore, Socrates is mortal (logically deduced conclusion).

This syllogistic set of self-contained, logical statements leads ineluctably to the conclusion that any person you can name is going to die at some point. Although that may seem to state only the obvious, the point is that an axiomatic approach to theory is based on logical deduction, rather than on empirical support or proof. In contrast, an empirical theory would be one grounded in observation, generalizing inductively, from the “bottom-up,” rather than deductively, from the “top down.” Even more to the point, axiomatic logic holds that even if the major and minor premises are not necessarily true, what really matters is whether
the axiomatic system leads generally to correct predictions or conclusions.

In social science and education research, axiomatic theories may be applied in almost any context. For example, an axiomatic theory of how members of the electorate might vote on a school bond referendum might go something like this:

**Major premises:**

A1: Voting-age residents of the school district are more likely to be interested if they have children in school.

A2: Residents with children in school are more likely to be interested in the school bond referendum.

A3. Upper-income people are more likely to have the time to engage in political activity.

A4: Upper-income people are less likely to support a tax increase, because they have the most to lose and the most to want to protect.

**Minor Premises:**

a1: Residents with children in school are more likely to show up and vote on election day.

a2: Voter turnout is likely to be highest among higher-income residents who have schoolchildren.

a3: Wealth may make a voter less likely to vote for the bond issue, but residents with children in school are likely to support the referendum.

**Logically deduced conclusion:**

To maximize the probability of the bond referendum passing, it would be best to stimulate voter turnout among the part of the electorate who have kids in school but moderate to lower incomes.

Axiomatic theories may or may not lead to conclusions that have a high degree of predictive validity. In this example, it remains to be seen if higher-income residents really do oppose the tax or whether this thinking leads to a winning strategy.

The structures of axiomatic theories have been applied to a wide array of social science areas of research, including game theory and models of bargaining economics, linguistics, and educating gifted children.

—Mack C. Shelley

**See also** Aristotle; economics, theories of; giftedness, gifted education; logic, history and use of in educational leadership; problem solving

**Further Readings and References**


Donald M. Baer (1931–2002) conducted seminal research on child behavior in the learning theory tradition of experimental psychology, he made fundamental contributions to behavior theory in child development, and he pioneered in the application of conditioning theory to behavioral problems in early childhood. Most notably, he was pivotal in founding applied behavior analysis, which experimentally analyzes problems of individual, social, and cultural importance and systematically discovers and applies empirically based solutions to them. Informed by B. F. Skinner’s behaviorism, applied behavior analysis is today a basis for many “best practices” in education, especially in early childhood and for persons with autism, mental retardation, and other developmental disabilities.

Born in St. Louis, Missouri, on October 25, 1931, Baer grew up the son of a labor organizer in Pennsylvania and Illinois. He received his bachelor of art and PhD degrees at the University of Chicago, the latter in experimental psychology where, with Jacob L. Gewirtz, he conducted research on social motivation. On receipt of his doctorate in 1957, he accepted a faculty position in the Department of Psychology at the University of Washington. There he advanced the experimental analysis of child behavior in the areas of imitation and aversive control and joined Sidney W. Bijou in founding the behavior analysis approach to developmental psychology. Moving to the Department of Human Development and Family Life at the University of Kansas in 1965, Baer also began programs of research on language development and on the problem behaviors of preschool children in classroom settings.

In 1968, Baer, Montrose M. Wolf, and Todd R. Risley founded the Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis (JABA) and defined the field’s basic dimensions. In particular, Baer became the field’s intellectual leader. He promoted its high standards of experimental proof (e.g., within-subject experimental designs), modeled incisive logic in conceptual analysis (e.g., behavior theory), and clarified its research agenda (e.g., the experimental analysis of behavioral interventions, empirically based decision making). His basic and applied research continued unabated in the areas of language development and self-regulation, early childhood education, developmental disabilities and mental retardation, chronic aberrant behavior, the generalization of treatment outcomes over time and across settings, and the dissemination of empirically based interventions. He also served often as an expert witness, advocating on behalf of parents who sought appropriate and top-rate education for their children with autism.

Among Baer’s numerous honors were the Don Hake Award and the Edgar A. Doll Award from the American Psychological Association for work that bridged basic and applied research and contributed to the lives of people with developmental disabilities. He served as the president of the Association for Behavior Analysis and the Society for the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, editor of JABA, and associate editor of the Journal of Experimental Child Psychology and the American Journal of Mental Deficiency. He was also widely sought after as an international visiting scientist.
and scholar (e.g., Australia, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, Spain). Baer passed away on April 28, 2002.

—Edward K. Morris

See also behaviorism; learning, theories of; research methods; Skinner, B. F.

Further Readings and References


—he also—

BARNARD, CHESTER I.

Chester I. Barnard (1886–1961), rightly considered the father of modern administration and “sociologist without portfolio,” revolutionized administrative thinking. Too impatient to spend his last semester at Harvard finishing a science lab, he headed to New Jersey Bell Telephone, eventually becoming president, and later the Rockefeller Foundation’s president. Barnard was asked by Boston’s Lowell Institute to lecture on administration in 1937; the series was published in possibly the most fundamental work in administration, The Functions of the Executive, in 1938. He was a profound thinker for all administration and leadership, dealing with the essential components of leadership and administration, focusing on the nature of complex organizations, teasing out three indispensable elements necessary to any effective organization, and focusing on revolutionary insights into the fundamental nature of authority and communication in organizations. Such insights apply directly to educational leadership, since we operate in very complex organizations.

Barnard perceived that the functions of the executive were to facilitate developing three indispensable elements for any organization to be effective. The first was to develop a purpose, necessary as a coordinating and unifying principle. Next, in order to implement the mission, the executive had to develop a system of communication as direct as possible to ensure that all members shared knowledge of the mission. The third indispensable element was to develop a system of cooperation, a personal willingness, to achieve the mission. Absent these, organizations are dysfunctional at best.

Barnard dealt with the nature of authority in organizations, reversing millennia-old thinking by noting that authority was the acceptance of a communication by the subordinate. Thus, authority is the characteristic of a communication that causes it to be accepted. This formulation turned thinking regarding the source of power on its head by instituting communication theory as basic to authority, a startling new approach. Barnard delineated four conditions for accepting a communication: the person(s) must understand the communication adequately; the communication cannot be inconsistent with the individual’s perception of the organization’s purposes; the communication cannot be contrary to the individual’s perceptions of his or her own purposes; and the person(s) must be able to carry out the communication both physically and mentally.

Next, Barnard perceived formal organizations as complex social organisms comprising a system of corresponding human efforts and developed the insight that organizations are more than their formal structure, their table of organization. He pointed to the informal subgroups caroming within the formal organization that both breathe life into the organization and protect the individual from it.

The concepts of effectiveness and efficiency comprise another major contribution, the former focusing on achieving the organization’s goals, the latter dealing with feelings of satisfaction deriving from membership in the organization, synthesizing Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol’s focus on organizational achievement with Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follett’s emphasis on individual satisfaction.

—Arthur Shapiro

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; compliance theory; conceptual systems theory and leadership; creativity, theories of; Follett, Mary Parker; involvement, in organizations; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, theories of; motivation, theories of; organizational theories; Taylor, Frederick

Further Readings and References

BEHAVIOR, STUDENT

Historically, research about the etiology of student behavior has focused on the promotion of positive behaviors and the remediation of negative ones. The federal government also addressed student behavior as part of the 1997 Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), an act that governs the provisions of special education. Three perspectives summarize the different points of view about student behavior: (1) disability, (2) deviance, and (3) alienation.

Professionals who support the disability perspective attend to medical-pathological conditions and profess that behaviors are devoid of individual control and responsibility. Medical professionals use psychiatric, psychological, and psychoneurological evaluations to treat behaviors in mental health settings. Strengths of the perspective include culture-free biases, norm-referenced evaluations, and etiology emphases that lend to interventions. Weaknesses of the perspective include emphases on labels and exclusion of parents and non-professionals.

Professionals who subscribe to the deviance perspective label behavior problems as contrary to socially accepted norms. The theory involves assessments of larger populations to develop checklists and rating scales that rule in or rule out individuals’ consistent compliance with norms. Certain factions of society may differ in their confirmations of normal behavior, such as age-appropriate sexual expression. Overall, the concept of mental illness is not considered, since individuals may control their behaviors to the extent that they comply with social norms. Strengths of the perspective include the involvement of several professionals (e.g., educators and psychologists) and parents to address overt behaviors. Weaknesses of the perspective include the inability to change societal perspectives of behavior necessary to redefine “normal.” The problem is evident when certain nonconforming behaviors benefit individuals and society, such as Rosa Park’s refusal to obey segregation.

Professionals who adhere to the alienation perspective accentuate individuals’ self-actualization. They understand that individuals’ behaviors result from frustrations with bureaucratic societies that promote wealth and power. Individuals who consider themselves “different” may experience separations from society that require mental health remediation. Strengths of the perspective include its humanistic approach that holds society accountable for its practices. Weaknesses of the perspective include an inevitable vicious cycle that emerges when citizens contribute to their societies, which in turn, frustrate them.

Perspectives of behavior evolved into models—theories that drive research, treatment, and educational implications. The biological model accounts for four etiological origins of behavior to describe abnormalities. Genetic etiology links behavior with genetic markers and receives research attention among fraternal and maternal twins. Biomedical etiology links neurons and metabolic functions and receives research attention among individuals with manic-depressive disorders, schizophrenia, and certain cases of autism. Neurological etiology accounts for malfunctions in the nervous system and receives research attention among individuals with anxiety disorders and traumatic brain injuries. Developmental etiology links maltreatment and abuse at early stages of life with behaviors and receives research attention among youth in foster care. Treatment associated with the biological model occurs at medical centers (e.g., psychiatric hospitals), involves the administration of drugs and chemicals to alter the central nervous system, and is administered with little to no input from nonmedical personnel.

The cognitive model includes behaviorists who subscribe to deviance perspectives and examine cognitive processes of thoughts, ideas, and images. Behaviorists offer assistance at the onset of therapy but then place responsibility on individuals to change their deviant behaviors. A willingness to self-examine thoughts via introspection and to self-regulate related behaviors must occur in order for individuals to succeed with therapy. The cognitive-behavioral therapeutic interactions typically consist of four steps: discussion, modeling, practice, and feedback. Examples include problem-solving therapy, anger management, and social skills training. Students may practice and perfect their therapeutic training in school settings and allow school personnel to provide additional modeling and feedback.

The behavior model originated with B. F. Skinner’s (1904–1990) empirical investigations that linked stimuli with responses, known as respondent conditioning and classical conditioning. Individuals’ behaviors devoid of response-reinforcement fade and extinguish. In opposite fashion, praised-reinforced behaviors persist. Social learning theory, an extension of Skinner’s theory, involves environmental stimuli that evoke responses, such as experiences of bullying that cause withdrawal from peer groups. Each individual’s response (behavioral choice) is considered separate
from other responses. As such, therapeutic interventions isolate behaviors and do not account for any potential underlying factors that could be explanations for a host of behaviors. Two intervention examples are applied behavior analyses (ABAs) and functional behavioral assessments (FBAs), and both observe behavioral responses as means to determine and then alter stimuli. Commonly observed behaviors include power, control, attention, gratification, and revenge. Educators are ideal observers and schools are ideal observational settings. IDEA requires the use of FBAs for special education plans, services, and evaluations.

The psychodynamic model began with Sigmund Freud’s (1856–1939) hypothesis that individuals are unconscious of their predisposed pathological conditions developed during their first five years of life. Freud’s research examined the conflicts associated with the id (urges and instincts), libido (sexual energy), and superego (attempts to control and adapt to the id). He concluded that certain defense mechanisms emerge in conflicts, such as denial, regression, and overcompensation. Treatment interventions included hypnosis and dream analyses to identify unconscious thoughts and ideas that led to defense mechanisms. Critics of Freud noted the requirement of highly trained therapists, limited scientific investigations, and pessimistic views that individuals may be programmed for lives full of angst and unhappiness.

The sociocultural model accounts for deviant behaviors that result when individuals cannot develop interpersonal relationships. Individuals perceive and interpret their culture and environmental events and may respond with low self-esteem, lack of social interests, and personal aggrandizement. Several theories are embedded in this model. One example is the social role-playing theory that posits that individuals define their relationships in terms of social roles. A second example is the cultural relativism theory that emphasizes the influential social factors germane to specific segments of society, such as anorexia nervosa, an eating disorder noted in only Western nations. Treatment interventions identify the interrelationships between individuals and environments and suggest required alterations necessary for successful interactions. Educational practices that involve grouping students may hinder or enhance treatment and depend on the quality of interaction that occurs within the groups. Thus, teacher leadership is essential. Opponents of the model criticize data that document relationships but fail to define causation of behaviors.

The phenomenological-existential model downplays individuals’ inherited potential and focuses on abilities to overcome constraints and fears associated with negative behaviors. All treatment interventions include interrelated principles of self-perceptions, self-choice, and dignity. The therapist must view each individual as unique, and the individual must commit to the resolution of his or her behaviors. The ultimate goal is for the individual to achieve self-actualization precipitated by Abraham Maslow’s (1908–1970) hierarchy of needs: physiological needs (e.g., food and shelter), safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization. Role-playing is a common means to achieve the goal. Strengths of the model include its promotion of each individual’s independence and integrity. Weaknesses of the model include the possibility that certain individuals may not fully comprehend their problems and/or lack commitments necessary for behavior alterations.

—John Palladino

See also at-risk students; behaviorism; child development theories; classroom management; discipline in schools; esteem needs; Freud, Sigmund; Gestalt theory and therapy; group dynamics; humanistic education; locus of control; Maslow, Abraham; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; personality; self-actualization; Skinner, B. F.; social psychology; special education

Further Readings and References

BEHAVIORISM

While the systematic application of the principles of conditioning are generally attributed to Ivan Pavlov, the Russian physiologist and experimental psychologist, behaviorism is a psychological theory of
American origin based primarily upon the work of Edward Thorndike, John Watson, and B. F. Skinner. Behaviorism was a reaction to the European concept of “introspective psychology” and an attempt to conduct a scientific study of human behavior. Behaviorism emphasizes observable and measurable operant behavior (behavior under conscious control by which an individual “operates” on and within the environment), its relation to stimuli (events or conditions immediately preceding a behavior), and consequences (events or conditions immediately following a behavior).

According to the theory of behaviorism, stimuli (antecedents) signal a behavior or range of behaviors (behavioral repertoire) that an organism (rat, pigeon, human) could produce (emit) to bring about a specific consequence. Following the specific behavior with a positive (desirable) consequence increases the chance that the specific behavior will be repeated if the stimulus is presented in the future. Following the specific behavior with a negative (undesired) or neutral consequence will decrease the chance that the specific behavior will be repeated if the stimulus is presented in the future.

Delivering consequences in a systematic manner, according to a specific schedule, yields a specific rate of learning or learning curve. Skinner determined that delivering positive consequences on a variable schedule resulted in stable rates of learning or performance, while delivering positive consequences on a fixed schedule resulted in learning curves characterized by pauses in learning or performance. The behaviorists hypothesized that if the correct consequences could be determined and delivered on an optimum schedule in the presence of the appropriate antecedents, desirable behaviors (even those absent in an individual’s behavioral repertoire) could be developed (shaped) and maintained over time. They also hypothesized that problem behaviors could be eliminated by delivering aversive or neutral consequences in the same manner. This perspective became known as behavior modification, or the use of the principles of behaviorism to change or modify behavior.

Initially, behavior modification was employed to address learning and behavior deficits in persons with mental retardation, emotional disabilities, and developmental disabilities (such as autism) in highly controlled settings. Ogden Lindsley, as the director of the Harvard Behavioral Research Laboratory, pioneered the first applications of behavioral psychology with human subjects in the 1950s. As the experimental analysis of behavior and the study of the efficacy of behavior modification continued, the techniques were extended to preschool children, residential clients in mental health and mental retardation facilities, incarcerated criminals, and college students.

Behaviorism also gave rise to social learning theory and is associated with scientific management and total quality management. The basic tenets of behaviorism formed the basis for Alfred Bandura’s concepts of individuals learning through rewards and punishments embedded in social situations via the processes of modeling and imitation. For Bandura, observation of another’s behavior and the resultant consequences (whether positive or negative) was the foundation of the appearance and persistence of similar behaviors in a person.

Scientific management was rooted in the premise that workers would not naturally produce the required behaviors at the appropriate rate for maximum productivity. For maximum efficiency, management had to provide incentives and reward high production and punish low production. This position is consistent with Thorndike’s law of effect. In addition, Taylor engaged in an intense analysis of work procedures to determine “the best way” to do any job. This “work analysis” was later refined by behaviorists as “task analysis” and applied to the development of any complex behavior to break it down into small, more easily teachable steps. In essence, scientific management fostered the more coercive aspects of behaviorism and behavior modification through the use of enforced standards of worker behavior and enforced standards of worker cooperation.

Total quality management also owes a debt to behaviorism and behavior modification. Its focus is on operational behaviors (target behaviors), customer (client) feedback, and analytical approach to understanding processes, systems, and the elements within them.

In the 1960s, the field of applied behavior analysis began to develop under the leadership of Donald Baer, R. Vance Hall, Todd R. Risley, and Montrose Wolf at the University of Kansas. The emphasis on the building and refinement of theoretical constructs that typified behaviorism and the analysis of behavior under experimental conditions that was initially characteristic of behavior modification gave way to the analysis of human behavior in schools, homes, hospitals, and community settings. The principles of behaviorism and behavior modification were now applied to the analysis of behavior problems of social importance in
real-world settings. This perspective on social validity and the emphasis on addressing actual behavior problems within their natural environment and context formed a clear demarcation between the foundation and practice of behavioral psychology. Further goals of applied behavior analysis were to develop a technology of behavior change to improve the quality of the human experience and facilitate generalization of those skills acquired to new and varied environments.

Through the formalization of single-subject research designs and the development of reliability procedures for these designs, the analysis of behavior was applied to subjects as varied as predelinquent youth, mentally retarded adults, eighth-grade students, college students, parents, teachers, board members, and school administrators. The techniques were also applied to target behaviors as varied as creativity, disruptive classroom behavior, academic achievement, toilet training, spelling accuracy, compliance with medication regimens, and crime prevention.

The primary issue in relation to applied behavior analysis has revolved around the perception of some professionals regarding its coercive and intrusive nature. Many educators expressed the concern that the application of the principles of applied behavior analysis would essentially change (not necessarily for the better) the overall nature of an individual. Behavior analysts have always argued that, first, the process of operant conditioning exists naturally in the world and the only meaningful philosophical question is whether or not to bring it under conscious control and facilitate the development of functional, meaningful behaviors. Second, behavior analysts have consistently argued that changing one behavior in an individual’s behavioral repertoire will not necessarily change the overall collection of behaviors in the repertoire in any major way. Individuals are more than a collection of behaviors, and research has indicated that the analysis of behavior is more likely to achieve solely the behavior change desired than any fundamental change in a person. In essence, the fact that behaviors can be effectively changed through applied behavior analysis has prompted critics to voice the “you shouldn’t” position more vehemently. Indeed, much of the progress made in addressing difficult, disturbing, or developmentally inappropriate behavior has been prompted by educators and psychologists who violated the first premise of social reinforcement by attending to those behaviors they considered undesirable (i.e., that of other psychologists and educators telling them “you shouldn’t”).

An emerging perspective in applied behavior analysis that has particular credence for educators is the concept of behavioral cusps. A behavioral cusp is any behavior change that opens the door (developmentally speaking) to especially broad or especially significant changes in behavior. In essence, it is any change in an individual’s behavior that facilitates contact with new environmental contingencies that have the potential to significantly affect behavior in far-reaching and meaningful ways.

While we most often think of cusps as concepts related to students, they also operate in the behavior of parents, teachers, board members, and administrators. Behavioral cusps are always socially defined in terms of “important” or “meaningful” behaviors and are a further example of the increasing growth of applied behavior analysis toward the concept of social validity. Most children pass through naturally occurring cusps in the school setting and via specific, extensive teaching methodologies and become more proficient at teaching themselves. Therefore, educators must consider well the importance and impact of those skills they focus on in their instructional plans and practice.

Currently, applied behavior analysis is one of the more salient features in schools and in the professional training of educators. School psychologists and special educators employ both the procedures and techniques of applied behavior analysis as instructional and accountability practices. Many of the current “best practices” in classroom management are, to a great extent, behavioral in nature. Applied behavior analysis is also embedded within the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act as both functional behavior assessments and behavior support plans for students with and without disabilities. Furthermore, the current educational climate, with its reflection of scientific management principles and assertive (authoritarian) leadership via high stakes testing and accountability, are indicative of behaviorism’s continuing influence on the field of education.

While applied behavior analysis has extended its impact across the spectrum of environments, behaviors, and subjects, it continues to be consistent with its foundation of philosophical positivism. It remains a field of social science with empirical parameters similar to those found in the hard sciences. The focus on clearly observable and measurable behaviors that are operationally defined, the employment of systematic replication as validation of a technique’s or procedure’s efficacy, and insistence on high degrees of reliability
of measurement have made it a persistent, reliable, and effective tool of educational professionals and a significant feature in the field of education.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also Bae, Donald; classroom management; discipline in schools; emotional disturbance; Hall, R. Vance; learning, theories of; minorities, in school; neuroscience; performance assessment; planning models; productivity; Risley, Todd R.; scientific management; Skinner, B. F.; Thorndike, Edward; total quality management; Wolf, Montrose

Further Readings and References


Bell, Ted


During his 1980 presidential campaign and early into his first term, Ronald Reagan had promised to close the newly opened department, claiming it was an unwanted and expensive expansion of the federal bureaucracy. Bell, who had served in the Office of Education during the Nixon and Ford administrations, had strongly supported the creation of a federal department. This legacy of support, coupled with Bell’s lifelong service as a public school teacher, administrator, and university professor, earned him the lasting antipathy of conservative activists, many of whom had found a home in the new Reagan administration.

Bell was determined to keep a relevant federal presence in education but was repeatedly stymied by White House conservatives. He finally found success when he established a National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE). Bell had wanted this to be a presidential commission but garnered little support during the summer of 1981, particularly when plans were being drawn up to eliminate the department. Bell opted for the less prestigious national commission, and the NCCE was established in August. To insulate it from possible conservative criticism, he gave the NCEC a narrow charge: it would focus on managing excellence for K–12 education.

The NCEE spent the rest of 1981 and most of 1982 traveling throughout the United States collecting testimony regarding the condition of public education. Meanwhile, the Reagan administration’s proposal to close the Department of Education was flatly rejected by Congress. In addition, the U.S. economy plunged into one of the worst recessions in decades. By March of 1983, with the country still in recession and Reagan polling badly, particularly on education, White House advisers planned on how to cope with the expected release of the NCEE report. Reagan’s own policy preferences called for tuition tax credits for parents whose children attended private schools, a return of vocal prayer in public schools, and an end to mandatory busing for school desegregation. White House advisers suspected that the final NCEE report would diverge from these preferences.

When A Nation at Risk was released in April of 1983, it redefined the educational debates. Prior to its release, policy discussions largely centered on educational quality. But given its alarmist language and repeated linking of academic excellence to national economic competitiveness, A Nation at Risk generated enormous and sustained national attention. Reagan quickly embraced the report’s alarmist tone but not the policy recommendations.

Bell was personally gratified that A Nation at Risk reshaped the debate on public education—particularly with the focus on academic excellence. The NCEE report also ensured that the Department of Education would survive long into the future. However, his time as secretary of education was running out. Bell continued to fight rancorous and losing policy battles with White House conservatives and was increasingly seen as ineffectual by the broader public. By December
of 1984, with Reagan reelected in one of the largest landsides in U.S. history, Bell tendered his resignation. He returned to his home in Utah, serving as a professor and educational consultant. He died on June 22, 1996, in Salt Lake City.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also Christian Coalition; cultural politics, wars; Department of Education; fundamentalism; A Nation at Risk; politics, of education; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education

Further Readings and References

Belonging

Belonging is a psychological concept, defined as a feeling of connectedness or a feeling that one is cared for by others. Belonging is one of three basic psychological needs that are essential to human growth and development. It involves the need to feel securely connected with others in the environment and to experience oneself as worthy of love and respect. In an organizational setting, the feeling of belonging or relatedness can be defined as a sense of community.

Current research tells us that belonging is important in understanding student (and adult) behavior and performance. The need to belong is a fundamental human motivation that is associated with differences in cognitive processing, emotional patterns, behavior, health, and well-being. Being accepted leads to positive emotions and prosocial behaviors, while rejection or exclusion may lead to negative feelings like anxiety, depression, and loneliness and antisocial behaviors. Being part of a supportive network reduces stress, while the absence of supportive relationships is associated with a wide range of psychological and behavioral problems, including drug use and violence toward self and others.

In education, the sense of belonging is related to conditions that directly or indirectly affect student retention and learning. Students who experience a sense of belonging in their school and classrooms have a stronger supply of inner resources. They perceive themselves to be more competent and autonomous and have higher levels of intrinsic motivation. They have more positive attitudes toward school, class work, teachers, and peers and tend to be more engaged. They have a strong sense of their own social competence and interact with peers and adults in positive and supportive ways. Conversely, the experience of rejection is consistently associated with behavioral and social problems in the classroom, lower interest and involvement in school, lower achievement, and dropout.

Problematic is the fact that many students do not experience schools as caring communities. In general, students become increasingly alienated from school as they progress from elementary through secondary grades, a phenomenon that some attribute to the increasingly impersonal environment that students encounter at the secondary level. Particularly likely to be affected are minority students, students in urban low-income settings, and boys.

Directly contributing to students’ sense of belonging is frequent positive and supportive interaction. Teachers play a particularly strong role in affecting students’ sense of community; peer support is also important. Through high expectations, personal and academic concern, encouragement and support, respect and fair treatment, teachers convey caring to their students. In addition, organizational arrangements that promote (or discourage) supportive interaction among teachers and peers can affect students’ sense of belonging. Organizational options that increase the amount of time that teachers and students spend with one another and thereby permit the development of supportive relationships include smaller schools, block scheduling, interage and heterogeneous grouping, teaming, looping, and cooperative learning. Conversely, tracking, departmentalization, and didactic instruction are design features associated with depersonalization.

—Karen F. Osterman

See also affective domain; affective education; at-risk students; behavior, student; bullying; class size; communities, types, building of; consideration, caring; corporal punishment; democracy, democratic education and administration; discipline in schools; dropouts; emotional disturbance; empowerment; esteem needs; expulsion, of students; involvement, in organizations; mental illness, in adults and children; motivation, theories of; school size; social
Further Readings and References

Mary McLeod Bethune (1875–1955) was a great African American educator, public figure in government, and black women’s club activist who devoted her life to ensuring the right to education and freedom from discrimination for Black Americans. Her lifelong agenda involved education, franchise, and economic opportunity for all. Throughout her career, Bethune fought aggressively against racism, segregation, and inequalities facing Blacks. She was a leader of women, a leader of the “Black Cabinet,” and a powerful champion for racial equality. Her zeal, dedication, and missionary spirit serve as an example for all educational leaders today.

In 1875, Mary Jane McLeod was born the 15th of 17 children to two former slaves in Mayesville, South Carolina. Her time spent working the family’s cotton fields helped shape Mary’s keen work ethic, and a burning desire to read and write precipitated her first formal schooling around the age of 10. Scholarships enabled McLeod to attend Scotia Seminary, a school for African American girls in North Carolina, and then Dwight Moody’s Bible Institute for Home and Foreign Missions in Chicago. Originally hoping to minister to the spiritual and educational needs of her ancestors, McLeod quickly decided that Africans in America should have Christian influence and education just as much as Negritos in Africa. As a young teacher in Chicago, she visited prisoners in jail, served lunch to the homeless, and counseled the residents of Chicago’s slums.

In 1896, McLeod returned to the South, where, as an instructor, she honed her programmatic educational philosophy and gained experience with primary, grammar, elementary, normal, and industrial courses. She also met and married Albertus Bethune, a former schoolteacher turned haberdasher, and gave birth to one son, Albertus Jr., in 1899.

Five years later, in an era when most African American children received little or no education, Bethune established a school in Florida. The Daytona Literary and Industrial School for Training Negro Girls opened in 1904 with six pupils using crates as desks, charcoal as pencils, and crushed elderberries as ink. To finance and expand the school, Bethune encouraged people to invest in the human soul and won over many skeptics of all races.

At first, Bethune was teacher, administrator, comptroller, and custodian. As the school progressed, she was able to secure a staff that taught reading, writing, and economic skills. Bethune ran her school with a combination of unshakable faith and remarkable organizational skills. She was a brilliant speaker and an astute fund-raiser, serving as the president and trustee of the school for more than 40 years. Bethune expanded the school to a high school, then a junior college, and finally, in 1923, it merged with Cookman Institute, a Jacksonville school for boys, and became Bethune-Cookman College.

While laboring to make her school a success, Bethune turned her attention to the national scene, where she became a forceful and inspiring political representative of her people. She led a drive to register Black voters in Daytona Beach, was elected president of the Florida Federation of Colored Women in 1917, organized women’s clubs to combat school segregation and the lack of health facilities among Black children, wrote numerous articles and book chapters, and encouraged the Red Cross to integrate. In the early 1930s, Bethune founded the National Council of Negro Women (NCNW) to take on the major national issues affecting Blacks. By 1955, this organization had a membership of 800,000.

As Bethune continued her work with different organizations, her reputation as a leader in the “Black world” attracted the attention of many, including Eleanor Roosevelt. In June 1936, through President Roosevelt’s New Deal reform program, Bethune gained national recognition and was appointed director of the Division of Negro Affairs of the National Youth Administration (NYA). She became the first Black woman to serve as head of a federal agency.

As director, Bethune issued calls for (and served as a
delegate and adviser to) national conferences on child welfare, housing, employment, and education. Throughout the course of her governmental assignments, Bethune served as a distinguished adviser on minority affairs to several presidents, including Coolidge, Hoover, Roosevelt, and Truman.

Bethune worked tirelessly and unselfishly behind the scenes, appeared numerous times in public, and received many honorary degrees and awards. She died in 1955 leaving behind a legacy of interracial cooperation and increased educational opportunities for Blacks. She was buried on the campus of the Bethune-Cookman College. In 1985, Bethune’s exemplary life of service was recognized. As one of the most influential African American women in the United States, Bethune was honored in the form of a postage stamp and a statue that graces Lincoln Park. The Mary McLeod Bethune Council House, Bethune’s last official residence near Logan Circle, is now one of 10 National Park Service sites that commemorate African American history.

—Kathleen M. Brown

See also Black education; critical race theory; desegregation, of schools; higher education; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References


BIBLE, AS HISTORY

A recent trend since the mid-1990s has been to teach the Bible as history in U.S. public schools. While such practices have been ruled unconstitutional by federal courts, it has been a popular political option for a few school boards and superintendents who bemoan a supposed lack of religious and moral instruction in public schools.

The most famous case involving a school district’s embrace of a “Bible as history” curriculum happened in Lee County, Florida, during the late 1990s. In 1997, over the objections of the school superintendent and the board’s own lawyer, the district approved an elective course that presented the Bible as history, that is, everything that is described in the Bible was a factual event. The curriculum was provided by the National Council on Bible Curriculum in Public Schools (NCBCPS), with the King James Version of the Bible as the only text.

While the state of Florida did include the Bible as history courses as an option in the state-approved social studies curriculum, the Lee County curriculum went much further in its explicit embrace of one theological understanding of the Bible. For example, the NCBCPS curriculum treated Jesus’s resurrection as a historical fact, something that is hotly debated by professional historians and religious scholars. Nevertheless, the Lee County School Board implemented the new curriculum in three public high schools beginning in January 1998.

Just as quickly, the board was hauled into federal court by both the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) and the People for the America Way (PFAW). The federal court subsequently disallowed the New Testament course but permitted the course based on the Old Testament. After the court’s ruling, the school board entered into a negotiated settlement with the litigants, withdrawing the two courses that used NCBCPS materials, opting for a single course using a nonsectarian curriculum. Later during that same year, two of the strongest proponents of the original curriculum were defeated in their respective school board elections, ending the entire matter.

This and later attempts at including Bible as history in the curriculum reflect a literalist understanding of the Bible—that is, everything that is presented in the Bible actually happened. Generally, such literalist interpretations have been a hallmark for fundamentalist Christianity. Since the mid-1970s, fundamentalist Christians have been increasingly involved with politics, and this includes the politics of U.S. education. By the 1980s, they became a major component of the Protestant—or more commonly called Christian—Right. Given the Protestant Right’s involvement in U.S. politics at both the macro- and microlevel, as well as its long-standing suspicion regarding public school practices, which must be officially secular, the effort to include Bible as history classes can be viewed as an extension of their political activity.

Yet these efforts to include Bible as history classes in public schools have proved to be unconstitutional, as well as legally and politically costly to local boards of education. The federal judiciary has been consistent over the past 40 years with its rulings that public schools are free to use the Bible as an instructional resource, so long as they do so in a strictly neutral fashion—neither favoring nor disfavoring a specific
religion or religious tenet. Where districts have gotten into legal trouble is when they employ the Bible as the sole text for a course or mandate the specific version (e.g., King James). Furthermore, for some district personnel, the temptation to use religious materials to proselytize—encouraging children to embrace a specific faith—can be overwhelming. Consequently, the public school districts have largely shied away from employing the Bible in their curricula.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also church-state issues; fundamentalism; religion, in schools; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education

Further Readings and References


BINET, ALFRED

Alfred Binet (1857–1911) was born on July 11, 1857 in Nice, France. His father was a physician and his mother an artist. Binet was an only child. When he was young, his parents separated and he lived with his mother. When Binet was 15, he moved to Paris with his mother to study law. After graduating from the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, Binet became a licentiate in jurisprudence. In 1878 and at the age of 21, Binet could practice law, but his family’s wealth allowed him to follow other interests. He began to study science and biology at the Sorbonne and then to read psychology texts at the National Library in Paris.

In 1883, Binet met Jean-Martin Charcot, the director of La Salpêtrière, a hospital in Paris. Binet began to work in Charcot’s neurological laboratory. Charcot was working on hypnosis, and during the 7 years with Charcot, Binet accepted his mentor’s views.

In 1884, Binet married Laure Balbiani, the daughter of an embryologist. They had two daughters, Madeleine (born in 1885) and Alice (born in 1887). Binet left La Salpêtrière in 1890 to study the cognitive abilities of his two daughters. The 2-year difference in their ages caused developmental differences, but Binet did not focus his investigations in that direction. He spent many years in the study of ways to measure intelligence. These investigations led Binet to conclude that a direct measurement of complex intellectual functions would be the best path for further study. He began working at the Sorbonne’s Laboratory of Experimental Psychology in 1891. He was named assistant director of the Laboratory of Psychological Psychology created at the Sorbonne in 1889. In 1894, Binet became director. He and his coworkers studied perception, hypnosis, memory, handwriting, and thinking. Théophile Simon applied to do research under Binet’s supervision. This began their close working relationship. The following year, Binet and Henri Beaunis founded the first French journal of psychology, L’Année Psychologique, which is still in publication today.

In 1904, the minister of public instruction appointed Binet to a commission to study the problems associated with the education of subnormal students attending Paris schools. The commission sought a test that could be given to children who might have learning disabilities. The test results could be used to place low-functioning children in special classrooms. Binet published his book, Experimental Studies of Intelligence, which described his methods for determining intelligence.

Also in 1904, Binet began developing a test to identify students needing special education. Binet and his colleague Théophile Simon published the first intelligence scale in 1905. This scale, known as the 1905 scale, consisted of 30 problems or tasks arranged in ascending order of difficulty. In 1908, Binet and Simon revised the scale, dropping, modifying, and adding tests and also arranging them according to age levels from the ages of 3 to 13. Binet published the third version of the Binet-Simon scale just before his death in 1911, but it was not yet finished.

—Carolyn Sayers Russell

Further Readings and References

BLACK EDUCATION

The education of Blacks in the United States dates back to the 1860s. Black educators were instrumental in building, operating, and securing funding and other needed resources for Black schools, working with the Black community, and working as advocates for the education of Black children. The educational philosophies of Black educators were generally a reflection of the importance placed on education by the Black community. Blacks attended both public and private schools, and the Black school served as the cultural symbol of the Black community. Even while the school was segregated, it was “valued” by the Black community. Numerous themes have dominated the history of Black education since emancipation. Among the most prominent themes in the history of Black education are the struggle to educate Blacks in a postslavery South, desegregation of public schooling, and the work of Black school leaders.

THE BLACK STRUGGLE FOR EDUCATION

Five common themes characterize the educational history of African Americans in the United States. First, Black communities and families were subordinate in the economy and the society. Second, this subordination led to the exclusion of Blacks from having an effective voice or participation in government; this exclusion led to their inability to fully access public education. Third, because of their position in a segregated society, Black parents were forced to pay taxes for educational services that their own children were prevented from using. Fourth, both public education and postsecondary education, like society in general, were indifferent to Black children and denied them the same educational opportunities afforded White children. Finally, Blacks, like other minority groups, lived in a country that consistently ignored cultural differences. The patterns of exclusion of Blacks from K–12 and postsecondary education were predicated on both race and class, and the Black struggle for education was marked by the lasting effects of slavery, indifference, and racism.

The Black scholar W. E. B. Du Bois noted that the purpose of education for oppressed groups such as African Americans should be directed toward ending the oppression. The earliest scholarship on Black education dates back to the 1890s and began a tradition dominated by two groups: Black historians who wrote to correct history and White southern historians who wrote to promote White supremacist theories. Black scholars have written major works that sought to correct, explain, and document the history of the struggles to educate African Americans. Most of this scholarship was focused on the struggles of Blacks in the South. Scholarship by Whites was typically grounded in a fear of an educated mass of Negroes, and their writing often included a rationale for limiting the type and amount of education Blacks should receive. From the late 1800s until the early 1900s, industrial or vocational education was chiefly promoted by Black educators such Booker T. Washington. Washington believed that Blacks should be trained for nonprofessional occupations such as cooking, sewing, farming, and domestic work. Washington’s accommodationist beliefs were closely aligned to those of White southern philanthropists who supported Black schools. Conversely, Du Bois espoused a curriculum that would expose Blacks to art, literature, medicine, and other more classical and sophisticated forms of education. Du Bois promoted the education of those Blacks who would lead the Black community as teachers, ministers, doctors, and politicians. Education as a route to moral uplift, participation in a civilized society, and education for Blacks were prominent themes as late as 50 years after the end of slavery. Undergirding both strands of thought was the theme of educating Blacks to develop a cadre of Black leaders.

James D. Anderson’s definitive 1988 work, The Education of Blacks in the South, 1860–1935, documents the ways in which Black education was developed within a political and economic context that was based on oppression. Freedom came to Black southerners at the same time that American education was transformed into a highly formal and critical social institution. The education of Blacks, however, would take a dramatically different direction. Anderson details a unique system of public and private education designed and implemented for and by Black southerners between 1860 and 1935. A Black system of education largely in the South was fairly effective given the context of a constrained, segregated society.

A central theme in the history of Black Americans is their persistent struggle to participate in an educational system that would ensure their continued freedom and grant them entrée into a democratic society. A literate and educated Black community was important to Blacks, and they worked to develop a Black culture despite social, political, and economic oppression that was characteristic of a segregated South. In 1860, 95% of Blacks in the South were illiterate; by 1880,
70% were illiterate. By 1910, only 30% of Blacks in the South were illiterate.

When Oliver L. Brown of Topeka, Kansas, attempted to enroll his 7-year-old daughter, Linda, in a White elementary school, the school principal refused to allow Mr. Brown’s daughter to attend the school. This incident led to a class action suit filed by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) on behalf of Oliver L. Brown, Mrs. Richard Lawton, Mrs. Sadie Emmanuel, and other parents in the states of Kansas, South Carolina, Virginia, and Delaware. The Brown v. Board of Education case was argued on December 9, 1952, reargued on December 8, 1953, and decided by the U.S. Supreme Court on May 17, 1954.

Desegregation disrupted the Black community as Blacks were disproportionately burdened with busing, the closure of all-Black schools, and the demotions and firing of African American educators. School desegregation negatively affected the Black community in two significant ways: the loss of employment by Black educators and the loss of control over the education of Black children. The tradition of excellence in African American school leadership was dramatically changed by desegregation, particularly in the South. While some African American principals retained their positions after the historic Brown v. Board of Education decision, generally desegregation had a devastating impact on African American school leaders. The years 1954 to 1965 were the most devastating for Black principals. Whites believed that Black principals had been ineffective in educating Black children. Expert witnesses in court cases argued for the dismantling of all-Black schools and replacing Black principals with White principals. Between 1954 and 1965, the states of Oklahoma, Missouri, Kentucky, West Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware closed most of their all-Black schools, and more than 50% of the African American principals in these states were dismissed.

The firing of African American principals led to the silencing of voices and exclusion of specific racial, social, and cultural perspectives that were critical to the education of Black children. Not only were positions lost in the numerical sense, but more important, there was a loss of a tradition of excellence, a loss of leadership as one of the foundations of the Black community, and a loss of the expertise of educators who were committed to the education of Black children.

The loss of control over the education of African American children also had a negative impact on the educational culture of the African American community. Desegregation put African American children in a racist environment, a context unfamiliar to their parents and other members of the African American community. Black parents were no longer confident that their children would be taught by teachers who cared about their social, emotional, and academic success, and that their children would be prepared to compete in a White-dominated society. A collective vision for educating African American children, an African American epistemology of teaching, and an agenda for African American education were interrupted. Some scholars note that it was during this period (after 1954) that the problems of low self-esteem, decreasing aspirations, ability grouping and tracking, assignments to educable mentally retarded classes, and other systematic victimizations of Black youngsters developed. Today, the underachievement of African American students is a major concern. The consequences of Brown continue to resonate in the academic lives of many African American children.

BLACK LEADERSHIP IN A POST-BROWN ERA

African American principals were central figures in segregated schooling and in the African American community. They served as connections to and liaisons between the school and the community, encouraged parents to donate resources to the schools, helped to raise funds for schools, and served as models of servant leadership as well as professional role models for teachers and other staff members. As instructional leaders, African American principals provided a vision and direction for the school staff. As liaisons to the White community, African American principals often requested funding, resources, and other forms of support for the all-Black school. Vanessa Siddle Walker cited a 1967 analysis of African American principals in which they were described as superintendents, supervisors, family counselors, financial advisers, community leaders, employers, and politicians. Almost 40 years later, many of these same characteristics can be used to describe African American principals today, and particularly those who work in large urban school districts. Their jobs are multifaceted and require the application of a combination of professional, personal, social, economic, and political skills.

Today, African Americans are severely underrepresented in the principalship ranks, and the racial and ethnic makeup of the K–12 principalship remains predominantly White. According to the U.S. Department
of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (NCES) in 2002, African American public school principals represented 11% of all public school principals in the 1999–2000 school year. Compared to steady increases in the number of female principals, increases in the number of minority principals have been limited, particularly compared to the number of minority students in the population. The African American K–12 student population is currently 17%, compared to 11% of African American principals. The nation and K–12 education has become more racially and ethnically diverse; however, the field of educational leadership remains underdiversified.

The underrepresentation of minorities in the principalship has been discussed by educational scholars as well as policymakers. These discussions generally do not specifically address the underrepresentation of African Americans as school leaders; rather the issue of underrepresentation of African Americans is subsumed under the category of women and minorities. A failure to investigate, discuss, and pose solutions for the underrepresentation of African Americans as a specific group has positioned this issue as unimportant in the broader discourse on school leadership and ultimately student achievement. While policymakers have pointed to a principal shortage, others have noted that school districts may overlook potential applicants who are qualified, many of them African American. African American leadership candidates typically complete administrative programs and are more likely to hold master’s and doctoral degrees than their White counterparts. However, they are less likely to be selected for administrative positions.

Two factors can affect the representation of African Americans in the principalship: (1) the shortage of African American teachers directly affects the number of teachers who will enter the principalship pipeline and (2) barriers to accessing leadership positions (ineffective recruitment, hiring practices based on a White male standard, lack of socialization and mentoring, and professional challenges).

There appear to be several strategies to increase the representation of African American principals: (a) collaborations between school districts and university preparation programs to identify prospective African Americans for the principalship pipeline, (b) providing opportunities for participation in professional development activities such as principal leadership academies, and (c) providing opportunities for African Americans to participate in purposeful and long-term mentoring relationships with practicing administrators.

—Linda C. Tillman

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; at-risk students; civil rights movement; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; desegregation, of schools; discrimination; Du Bois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; eugenics; human capital; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning environments; learning, theories of; motivation, theories of; A Nation at Risk; National Assessment of Educational Progress; Office of Economic Opportunity; resiliency; standardized testing; systemic reform; underachievers, in schools; Washington, Booker T.

Further Readings and References

BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Lay governance of public education through local boards of education is a distinctly American invention.
It has evolved from its roots in colonial New England and the common school movement of the mid-nineteenth century to become the most characteristic feature of contemporary school governance. Today there are roughly 15,000 local boards of education in the United States. (The board of education may be variously designated as the school board, the board of trustees, the school committee, the school commissioners, the school directors, the school trustees, or the school inspectors.)

The principle that education is a state function and a local responsibility was first enunciated in the Act of Massachusetts General Court in 1647 and ultimately spread throughout the nation. The act required all towns of a certain size to establish and maintain schools and placed the responsibility for compliance in the hands of local citizens. School matters were initially decided in town meetings, and later the management of schools was delegated to a temporary committee of local government. Eventually this practice led to the appointment of a permanent committee on school visitation, such as the one appointed in Boston in 1721. The appointment of the permanent committee, which was later designated as the “school committee,” marked the beginning of the process of separating school governing bodies from other local governmental entities. In 1789, a Massachusetts law authorized the creation of separate school committees; in 1826, the law was amended to make the establishment of a school committee obligatory. The school committee acquired full legal standing, separate from and independent of other local governmental authorities. The concept of a local school committee, composed of lay citizens, was to become the prototype of the contemporary school board.

The normative and legal foundation of the principle that education is a state function and a local responsibility was established prior to the adoption of the federal constitution. While the Constitution makes no mention of education, the Tenth Amendment reserves to the states and to the people those powers not expressly or implicitly conferred on the federal government.

Hence, education is a state function, and the power of the state in education is plenary. The state delegates administrative powers in education to local school boards as the legally controlling body at the local level. It is a quasimunicipal corporation, or subdivision of the state, created for the sole purpose of administering a public school district. The school board is thus both a creature of the state and a local institution, acting in the interests of the local school district—whose public it represents—while implementing the mandates of the state.

Notwithstanding the fragmented and decentralized nature of American educational government, local boards of education tend to feature certain fairly common characteristics in their organization, structure, and operation. A recent review of literature on the role and effectiveness of school boards indicated that school boards have typically evinced the following characteristics: local control in response to the specific needs and preferences of the locality, separation of educational from general governance, large districts with small boards, lay oversight with emphasis on policy making and reliance on a professional superintendent for administration and management, and at-large rather than subdistrict elections or appointments.

In a 2002 survey conducted for the National School Boards Association, Frederick Hess found school boards to be somewhat less racially diverse than the nation as a whole but more ethnically diverse than most state and national elective bodies. Overall, board members in the sample are 85.5% white, 7.8% African American, and 3.8% Hispanic. Larger districts, principally located in urban areas, are more racially heterogeneous: 78.9% white, 13.0% African American, and 7.5% Hispanic. More than 95% of school board members are elected (rather than appointed). Nonpartisan ballots and low voter turnout (which is generally true of nonpartisan local elections) is the modal pattern for school board elections. The survey reveals that a majority of school board members are in the top income brackets—24% report an annual income of $50,000 to $74,999, 22% are in the $75,000 to $99,999 income bracket, and 21.3% earn $100,000 to $149,000. Evidently, school board members are not chosen in proportionate numbers from all population groupings and are not demographically representative of the population at large.

The recent expansion of the state and national presence in educational policy and operations calls into question the role and function of local school boards. Some contend that this perceived redistribution of power will result in an inevitable diminution of local board authority. For instance, assessing the changing context of educational governance, Michael Kirst observed in 1994 that a school board’s discretion is affected both at the top by increased regulations and at the bottom by teacher organizations’ collective bargaining contracts. In his 2003 overview of trends
affecting the control of schools, David Conley reasoned that while states may win in matters of power distribution, it is at the expense of the local school district, and he maintains that local boards must maintain vigor and strength to make sure its voice in the educational governance system is heard.

On the other hand, Richard Elmore, in 1993, observed that the traditional zero-sum model of intergovernmental power, in which the growth of influence by one level of government results in an equal and opposite diminution of influence by another, did not seem to apply straightforwardly in education policy. Rather, increased state policy making had, in some cases, actually stimulated a surge of local activity and produced a “positive-sum” effect. However, the effect was far from uniform.

A recent and highly significant development in local school governance is that of mayoral intervention in urban school systems. While it is too early to determine the actual or potential mayoral effectiveness in improving urban schools, there is support for this strategy among certain segments of the public and business community. In his examination of mayoral influence on public school governance, Michael Kirst wrote in 2003 that every city was different and that there were gradations of mayoral intervention from low (e.g., trying to influence school board elections) to high (outright takeover of the school system). In any case, mayoral intervention was recasting the relationship between urban school boards and municipal authorities and reducing the historic separation between them.

Despite the considerable increase in state and federal power and the current wave of criticism regarding the viability and legitimacy of local school governance, the board of education remains a cornerstone of representative democracy at the local level. So long as people believe that the school board is their representative agency of government in education, and so long as they believe that education is a local matter, educational governance will reflect those beliefs and the religion of localism.

—Peter J. Cistone

**Further Readings and References**


**BOBBITT, JOHN FRANKLIN**

Believed by many to have established curriculum as a professional field of study, John Franklin Bobbitt (1876–1952) was born near English, Indiana, on February 16, 1876. He was the son of James and Martha Bobbitt, whose influence served as the foundation of a philosophy framed on hard work, study, self-discipline, religious faith, and devotion to duty. He earned his PhD degree from Clark University in 1909 and was a university professor and author. He also taught school from 1903 to 1907 at the Philippine Normal School in Manila. As a social efficiency advocate, Bobbitt saw the curriculum as a means for preparing students for their adult roles in a new industrial-based world. Bobbitt’s work helped to influence the development of curriculum by emphasizing specifications and responses to current social needs as an alternative to primarily schooling children with a focus on traditional academic subjects. His work strongly influenced the reconstruction of American education. While he was a member of the faculty in educational administration at the University of Chicago in the early 1900s, he helped develop the modern concept of *objective analysis,* a forerunner of job and task analysis.

Bobbitt published *The Curriculum* in 1918, and this work is believed by many to be the first book to focus on curriculum. In it, he argued that standardization of the teachers’ work would facilitate student wisdom, which would grow out of participation and experiences, not memorization of statements or facts. The concept that curriculum development should begin with goals and follow scientific procedures began the
movement toward exposing students to many nonacademic socialization experiences and much scientifically engineered physical activity. Bobbitt also wrote *How to Make a Curriculum*, which served as the fore-runner of others in the subject and influenced the practice of teaching and learning for many generations to follow. His final book, *Curriculum of Modern Education*, reflects three decades of work with the theory of curriculum and illustrates the transformation of his thoughts about the subject.

Bobbitt formulated five steps in curriculum development: (1) analysis of human experience, (2) job analysis, (3) deriving objectives, (4) selecting objectives, and (5) planning in detail. Separating the broad range of human experience into major fields represented Step 1. These fields would then be broken down into their more specific activities. Next, objectives of education would be developed from statements of the abilities required to perform the activities. The fourth step was to select from the list of objectives those which were to serve as the basis for planning pupil activities. Finally, activities, experiences, and opportunities involved in attaining the objectives were laid out for the teacher to follow.

Bobbitt’s work created the foundations of job and task analysis, or the idea of analyzing a complex skill into its component sub skills. Once the goals of the task were understood, then teachers would be able to plan for goal implementation. This connection between outcomes and instruction resulted in the current practice of specifying desirable outcomes and then planning instructional experiences that would facilitate their acquisition.

Bobbitt’s work has been highly criticized. The first came in a critique by Boyd Bode of Ohio State in 1930. Bode indicated that training students to meet specific objectives meant that the social order was static and not dynamic, an essentially undemocratic notion, because the future cannot be completely known. Society was then frozen as it was, with those in favored positions remaining favored. Later critics such as Michael Apple echoed the same themes. However, the idea of preparing students to fit into the larger society remains a large part of the accountability movement’s ideology today.

—Noe Sauced

See also accountability; administration, theories of; curriculum, theories of; philosophies of education; scientific management

Further Readings and References


**BOUNDARIES OF SYSTEMS**

*Boundaries of systems* are defined as the point at which order and structure change. Boundaries act as filters between the system and its internal and external environments.

There are different types of boundaries: physical, economic, psychological, and social. In physical systems, there is a visual border that sets the system apart from everything else, such as the physical boundaries of a school district. However, boundaries of a social system, such as schools and other organizations, are numerous and much harder to define because of the dynamics and changing conditions of social systems.

Boundaries of a system can change. For instance, boundaries of a school district can be broadened by using technological advances to exchange ideas, resources, and people expertise with a district located in another geographical area, as though the two districts were in physical proximity with one another.

Boundaries in a system are important because they serve several functions. A few of the functions and the conditions in which boundaries are useful are identified in Table 1 on the next page.

—Jane McDonald

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; chain of command; conceptual systems theory and leadership; contingency theories; division of labor; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; job descriptions; management theories; networking and network theory; organizations, types of, typologies; planning models; rational organizational theory; role theory; span of control; strategic planning; systems theory/thinking

Further Readings and References


The human brain is the most complex of reptilian and mammalian brains. One of its primary functions is a fundamental one—the survival of the host body for reproduction purposes. What distinguishes the human brain from others is intelligence, which is demonstrated in the acquisition, interpretation, and organization of knowledge particularly in the context of new challenges. Because of our intelligence, humans can know, can articulate feelings, can reason, and can create. However, although we are aware, we do not as yet understand exactly how intelligence works or if the mind exists separate and apart from consciousness.

Based on the physical evidence, the modern brain evolved as a biological adaptation. The three-tiered organ consists of a reptilian brain, mammalian brain, and the neocortex. The reptilian brain allows us to survive without conscious thought that we breathe or that our heart beats. When we act without thinking, that is the reptilian brain. The mammalian brain, especially the limbic system, is the emotional center. From that grew the rational brain, the neocortex, a biological representation of the relationship between thought and feeling. Ample research has proven a link between emotion and learning and memory.

The rational brain is normally in control. While a cockroach may instinctively scuttle out of the way, a human will ponder who, what, and why and make a conscious decision after all the facts as to what action to take. However, the rational brain can be hijacked by the amygdala during an emotional emergency. Daniel Goleman wrote in 1995 that we have one thinking mind and one feeling mind. This physical structure of the brain is further influenced by chemical and electrical activity especially at the cell (neuron) level.

### INTELLIGENCE AND THE BRAIN

Some researchers have suggested that intelligence is not related to hard work by the brain or brain size or hemisphericity preference, but rather how efficiently the brain operates. Others feel that it is the speed of brain operation that marks intelligence. Some support of this theory lies in the field of expert-novice problem solving. Experts have more information, which they better organize and which is more easily accessed. Novices have yet to develop those accessible patterns of data retrieval. For example, when novel, complex, and ill-defined problems are encountered, novices tend to rely on intuitive heuristics. Means-end analysis and satisficing are common heuristics that novices would access. Experts, on the other hand, have a wider range of heuristics, including metaphor, a heuristic that contributes to creativity, which is widely thought in our culture to indicate intelligence.

### BRAIN RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

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HOW THE BRAIN LEARNS

Learning physically changes the brain. A neuron fires an electrical impulse across the synapse (space) between itself and a neighboring neuron, and that electrical impulse stimulates chemicals (neurotransmitters) that either excite or inhibit the receiving neuron. These brain cells use water and glucose, and the harder the brain works, the more these cells consume. Typical brain activity accounts for 20% of caloric burning.

While there are many theories as to how the brain works, emergent theory best simulates how the brain learns. The brain does not have one master cell that directs activity. Rather the neurons fire, seemingly without direction, and high-level behavior that is adaptive emerges. From simple rules—impulses across synapses—complex behavior emerges. The brain gets better at some tasks, engages in imagination and creativity, and solves problems. In other words, the brain learns through neighborhood interaction, pattern recognition, feedback, and indirect control, all components of emergence.

The children’s theory of the mind suggests that infants and toddlers learn about what people around them think and feel, and that it is one of the most important things that they can do. The other domains of learning at this age are language, physics, and biology within the environment in which they find themselves. This is important in forming a link to other humans. In children ages 0–8, windows of opportune learning time open, then close, as the brain develops. Although the brain continues to generate new cells and to learn throughout a lifetime, these windows are periods during which learning targeted to a specific content area is best absorbed. For example, second language acquisition is best done in the primary grades, not in high school. Furthermore, learning and memory are influenced by emotion, and knowledge is better remembered if it is tied to an emotion. Too much emotion, however, and learning shuts down.

Constructivists believe that students continuously build understandings and are naturally inclined to learn and think. Gerald Edelman visualizes the brain as a jungle with continuous interacting systems. The best learning environment for such an organism is one that provides many cultural, sensory, and problem layers. The brain evaluates information through observing, finding patterns and generalizing, forming conclusions, and assessing those conclusions. The brain is also adept at remembering patterns, and it prefers metaphors because of the visual link.

IMPLICATIONS OF BRAIN RESEARCH FOR TEACHING

For educators, knowing that students walk into the classroom with an initial understanding of concepts is key to helping students learn. If that prior understanding is not engaged, learning will not take place. The reason is a physical one. The brain recognizes patterns, and if those patterns are not challenged, the brain will not adapt.

Starting where students are at is key. Upon that existing knowledge, the teacher can introduce new material to help students build additional factual knowledge, build a conceptual framework, and facilitate retrieval and application through multiple examples.

The glue that holds learning together for the learner is the emotional appeal of taking control of their own learning, a metacognitive approach. The brain is actually two minds, the felt and the rational. Utilizing Bloom’s taxonomy in the classroom can enhance metacognition, the ability to monitor one’s understanding and decide when it is not adequate. Experts are better at metacognition than novices are.

The research on the differences between the two reveals that experts see patterns, relationships, or discrepancies that novices do not. Experts are not smarter or just good thinkers; they have a deep understanding of the subject matter and that helps them select and remember relevant information culled from new insights. It normally takes about 15 years for an expert to become an overnight success. Chunking is one method they use to their advantage. Their chunks of memory are richer in features, concepts, and interrelations than that of a novice.

Hemisphericity theory posits that one hemisphere of the brain is more dominant than the other. Recent research has shown that both hemispheres of the brain contribute to imagination and creativity, not just the right brain, and that logic is not stored exclusively in the left brain. The hemispheres communicate with one another, and children are not exclusively left-brain learners or right-brain learners.

Howard Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences posits that children can be gifted in other ways than just academic. He listed eight areas: linguistic, logical, musical, spatial, bodily kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalistic. Only the first two are typically tested on school exams. Critics of Gardner’s
theory contend that the remaining six intelligences are in reality talents, not intelligences. This illustrates a controversy in brain research. The precise definition of intelligence remains elusive.

—JoAnn Franklin Klinker

See also adult education; arts education; behaviorism; curriculum, theories of; decision making; Gardner, Howard; giftedness, gifted education; instructional interventions; learning environments; Mensa; philosophies of education; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


BRYANT, WILLIAM CULLEN

William Cullen Bryant (1794–1878), poet and editor, had an impact on education through both his literary contributions and his advocacy for social reform.

Bryant’s father, a physician, gave him access to a library full of classics in their Massachusetts home. Bryant showed qualities of a prodigy, writing both poetry and a full-length book, The Embargo, in his preteen years. He attended Williams College for 1 year and gained admission to the bar in 1815 after 3 years of preparation. Meeting his wife in Great Barrington, Massachusetts, he practiced law there until 1825. He continued to write and extensively edit earlier works during his law years. One excellent example is “Thanatopsis,” published in the North American Review in 1817, which gained Bryant his first important recognition. Bryant scholars believe he wrote the poem much earlier and edited it many times prior to publication. His other major poetic accomplishment during that period was “The Ages,” which he delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa society at Harvard in 1821.

Both the lack of challenge in law practice and his interest in affecting social issues of the time drew him to New York City, where in 1826 he became associate editor of the New York Evening Post. Within 3 years, Bryant was part owner and editor in chief, using that platform to defend human rights and advocate for social issues of the time such as free trade and abolition of slavery. This foreshadowed a challenge and opportunity for contemporary educational leaders. As the connection between educational reform and social justice intensified, Bryant modeled the manner in which leaders must use the bully pulpit available to them to positively impact human rights. He continued to write both poetry and prose while at the Post, publishing The Letters of a Traveler in 1850, which described his travels in Europe and South American countries. His essays promoted simplicity and imagination in writing, a sense of aesthetics and morality.

As noted by one of his contemporaries in 1843, the quality of his writing propelled American literature into the world-class status so long dominated by its British forebears. The only critiques of Bryant’s writing are based on a lack of breadth. Because of his attention to other demands such as his early law practice and great contributions to the Evening Post, he never published a full range of the poetic genre. Nevertheless, the whole of his literary work, including his translations of the Iliad and the Odyssey, strongly influenced American literature and thus education. He even responded to letters from teachers. The North American Review noted during Bryant’s lifetime that his name is classical in the literature of the language. Wherever English poetry is read and loved, his poems are known by heart.

—Helen C. Sobehart

See also aesthetics, in education; arts education; humanistic education; literacy, theories of; morality, moral leadership; persuasion; writing, teaching

Further Readings and References


BUDGETING

School budgeting is the process for securing resources and allocating those resources to provide instructional and noninstructional programs that support student learning. Budgeting is a tool for achieving a school or school district’s mission, goals, and objectives. The budget document, a result of the budgeting process, is a policy statement of what is valued.

A public administration model describes budgeting as clusters of decisions: process, revenues, expenditures, balance, and implementation. Decisions about process determine time lines, who the decision makers are, and the level of authority they have. Several theoretical models of budgeting processes occur in the literature. Budgeting models are generally developed/used by the federal level of government first, and then they trickle down for experimentation in the education arena. Budgeting models mostly describe estimating expenditures with little attention paid to revenues. Line item, incremental, and earlier program budgeting models are described as top-down processes with few stakeholders involved in the process. Zero-based budgeting, site-based budgeting, and performance budgeting are more decentralized processes that include many stakeholders with greater authority.

Historically, line item budgeting occurred first around the beginning of the twentieth century. The development of the line item budget was a response to the desire for greater accountability in the handling of governmental funds. The first historical budgeting documents contain only a few line items for revenues and expenditures. The complexity of today’s schools, with multiple revenue streams to fund a plethora of educational programs, requires a budget document with hundreds of line items, as the accounting process requires coding for program (instruction or noninstruction), function (direct instruction, school administration, transportation, etc.), and object (salaries, benefits, supplies, contracted services, etc.).

All budget documents end up as line item budgets, largely due to accounting requirements, regardless of the process that was used to develop the budget.

Line item budgeting, as a process, occurs by literally examining each line item and making a decision as to whether last year’s budgeted amount should be increased, be decreased, stay the same, or possibly be eliminated. Line item budgeting focuses on the objects of expenditure rather than on larger programmatic concerns. Some scholars of budgeting argue that line item budgeting is easy to do and easily understood and has been the mainstay of public budgeting regardless of the introduction of other processes. However, others argue that it is almost impossible to base programmatic funding decisions by looking at hundreds of individual line items.

Incremental budgeting is much like line item budgeting. The major distinction is that rather than examining each line item, incremental budgeting applies the same percentage increase in an across-the-board manner to each of the budget items. A 5% increase in revenue would translate into an automatic 5% increase for each budget item. While some writers have argued that incremental budgeting is fair because there is uniformity, others have argued that this process does not take into account the real fiscal needs of a budget unit. Educators may be more experienced with decremental budgeting—equal percentage reductions when budget cuts are necessary. Again, while some argue that across-the-board cuts are fair, others argue that such a simplistic budgeting technique does not account for needs or efficiencies that may already be in place.

Program budgeting developed during the 1960s and was implemented in the U.S. Department of Defense, headed by Robert McNamara. In essence, this was an attempt to align budgeting with mission, goals, and objectives and introduced planning and evaluation into the budget process. This method was very top-down. Technology was in its infancy, and gathering all the information without the advantage of today’s integrated information management systems made the process burdensome. The process was very time consuming and was abandoned, although some school systems did try to implement a variation of it during the 1970s.

Zero-based budgeting was implemented by the federal government during the Carter administration. The country was in a recession, and one of the goals was to bring greater efficiency to government. In theory, each year the budget begins at zero and every expenditure (termed a decision package) must be defended. Steps in zero-based budgeting include determining decision packages, analyzing (cost-benefit, effectiveness, efficiency), linking package to organizational goals, prioritizing and ranking packages, and funding in ranked order. Advantages of this process are that budget growth is tied to organizational goals and may improve planning. Zero-based budgeting requires a participatory management style. Disadvantages are that it is complex, goals are difficult to agree on, and many programs are required and can’t be eliminated.
Performance-based budgeting is the most recent development. While it is similar to program budgeting, performance-based budgeting requires a clearer linkage between funding and achievement of goals. It requires participation of staff and the public. Decentralization and devolution of authority, combined with results, form its core. It is as much a theory of organizational management as it is a budgeting theory. Other processes focus on the accounting function of spending money correctly and providing efficiency. Performance-based budgeting directly links achievement of organizational goals to funding. This process is in its infancy in terms of becoming a normative theory.

Site-based budgeting appears frequently in education literature. While some writers try to place this budgeting as a new process, it is more in line with the emerging performance budgeting. Unlike other budgeting processes, site-based budgeting literature includes formulas for devolving dollars to the school site. These formulas include a basic per pupil expenditure, additional funding for programs and students that may cost more, and an adjustment for building maintenance and operations costs. There is, however, no dialogue about how to allocate those dollars at the site except that staff and parents and community members will be involved in the decisions. The site council or the building leader chooses to use line item, incremental, program, zero-based, or performance-based budgeting techniques.

The choice of budgeting process may vary with differing conditions such as the financial situation of the organization, the political situation, the expertise of stakeholders, and leadership style. The process may also change with whether the projections are for revenues or expenditures or if there is a need to balance the budget through raising revenues and/or decreasing expenditures.

Revenues for schools come from three major sources: local tax (usually property) levies, state funding based on complex formulas, and federal funding targeted at specific populations. The estimation of these revenues is a highly technical process. Knowledge of taxable property values and legal restrictions regarding mill rates are necessary. While deciding whether to change mill rates might best be handled with input from the community, the calculations themselves are usually not in the scope of shared governance. The same is true of state aid funding formulas. State funding is usually based on the number of students (enrollment, attendance, full-time equivalents) and formulas that seek to provide funding to local school districts in an inverse relationship to the district's local tax base. While input from school personnel is needed to project enrollments and to determine how the demographics of the students will impact programmatic placement, the actual calculations for funding require central office personnel who are knowledgeable of these formulas to complete the actual projections. The same may be said of budgeting for federal revenues.

Projecting expenditures provides more opportunities to involve stakeholders in the process. School-level personnel and parents may be called upon to review student demographics, achievement levels, dropout rates, graduation rates, and so on and provide a plan for their particular student population. This plan may then be costed out and sent to the central office for approval. Under performance budgeting, the plan also includes a clear linkage of expenditures to very specific, agreed-upon goals for that school building.

Most of the literature on site-based budgeting, however, does not advocate this bottom-up approach. This literature speaks to the school site making decisions about dollars that are sent to the school site, based on a formula that in many ways is patterned on state aid formulas. The suggested formulas include sending to the school site a set dollar amount per student, more dollars for children having special needs such as children with disabilities, adjustments for differences in grade level costs, and dollars for maintenance and operations. Once these dollars are allocated to the school site, decisions are made as to what will be purchased.

There is a wide variation in school-level responsibility for budgeting. Salaries and benefits account for approximately 87% of school district budgets. Expenditures on direct instructional supplies average about 1% or less of a school district budget. If the school site is making decisions about classroom materials, then their level of responsibility is much less than if the school were responsible for personnel costs as well. In fact, it may be argued that in most schools, site-based budgeting means more implementation of a predetermined district-level budget than involvement in the development of a budget.

School budgets must be balanced. Expenditures may not exceed revenues. If, after the forecasts and calculations of revenues and expenditures are completed, the budget is not balanced, then district and/or school personnel must find ways to make the budget balanced. Deciding how to balance the budget may involve input from stakeholders, as they may be asked
to develop plans for cutting or reducing programs. Community members may be involved in requests for added revenues, such as a millage increase.

In most states, school districts are allowed to accumulate a fund balance, the so-called rainy day fund. In a given year, the district may decide to add to that fund balance by spending less than incoming revenues. The fund balance may be used to balance the budget in the event of reduced revenues.

A school district budget is a legal document once it is approved by the board of education. However, a few states require voter approval of the budget. Most states require a public hearing of the budget prior to its approval.

Once the budget is approved, administration is delegated to implement or to spend the budget. Budgets may be amended during the fiscal year by the board of education. During the implementation process, great care must be taken to spend the dollars properly. Performance budgeting requires that accountability also be demonstrated by linking the expenditures to improved student learning.

—Catherine C. Sielke

**See also** accountability; boards of education; community relations; cost-benefit analyses; elections; of school boards; bond issues; enrollment projections; equity and adequacy of funding schools; finance, of public schools; forecasting; fringe benefits; goals, of budgeting; governance; management theories; parental involvement; principalship; property tax; reduction in force; salary and salary models; satisficing theory; site-based management; special education; staffing, of school districts; taxes, to support education

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**BULLYING**

Daniel Olweus, a Scandinavian researcher, is generally recognized as the foremost authority on bullying. He defines bullying as intentionally harmful, aggressive behavior of a more powerful person or group of people directed repeatedly toward a less powerful person, usually without provocation. Thus, hitting/kicking, teasing, name calling, taunting, threatening, stealing, excluding, or spreading rumors are typical bully behaviors. Added to this list is a new type of bullying over the Internet, called “cyberbullying.”

A 2002 report by the Families and Work Institute interviewed 2,000 students and found that small things, such as teasing, often trigger serious episodes of violence. On school campuses, studies have found that anywhere from 20% to 30% of students are frequently involved in bullying incidents either as the victim or the bully. The 2003 *Indicators of School Crime and Safety* reported that bullying was the only category that reported an increase from 5% of students reporting that they had been bullied at school in the last 6 months in 1999 to 8% reporting this in 2001.

High school students tend to bully students who don’t fit in. Boys tend to select victims who are physically weak, who are short tempered, based on who their friends are, or by their clothing. Girls, on the other hand, choose victims based on looks, emotionality, being overweight, or who receives good grades.

Being a victim of bullying causes students to feel less connected with the school, which often leads to poor physical health, lowered participation in extracurricular events, violence, substance use, and suicide. The ability to form natural relationships is often impaired, and this rejection by peers often leads to emotional disturbances in adulthood. Victims of bullying are more anxious than their peers, are likely to be targeted for atypical gender behaviors or racism,
and have poorer relationships with classmates and more loneliness than bullies, especially boys.

While bullies demonstrate some of the same characteristics as their victims, they are more likely to be depressed rather than hold higher social status than victims, use alcohol and smoke, have poorer academic achievement and perceive a poorer school climate, and are more likely to manifest defiant behavior and have racist attitudes. In addition, bullies have a much higher chance of later committing delinquent acts, and even several years after graduation, they may have significantly more depression and poorer self-esteem than their peers.

The students who seem to be the most seriously affected by bullying are the victims themselves. The victims of bullies are more likely to smoke, drink, and have poorer academic achievement than bullies, have poorer relationships with classmates, and have increased loneliness compared with bullies. They need to retaliate following acts of aggression. Some suggest that young people who are seriously abused as children may seek to bully others, contributing to a cycle of abuse that extends into adulthood and to their own families.

Everyone at school suffers when bullying occurs, including bystanders who often feel anger and helplessness, report nightmares and increased worry and fear, and sometimes exaggerate reports of bullying to justify failing to help a victim. In addition, bystanders often intentionally do not become involved because they do not know how to respond, which results in experiencing a loss of their own self-respect.

In the early 1970s, Olweus led Sweden and Norway to implement an antibullying campaign characterized by adult involvement as a critical component. Two years later, incidents of bullying had been reduced by 50%. Other schools have implemented character education programs and have emphasized conflict resolution, mediation, and other peace-building strategies. Yet, too often, adults cannot identify bullies or victims at school, because students very rarely break the code of silence to rat on bullies. Furthermore, studies indicate that adults are not viewed by students as being committed to reducing bullying at school. In fact, teachers are not even sure if other teachers are committed to reducing bullying, nor, they admit, do they know how to help when they do become aware of bullying.

—Sandra Harris

See also character education; conflict management; discipline in schools; school safety; violence in schools

Further Readings and References
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BUREAUCRACY

The development of bureaucracy, an idealistic type of organization, is most generally attributed to Max Weber, a German sociologist. Many organizations use various characteristics of the bureaucratic model. Schools and other educational organizations are no exceptions. Some of Weber’s bureaucratic characteristics have been shown to assist in the efficient and effective operation of the educational organization; others are likely to cause organizational inefficiency or unanticipated consequences.

Weber studied government entities and, more specifically, the formal portion of those institutions. His intent was to demonstrate that the bureaucratic model could create rational solutions to the various complex problems of the modern organization. He especially wanted to demonstrate that the bureaucratic organization could overcome the decision-making limits of the individual or other forms of human organizations. His work focused on the relationship between the official and the office but paid less attention to the human elements or to the informational aspects of organizations.

Weber identified six characteristics of bureaucracy: (1) division of labor and job specialization, (2) organizational guidance through rules and regulations, (3) an impersonal orientation, (4) a well-defined hierarchy of authority, (5) technical competence and career orientation, and (6) a separation of ownership from administration.

DIVISION OF LABOR AND JOB SPECIALIZATION

Work in the bureaucracy is divided and distributed throughout the organization. This distribution of organizational work identifies required roles and the functions
that accompany each role. These divisions of labor tend to cause employees to become experts in their assigned areas and result in job specialization. For example, school roles and responsibilities can be divided in multiple ways—by elementary and secondary, by subject or content area, and by administrative function such as business, student services, curriculum, special programs, and so on. Often, certification is the official designation of job specialization.

**GUIDANCE THROUGH RULES AND REGULATIONS**

Rules and regulations define the rights and responsibilities involved in each position within the organization. Through rules and regulations, activities within the hierarchy can be coordinated, and a level of continuity, uniformity, and stability of operations can be ensured even when personnel changes occur. Schools and school districts have numerous rules and regulations by which the organization is governed and decisions are made. Some of the rules and regulations are external, coming from the state or federal government or through the courts. Other rules are initiated and adopted within the organization through policies, contracts, student and teacher behavior codes, and so on.

**AN IMPERSONAL ORIENTATION**

This area focuses on the formal organization and emphasizes that decisions should be based on facts, not feelings. The assumption is that operating from a basis of facts promotes rational decision making and equal treatment of individuals. Evaluation of performance, whether of students by teachers, teachers by administrators, or building administrators by central office administrators, is to be based on objective data gathered from a variety of sources, not on feelings of like or dislike between the individuals involved.

**A WELL-DEFINED HIERARCHY OF AUTHORITY**

Offices in the organization are arranged in a hierarchy, with each lower office being supervised by the one above it. For schools and school districts, the well-defined hierarchy of authority begins at the state level with the legislature, the state board of education, the state commission, and then the local board of education. At the local level, the hierarchy begins with the local board of education, moves to the superintendent, to various central office administrative persons with specialized job responsibilities, to school administrators, and then to teachers and students. Persons in each of the roles report to and are supervised by the role immediately above.

**TECHNICAL COMPETENCE AND CAREER ORIENTATION**

Employment in the bureaucracy is based on an individual’s technical qualifications and allows employees to see their work as a career. Promotion within the bureaucracy may be based on achievement, on longevity, or both. The need for technical expertise is evident in the field of education, and certification is required for positions in educational organizations. The assertion becomes that schools and districts promote on both longevity and achievement criteria. Promotions are generally recommended by the immediate supervisor and require approval at the higher levels of the bureaucracy.

**A SEPARATION OF OWNERSHIP FROM ADMINISTRATION**

Public monies and equipment are separate from the private property of the official. What one does as the administrator of the bureaucracy is distinctly separate from what the owner’s or governing entity’s responsibilities are, and the administrator most likely will be a different individual. In schools and school districts, this bureaucratic characteristic is most likely to surface as the separation of the policy functions and the executive functions between the school board and the school administration. Boards of education as representatives of the community are charged with the responsibility of being the policymakers for the district and the steward of the allocated funds. School superintendents, central office administrators, school administrators, and teachers as well as classified staff are to see that rules and regulations to implement the policies of the board are developed and employed.

Writers since Weber generally support Weber’s notions that bureaucracy is more efficient in relationship to the goals of the organization. However, these authors also note that Weber did not offer to compensate for the important dysfunctional consequences in bureaucratic modes. For example, while the division of labor and job specialization may produce efficiency
and expertise, doing so also narrows the scope of the work and can result in boredom. Another example of bureaucratic dysfunction would be when the rules and regulations that frequently serve as operational guides create a rigid adherence to specific actions. In addition, individuals within the organization can become so fixed on following the rules that the original goal is forgotten and goal displacement occurs. There are numerous studies of school bureaucracy where such dysfunctions are clearly evident. Two examples are David Rogers’s 1968 study of New York City schools and G. Alfred Hess’s 1991 study of the Chicago public schools.

—Anita Pankake and Brenda R. Kallio

See also administration, theories of; chain of command; Chicago school reform; decentralization/centralization controversy; division of labor; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; line and staff concept; management theories; organizations, types of, typologies; site-based management; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


BURNS, JAMES MACGREGOR

Elected in 2003 as a fellow into the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, presidential biographer and historian James MacGregor Burns (1918–) is distinguished for his biographies of the Roosevelts and Kennedys. Most noted, however, for scholarship in political leadership, Burns changed the direction and conversation in leadership studies from leaders who possess a certain set of political and character traits to the consideration of political leadership as the opportunity to transform, and introduced the notion of transformational leadership into the lexicon of leadership theory. His 1978 scholarly work Leadership is widely considered the seminal work in establishing leadership studies as an academic discipline and the watershed work for research in transformational leadership.

Senior scholar at the Jepson School of Leadership Studies at the University of Richmond and Woodrow Wilson Professor of Political Science Emeritus at Williams College, Burns graduated from Williams College in 1939 and then worked in Washington as an intern in the office of Utah Democrat Abe Murdock. In World War II, he served as an Army combat historian, serving in the Pacific Theater from 1943 to 1946. Burns was awarded the Bronze Star and four Battle Stars for his part in the invasions of Saipan, Guam, the Philippines, and Okinawa. Upon returning to the United States, he earned a master’s degree and doctorate in political science from Harvard University and later attended the London School of Economics. Burns published his first book, Congress on Trial, in 1949, and since then has authored or coauthored more than two dozen books, including the first biography of John F. Kennedy as well as a college textbook that is still widely used today. In 1970, he won the National Book Award and the Pulitzer Prize for his biography Roosevelt: The Soldier of Freedom.

With Leadership, Burns provided the first interdisciplinary examination of leadership, thus playing an integral role in the development of “leadership studies” as an academic field of study. Professor Burns was one of the first to study leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers rather than simply as an assessment of the traits that set leaders apart. He also transformed the view of leadership by insisting upon the moral dimensions of great leadership.

In his central thesis, Burns notes that while leadership is an aspect of power, it must be exercised in a special relationship with the followers one leads. That relationship, that process, according to Burns, must be transformational. Thus, transformational leaders engage with others in such a way that both leaders and followers are raised to higher levels of motivation and morality; that is, each brings out the best in the other. Through a teaching role, leaders help followers understand, adopt, and unite toward the pursuit of “higher” goals rather than immediate needs and wants. Most interested in end values of liberty, justice, and equality, transformational leaders should be evaluated by three criteria: (1) by the modal values (values of means) of honesty and integrity, by the extent to which they advanced or thwarted fundamental standards of good conduct in humankind; (2) by the end values of equality and justice, and (3) by their legacy,
their impact on the well-being of the persons whose lives they touched. Burns’s notions of leadership have had a profound impact on leadership studies. Georgia Sorenson indicated that by the year 2000 more than 570 dissertations had been written on the concept of transformational leadership.

—JoAnn Danelo Barbour

See also great man theory; leadership, theories of; power; trait theory; transformational leadership

Further Readings and References


BURROUGHS, NANNIE

Educator, civil rights advocate, and religious leader, Nannie Helen Burroughs (1879–1961) was 21 years old when she gained notoriety as an advocate for equity and women’s rights. At the annual conference of the National Baptist Convention in Richmond, Virginia, in 1900, she powerfully expressed the long-held frustrations of women in the Baptist Church who were made slaves by Whites and were suppressed by fellow Blacks. Burroughs’s speech served as a catalyst for the formation of the Women’s Convention Auxiliary, the largest women’s organization in America. Her fight for social justice was fueled by what she had seen as a long-standing marginalization of Black women in both educational and religious institutions.

Burroughs was born on May 2, 1879, in Orange, Virginia, to John and Jennie Burroughs. Educated in Washington, D.C., at the Colored High School (later renamed the M Street School), it was at this school that she met Anna Julia Cooper, one of her inspirational teachers. Her dream was to open a school to educate young women, and in 1909, the National Training School for Women and Girls was founded in northeast Washington, D.C. A motto of accomplishing the impossible drove the belief and vision of the school. Burroughs, its founder, fought to prepare African American young women for the realities of the workplace and life as Black women. Her battle was not only with racism within a white supremacist society but also with the Black male leadership of the National Baptist Conference. Over the years, the school maintained steady growth despite withdrawal of official support from the Baptist Convention over issues of Burroughs’s leadership.

She adopted many of the beliefs espoused by Booker T. Washington, placing importance on the development of self-help, skill development through vocational education, and racial pride. The school’s curriculum offered missionary training as well as industrial programs of study, preparing women as seamstresses, nurses, cooks, and housekeepers as well as stenographers, clerks, and bookkeepers. Burroughs was adamant in stressing the importance of history, requiring a course in Black history for every student in the training school. She maintained active involvement in the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History. Young women from across the country as well as Africa and the Caribbean attended the school from its inception with 31 students to its height 25 years later with more than 2,000 women matriculating at the high school and junior college levels.

For decades Burroughs supported the NAACP’s battle against discrimination by advocating boycotts and petition writing, through press releases, and speeches. In the fight for justice, she was militant on both racism and sexism fronts. She collaborated with Mary McLeod Bethune, Maggie L. Walker, and other club women to organize the National Association of Wage Earners in order to attract public attention to the menial and low-paying conditions of domestic workers. The organization’s nine-point program advocated broad ranging objectives, including the elevation of the migrant classes of workers; securing wages that would enable women to live decently; assembling the grievances of employers and employees into a set of common demands and striving, mutually, to adjust them; and enlightening women as to the value of organizing and influencing just legislation affecting women wage earners. Burroughs’s commitment to altering the conditions of women coincided with that of many Black women educators of the day, illustrating the camaraderie and cooperation among Black women leaders who struggled together on a national basis.
As an educational leader and part of educational leadership movements, Nannie Burroughs’s efforts must be appreciated within the historical context of the complex African American fight for social justice. For Burroughs, Black church congregations were vitally important in the mobilization of the masses of working-class Black women, and politicizing their education was the key. Nannie Helen Burroughs died on May 20, 1961.

—Khaula Murtadha

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Black education; coeducation; critical race theory; critical theory; discrimination; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; feminism and theories of leadership; leadership, theories of; resiliency; sexism (glass ceiling); Washington, Booker T.; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References


BURT, CYRIL

Oxford-educated Cyril Burt (1883–1971), president of the British Psychological Society, editor of the British Journal of Statistical Psychology, the first psychologist to be knighted by British royalty, and first British subject to win the Thorndike Award from the American Psychological Association, was also one of the most controversial psychological theorists of the past century. In fact, recent evidence suggests that he invented the data that supported his theories of the relationship between intelligence and class. In 2004, Horace Judson scored Burt’s work by remarking that it supported racist and elitist arguments for his premises regarding the heritability of intelligence.

Born to a middle-class family, Burt received a teacher’s diploma from Jesus College at Oxford. He spent the subsequent summer studying psychology under Oswald Külpe at the University of Würzburg in Germany and lectured in experimental psychology at the University of Liverpool from 1908 to 1913. During that time, he conducted his first controversial study, which compared the intelligence of boys enrolled in an elite preparatory school with that of boys attending a regular school. Boys did mirror drawings, designed to control for environmental influences. He concluded that the preparatory schoolboys benefited from superior genetic inheritance because their drawings scored higher than the others.


From 1913 to 1932, the London County Council School System employed him as chief psychologist. During that tenure, he adapted French and American intelligence tests for English use and developed tests of educational achievement. He was professor of educational psychology at London Day Training Centre from 1924 to 1932, and until 1950 was Charles Spearman Chair of Psychology at University College, London. Some consider him the founder of the field of educational psychology in Great Britain, most notably by creating and implementing a system for identifying mentally retarded students.

The greatest controversy surrounding Burt regards his advocacy for intelligence based on heredity. He advocated for a national testing program in Great Britain, the “Eleven-Plus” exam, that could identify bright children from all socioeconomic levels. He argued his theory through a series of articles on the intelligence of identical twins raised in different homes. He claimed that the intelligence scores of every set of twins were similar.

After Burt’s death, however, Leon Kamin, among others, criticized his work. Kamin doubted the consistency of Burt’s correlation coefficients. Other criticisms questioned raw data from Burt’s studies that either disappeared or never existed, the authenticity of cited research assistants, inconsistencies in the number of subjects reported, and the implausibility of finding 53 sets of identical twins who had been reared apart. So despite the fact that some credit Burt with expanding the statistical technique of factor analysis, his major studies and findings remain questionable.
Burt’s work and the controversy surrounding it foreshadowed two major issues that engage contemporary educational leadership. The first is “nature versus nurture.” How can the educational system influence factors that children bring to the school door? Second, questions about Burt’s methods unlocked the Pandora’s box of accountability issues that now intensely surround all of us.

—Helen C. Sobehart

See also achievement tests; attitudes; factor analysis; individual differences, in children; intelligence; measurement, theories of; psychometrics; standardized testing; testing and test theory development

Further Readings and References


**BUSINESS EDUCATION**

In years past, business education departments taught courses such as typing, dictation, and filing. With increasing demands from businesses and corporations for more sophisticated employees and consumers, current curricula have shifted from basic skills to developing understanding of technology, communication, and finance. As the national and world economies evolve, business education departments continue to lay foundations for business acumen to prepare future consumers and businesspeople to keep the U.S. economy advancing and remain a leader in the world.

A business educator’s primary job is to help develop competent employees for the workforce as well as educated consumers. For example, James Mehring wrote in 2004 that the number of bankruptcies in the United States increased nearly 50% between 1991 and 1997, and in the same year, Joan Goldwasser and Barbara Hagenbaugh noted that the average adult was almost $5,000 in debt on credit cards. College students on average graduate from college with almost $3,200 in debt, obligated mostly on their average of six credit cards.

Although the United States has incredible wealth in comparison to other countries, many citizens do not understand how to handle their personal finances or possess other basic business skills. Business education serves to expose students to the responsibilities of credit and budget creation and maintenance and provides basic conversance with business terminology and concepts.

Accounting, Business Law, Personal Finance, Entrepreneurship, Information Technology, International Business, and Marketing are classes not only available in universities and colleges but also offered at many high schools in the United States. Today’s business education departments provide opportunities for high school students to become well versed in the world of business before entering the work world, college, or other pursuits.

Business education usually falls under the broad umbrella of career and technical education. With the additional responsibilities placed on schools by the No Child Left Behind Act, some politicians are turning their attention to this area in hopes of finding another avenue in which to improve public education, particularly high schools. For example, in May 2004 the Bush administration proposed a new initiative titled the Secondary and Technical Education Excellence Program (STEEP), requiring business education programs in any school accepting federal vocational education money to increase academic rigor as well as form partnerships with at least one postsecondary institution. STEEP also would encourage programs to form connections with local businesses. Although a final decision has not been made on STEEP, the basic idea of increasing academic rigor and accountability is a trend in business education that probably is here to stay.

Increasing rigor across content areas is a part of the overall plan in the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, now better known as the No Child Left Behind Act, which focuses on raising students’ reading, writing, and mathematics skills. All teachers are now responsible for students’ performance levels in these core areas and in all content areas. STEEP also would require teachers in business education departments to be accountable for instruction, student learning, and demonstration so that they address the core academic skills needed by all students.

Opportunities abound in today’s business education classroom, given the continuous evolution of the
national and worldwide economies. Successful students are expected to be leaders, demonstrate creativity, possess strong interpersonal skills, and have the ability to work in teams. Secondary business classrooms are structured to prepare students to thrive under these increasing demands.

Business educators now are required to create advisory boards that must include a minimum of 51% noneducationally associated community business members. The involvement of community business members can increase student opportunities for internships, job shadowing, and off-campus visits and to hear speakers talk about job opportunities and careers. This requirement seeks to broaden the perspective of the board, increase community involvement, and create more authentic classroom experiences. The business community also affects the curriculum in local classrooms. Many schools offer on-the-job education or career education, in which students are employed by local businesses and simultaneously enrolled in a partnering class through their high school. Students are supervised, graded, and receive additional training from their classroom teacher at the same time that they receive invaluable work experience—and a paycheck.

Many business teachers have incorporated portfolios to demonstrate student learning throughout the course or program. Portfolios offer means for authentic evaluations to ensure that students can produce the instructed product. Résumés, business plans, advertisement design boards, and stock portfolios are among the products typically found in a portfolio. A portfolio that demonstrates competence might include a comprehensive and diverse list of student-selected stocks with graphs visually depicting each stock’s productivity over time with written responses that outline stock choices and logs of their daily trading and monitoring activities.

Business students also are encouraged to participate in extracurricular organizations within the business education department, including Delta Epsilon Chi (DECA), an association of marketing students, and Future Business Leaders of America (FBLA), an organization for students planning to pursue careers in the business world. Participation in such academically driven organizations offers valuable opportunities that extend beyond the classroom. These organizations support competition in Web page design, accounting, introduction to business, marketing plans, entrepreneurship planning, and many other topics. By participating in such organizations, students gain authentic experiences, develop a deeper understanding of the content, and augment their classroom learning.

Earning a general high school diploma should be evidence of a well-rounded education. Developing students’ skills—in addition to reading, writing, and math proficiencies—is necessary to cultivate a well-rounded student. Virtually everything in life relates to business: from nonprofit organizations to hospitals to government to skills required to manage personal resources effectively. All individuals need a working knowledge of the basics in business/finance/accounting. Business classes teach students to use technology as a tool to manage information, provide experiences to build confidence, and shape literacy in business and economics.

—Chad Broer, Ashley J. Raduege, and Rodney Muth

See also alignment, of curriculum; arts education; attitudes toward work; clinical education; No Child Left Behind; portfolios

Further Readings and References

Butler, Nicholas Murray

During a 60-year career at Columbia University, Nicholas Murray Butler (1862–1947) stands as both an educational leader and a national statesman. After receiving his PhD in 1884, he joined the Department of Philosophy. His educational writings were clearly influenced by his studies of continental philosophy, which would often put him in sharp conflict with some of America’s greatest pragmatic philosophers, such as John Dewey, who also taught at Columbia. By training and disposition, Butler was a man of strict traditional principles with students. Nevertheless, his educational leadership promoted academic freedom and the free exchange of ideas.
Professionally, he helped establish and lead Teachers College prior to and during its affiliation with Columbia University. His vision for Teachers College went beyond the strong influences of individual professors, such as John Dewey, Frank McMurray, and William Kilpatrick. He balanced their educationally progressive ideas with the long tenures of Edward Thorndike in statistical and psychological measurement and Paul Monroe in school administration, among others.

In 1901, he was named acting president of Columbia and was named president the following year. During his tenure as a professor and later president, Butler wrote over a dozen books, including *The Meaning of Education* (1898)—a forward-thinking text that sought to establish science and philosophy as the foundation of education. He founded the journal *Educational Review*, which he edited for 30 years.

By the early 1900s, Butler combined his academic pursuits with his interest in national and international politics. He was a delegate to Republican conventions and eventually became Taft’s running mate on the Republican ticket in 1912. In subsequent elections, Butler sought the presidential nomination from the Republican Party for himself but failed. He remained a loyal Republican despite his differences on the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment, the role of government and the economy, and his support of local reform movements.

He was an advocate of peace through education, helping to establish and lead (1925–1945) the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. His efforts on behalf of disarmament, international cooperation, and peace won him international recognition, culminating in his sharing the 1931 Nobel Peace Prize with Jane Addams. In addition, he served as president (1928–1941) of the American Academy of Arts and Letters.

Nicholas Murray Butler’s academic and political accomplishments reflected a different role once held by educational leaders. That is, regardless of his position in the academy or politics, he spoke of American education in terms of a national system that encompassed public as well as private institutions. He found expression for America’s ideals and national spirit not only in schools and universities but also through its churches, the press, and in arts and humanities. Within the public school system itself, Butler believed that the government’s responsibility for education should coincide with the consent of the people. In other words, he found no constitutional basis to restrict the public’s right to support education at any and all levels and for all ages. Most important, Butler thought it fundamental to American education and democracy that all taxpayers must equitably bear the responsibility for supporting schools. His political actions, internationally, nationally, and locally, made him one of the preeminent educational leaders and statesmen of his generation.

—Ira Bogotch

See also Dewey, John; higher education; schools of education; Thorndike, Edward

Further Readings and References

CAPACITY BUILDING, OF ORGANIZATIONS

Capacity building of organizations occurs at the comprehensive level of a unit (e.g., school) and targets at least five major areas: (a) developing organizational and managerial capacity, (b) building mentoring systems, (c) fostering collaborative leadership, (d) promoting and practicing democracy, and (e) providing ethical leadership.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND MANAGERIAL CAPACITY

Schools will need to be reorganized to support in-depth learning for both students and teachers, necessitating a corresponding accountability of school leadership. In fact, classroom learning and effects of change on teachers, programs, instruction, and student outcomes are part of a larger emphasis on transformational leadership and school restructuring. For quality instruction to occur with teachers’ continuous updating of their knowledge and skills, an infrastructure must exist. Administration that promotes teacher development, proficiency, and reflection can better support goals for student achievement.

Managerial-oriented principals who protect the status quo instead of inspiring change may be hazardous. School systems steeped in technical standards of responsibility could end up sacrificing ministerial for managerial competency, straining a community’s human values. By resetting this organizational compass to address “ministering” rather than “managing” one’s culture, leadership teams can develop heterogeneous communities that value racial tolerance and monitor potentially volatile situations, as well as integrate diversity awareness into terrorism preparedness. Developing the capacity for diversity will require that the new era of globalization and its political, cultural, and economic forces be incorporated into schooling.

Transformational theories and practices are built outward from core commitments rather than inward from a management text. Schools and universities are cautioned to monitor top-down, policy-driven standards. While some see the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) and National Council of Accreditation for Teacher Education/Educational Leadership Constituent Council (NCATE/ELCC) standards as legitimate guides for the field, others critique them as “managementspeak.” Any rational–technical apparatus harnesses the field by presenting “cookie-cutter” solutions to complex issues, in effect reducing variances in graduate programs that are contextually necessary.

SYSTEMIC MENTORING CAPACITY

The development of a systemic mentoring capacity for school leadership requires modeling in real-world settings. The goal is to shift mentoring from isolated innovations to systemic improvement efforts. Leaders prepared for change will be able to mobilize teams that address many teachers’ needs. School cultures will need to move away from hierarchical transmission of knowledge toward shared inquiries through teacher networks and councils. The capacity of leadership to understand the value of lifelong learning can lead not only to improving teacher performances but also to expanding feelings of empowerment.
COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP CAPACITY

Changing outdated views, norms, and practices is an imperative direction for school and administration. A collaborative leadership style has replaced a traditional, elitist one; some call this “relational leadership,” claiming that it should integrate both feminist and masculine approaches.

DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP CAPACITY

Democratic ideas of leadership call for school administrators to commit to new practices of diversity that uphold social justice, concern for oppression, and a healthy skepticism toward leadership and authority. Democratic leaders also formulate just decisions, ask moral questions, and solicit diverse stakeholder viewpoints.

In the educational literature, democratic administrative leadership can be characterized as having three strands: (a) democratic pedagogy: School leadership approaches the renewal or improvement of schools, teachers, and students as participatory and community oriented; (b) pedagogical leadership: An organization’s resources are expanded through community-building efforts; the value of human capital supersedes that of economic prosperity; and (c) democratic accountability: Leaders negotiate the seemingly contradictory forces of democracy and accountability.

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP CAPACITY

Finally, there should be a focus on moral authority and stewardship as ethical leadership capacities. This moral principle advocates leaders in the role of serving rather than controlling others. It has been noted that ethical leaders transcend individual preferences when making decisions and are consistently moral and self-aware.

—Carol A. Mullen

Further Readings and References

Fede, H., & Flanary, R. (2003, August). NCATE/ELCC. Special session presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, Sedona, AZ.

Capital Outlay

At its simplest level, capital outlay refers to the funding of fixed assets of a school district, for example, lands, buildings, and major equipment, like school buses. More specifically, capital outlay may be defined as an expenditure that results in the acquisition of fixed assets or additions to fixed assets that are presumed to have benefits for more than 1 year. In the study of education finance, capital outlay often receives special treatment because the financing of fixed assets may involve the assumption of long-term debt by a school district, often through voter-approved bond referenda. Such debt may span 10 to 30 years. The assumption of long-term debt distinguishes capital outlay from the day-to-day expenditures of school districts, which involve mainly salaries, wages, and benefits. These are commonly referred to as “operating expenditures,” and at the end of each fiscal year, school districts are expected, if not required, to show a balanced budget to local taxpayers and state lawmakers, one where revenues match or exceed operating expenditures.
Because personnel-related costs represent the bulk of school district expenditures, educational leaders and policymakers may overlook the role and importance of capital outlay. For this reason, capital outlay can and should be conceived more broadly as the physical environment of schools whose purpose is to support student learning. More recently, the physical environment has been referred to as school “infrastructure.” School consists of six components: (a) deferred maintenance, (b) new construction, (c) renovation, (d) retrofitting, (e) additions to existing buildings, and (f) major improvements to grounds.

An exciting development in school infrastructure research is the emergence of a body of research over the last decade that explores the relationship between student achievement and the physical environment of schools. Presently, this research, mainly empirical in nature, shows a small but positive relationship between the condition of school facilities and student outcomes. It is hoped that this line of research will be instrumental in calling to the attention of policymakers the critical importance of adequate and equitable funding for school infrastructure. Historically in the United States, funding for school infrastructure has rested primarily with local school districts, where the quantity and quality of school facilities were directly tied to the property wealth of the community and the willingness of local taxpayers to pass bond referenda. Not surprisingly, vast inequities in school infrastructure exist within and across states, with property-poor school districts, particularly in rural and urban areas, suffering greatly. Recent research estimates that in order to address these inequities and deficiencies, school districts would require almost 2 billion dollars in new funding. Recent decisions in state supreme courts indicate that the judicial branch has begun to consider school infrastructure as a critical factor in student success and, as such, an issue of social justice that may be brought to the courts by concerned parents and citizens for redress.

In times of economic hardship, state legislatures and local taxpayers are often reluctant to reduce education budgets for staff and programs or to raise taxes in order to maintain and improve the physical environment of schools. However, even in the economic boom times of the 1990s, many state legislatures and even the U.S. Congress missed a key opportunity to invest surplus revenues in school infrastructure. Now, as national and state economies recover, a new opportunity to focus attention and funding on school infrastructure may be at hand.

—Faith E. Crampton

See also accountability; budgeting; cost-benefit analyses; economics, theories of; elastic tax; elections, of school boards, bond issues; enrollment projections; equity and adequacy of funding schools; finance, of public schools; forecasting; governance; infrastructure, of organizations; PERT (Performance Evaluation and Review Technique); Planning, Programming, Budgeting System; planning models; politics, of education; property tax; resource management; school plant management; school safety; staffing, concepts of; taxes, to support education; vandalism in schools; year-round education

Further Readings and References

CAREER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Career and technical education (CTE) is the contemporary term used throughout the United States to identify collectively those education programs that prepare students with the knowledge, skills, and related education necessary for employment in American workplaces. Historically defined as vocational education, CTE programs are offered by more than 35,000 public and private schools and community colleges throughout the United States.

Other terms sometimes used to identify CTE include workforce education, technical education, career and
technology education, practical and applied living, and, of course, the ubiquitous vocational education (or vocational and technical education)—the term used historically in federal legislation that funded such programs throughout American schools.

DESCRIPTION OF CAREER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

CTE courses, one or more, are offered in 93% of the nation’s nearly 1,600 comprehensive Grade 9-through-12 high schools and nearly all of the nation’s 2,000 community and technical colleges. In addition, there are over 1,000 specialized vocational or technical high schools, 800 area or regional vocational schools, and 1,500 high school career academies. About 97% of all U.S. high school students take at least one course classified as career and technical: About 25% of high school students are “concentrators” who take at least 3 credits in one program; and 45% are “investors” who take at least 3 courses, but in different programs. High school students earn 4.2 credits, on average, of the 25 to 26 credits they complete as part of their high school programs.

About 44% of all undergraduates in U.S. higher education institutions are enrolled in community colleges, and 45% of first-time freshmen enroll in community colleges. At least 50% of community college enrollment is specifically for career or technical purposes.

HISTORY OF CAREER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

CTE in the United States has evolved primarily in response to federal legislation beginning with the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. This act began a long string of federal acts and amendments that continued to provide funding to the states in support of vocational education. The focus of this federal legislation shifted over the years to reflect national defense efforts, reduce unemployment, assist the war effort, include junior colleges, and help shift industries to peacetime economic development. Beginning in the 1960s, legislative influence began to shift from one of economic development to one of providing more opportunity to youngsters with academic, socioeconomic, or other disadvantages that prevented them from succeeding well in schools.

The State Directors Consortium has identified five key principles for career and technical education:

1. CTE should draw its curriculum, standards, and organizing principles from the workplace.
2. CTE is a critical and integral component of the total educational system.
3. CTE is a component of the workforce development system.
4. CTE should maintain high levels of excellence supported through identification of academic and workplace standards, measurement of performance, and high expectations for participant success.
5. CTE should be robust and flexible enough to respond to the needs of multiple educational environments, customers, and levels of specialization.

TRENDS

There are several prominent trends for CTE at the beginning of the twenty-first century:

- An increased effort to enhance the preparation of students for high-paid, challenging employment that requires critical thinking, problem-solving, computer, information-gathering, and communication skills.
- CTE is increasingly being provided as a strategy to enhance academic learning and provide a clearer pathway and program of studies for success in both high school and college.
- Strategies identified with work-based learning are increasingly prominent in public schools and colleges. Closely aligned with this trend is the increasing use of more substantive and productive linkages between schools and colleges with employers.
- Career academies are being designed to create learning communities. There are nearly 1,500 career academies nationwide. Career academies are identified with an industry or profession, such as finance, health care, technology, automotive, tourism and lodging, or the performing arts.
- Pedagogy drawn on context seems to prevail in CTE classes. The workplace, its content, and its processes are the catalysts for the curriculum and pedagogy. This is contextual teaching and learning.
- There is an increased emphasis on student assessment, benchmarked to workplace proficiency. More and more places are providing a certification of proficiency for students who achieve a requisite score on measures benchmarked to occupational proficiency.

—Richard L. Lynch

See also career stages; classification of education; community relations; computers, use and impact of; consideration,
Caring; continuing education; decision making; diversity; economics, theories of; learning, theories of; life span development; mentoring; motivation, theories of; learning, online; philosophies of education; problem solving; problem-based learning; vocational education; Web-based teaching and learning; working conditions, in schools; workplace trends

Further Readings and References


CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Expansive definitions of career development incorporate the selecting, adjusting, and transitions of life roles people engage in over the course of a lifetime. Professional school counselors are the primary professionals in school systems with training in career development, as career development is inextricably intertwined with personal development. In particular, career development themes include awareness in elementary school, nurturing curiosity and fantasy, and cultivating an awareness of self and educational and career options. Exploration in middle/junior high school is thematic, as awareness is enriched by participation in activities, hobbies, and part-time work and culminates in effective decision making for educational plans. In high school, commitment and crystallization of tentative career choices are a part of career maturity that lead to life role and career planning in the school-to-work or school-to-postsecondary education transition. Equally influential to individual career development are the contextual influences (i.e., family, gender, culture, economic opportunities) that influence career and life role salience.

Career guidance began in the late 1800s and was conceptualized by Frank Parsons in a three-part formula for career selection: (a) self-understanding (i.e., personal interests, aptitudes, ability, limitations), (b) career knowledge (i.e., how to succeed, compensations, opportunities, advantages and disadvantages), and (c) the ability to relate the two concepts together. In 1910, the First National Conference on Vocational Guidance established competencies and certification for career counselors. Aptitude tests, interest assessments, achievement testing, and personality testing grew, and occupational selection and placement became the primary focus. In the 1950s, Donald Super outlined career development stages and tasks that shifted the notion of career placement to career development. At the same time, the National Defense Education Act of 1957 allocated funds to train school counselors focused in career guidance. This concept of career development and the expansion of and support service personnel put more emphasis on career development as a lifelong process.

Over the last two decades, several organizations have put forth career development guidelines for K–12 youth. The National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee set competencies in each of three areas, including self-knowledge, educational and occupational exploration, and career planning. Each area includes specified skills and competencies for elementary, middle/junior high, high school, and postsecondary education. The School to Work Opportunities Act of 1994 combined academic and vocational learning and advocated for career development programs no later than seventh grade. The American School Counselors Association (ASCA) also created career development guidelines to help school systems determine what students should know and be able to accomplish as the result of an effective school counseling program. The three ASCA National Standards for Career Development include (a) students are able to use self-awareness during their career search to help them make personal, informed career decisions; (b) students should incorporate strategy to succeed in and be satisfied with their careers, and (c) students should acquire an understanding of the interrelationship between their personal characteristics, education, and employment.

—Patrick Akos

See also adult education; career stages; child development theories; cognition, theories of; continuing education; diversity; flow theory; gender studies, in educational leadership; human resource development; life span development; personality; psychology, types of; self-actualization
Further Readings and References


Career Stages

The term career stage refers to sequenced work-related stages, movements, or points in one’s profession. In 1986, Gene Dalton and Paul Thompson identified four distinct stages, including apprentice, independent contributor, mentor, and sponsor. In each stage, the expected performance activities, the expected relationships, and expected psychological adjustments differ. For example, the apprentice stage is the beginning, entry-level position filled with new learning, subordinate relationships, and the understanding to perform in subordinate positions. This may also be referred to as an intern stage. The independent career stage is one in which the professional contributes to the organization. In the mentor stage, one moves to mentoring the less experienced. The sponsoring stage is the highest career stage, in which one influences the goals and direction of the organization through leadership. Other aspects of career stages include stress, career development, career management, and career pathing. Issues of women and minorities in educational administration are issues in career stages. In 1989, Betty Steffy identified six distinct stages or steps in the life cycle of the classroom teacher: novice, apprentice, professional, expert, distinguished, and emeritus. The Steffy model was unique in that teachers could fall back into a previous stage without positive reinforcement and support. The regression was termed “withdrawal” and occurred in three phrases: initial, persistent, and deep. Teachers could move into withdrawal at any stage. A teacher in deep withdrawal may become a hazard to students. Deep withdrawal involved loss of self-confidence, listlessness, and cynicism about students and about the profession.

The term career stages and mentoring refers to those aspects of a mentoring relationship that enhance learning the ropes and preparing for advancement in an organization. School leaders at all career stages—aspiring, intern, new, midcareer, and late career—need other more experienced professionals to guide them in their journeys through the challenges of turbulent times in public education. J. C. Daresh noted in 2001 that he saw mentoring as a vital part of a principal’s developmental process. In the context of principal shortages, accountability demands, ongoing changing school reform efforts, and the changing role of the principal, mentoring is vital to principal development, starting at the principal pre-service stage through the late career stage.

Colleges of education and school districts work collaboratively to develop mentoring programs for aspiring principals and other principals. Aspiring principals will have formal and informal mentors. The ideal formal mentor is the supervising principal. The formal mentor is the internal role model. The informal mentor is a confidant and a friend who can challenge the mentee. Mentors help aspiring principals and experienced principals to develop the necessary knowledge, skills, behaviors, and values to be dynamic school leaders, including technical and social/cultural learning. Other mentoring activities include providing support through advice, guidance, practical applications, listening, reflection, and other activities as applicable to the mentoring career stages. Understanding the district culture for administrators is a key activity in mentoring principals who are aspiring, new to the profession, and new to the district.

Mentor Selection

Mentoring begins by appropriately matching an experienced and knowledgeable principal with a less experienced novice. It may be more appropriate for midcareer and late-career principals to have mentors who are effective retired principals or effective principals who are out of the system and have time for ongoing communication. Mentoring in the administrative context involves a person who is active, dynamic, visionary, knowledgeable, and skilled. A mentor is one who acts as a role model or a coach. A successful mentoring experience can rely on a good match between the mentor and the person being mentored.
REWARDS AND RISKS

Mentoring can provide many rewards and can pose risks. Mentoring rewards include opportunities for the \textit{principal} to make contributions to the profession by socializing aspiring and new members of the profession. In the process, the mentor has an opportunity to use, develop, and refine reflective practices while developing networks of collegial support and critical friends. In mentoring, one shares one’s administrative report with the realization that the novice may achieve higher professional levels than the mentor. While mentoring may be able to clone the most effective school administrators, it should not obligate novices to specific views.

Mentoring requirements are outlined in the standards for educational leadership programs in the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education Standards (NCATE) prepared by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration for Educational Leadership Constituent Council.

---Augustina Reyes

\textbf{See also} adult education; behaviorism; bureaucracy; consideration, caring; differentiated staffing; esteem needs; flow theory; hierarchical developmental models; Holmes Group; human resource development; involvement, in organizations; life span development; management theories; mentoring; motivation, theories of; organizational theories; performance evaluation systems; personality; portfolios; role conflict; role model; satisfaction, in organizations and roles

\textbf{Further Readings and References}


\section*{CARLYLE, THOMAS}

Thomas Carlyle (1795–1881) was a Scottish writer and historian who critiqued modern democracy and industrialization. Raised in the Calvinist tradition, Carlyle eventually rejected the Christian faith but nevertheless focused his work on the spiritual and human natures and their value over the economic and practical forces emerging in Victorian London.

Carlyle’s colleagues included John Stuart Mill, Charles Dickens, Friedrich Engels, Alfred Lord Tennyson, and others. His views were at first supported by contemporary thinkers, including Ralph Waldo Emerson, who was influenced by Carlyle’s first significant work, \textit{Sartor Resartus}, a discussion of religious conversion. As his thinking developed, however, he eventually alienated some thinkers of his day by his support of authoritarian rule of societies, including punishing the poor and supporting slavery as a means of control and motivation of people whom he claimed might otherwise be useless to society.

Carlyle wrote several major historical works, including \textit{The French Revolution, Letters and Speeches of Oliver Cromwell}, and \textit{History of Friedrich II of Prussia}; political works, including critiques of British society, such as \textit{Chartism, Past and Present} and \textit{Latter-Day Pamphlets}; and other sociopolitical works, such as \textit{An Occasional Discourse on the Nigger Question} and \textit{Signs of the Times}. His body of work on leadership and politics holds several disparate views, including a condemnation of inherited leadership through aristocracy—but also punishment and ownership of the poor and lazy.

Carlyle studied and wrote on leaders and leadership. In particular, he focused on heroic and charismatic leadership in his writings on Oliver Cromwell and Frederick the Great, and his series of lectures \textit{On Heroes and Hero Worship and the Heroic in History}. Victorian English society focused on heroes, and Carlyle’s lectures explored the historical frameworks in which heroes emerged. His lectures and writings took considerable effort to reframe historical figures and foes, including the historically maligned Muhammed, Cromwell, and others. Carlyle focused on leaders’ actions rather than the theories behind them, so his lectures and writings often lacked theoretical definitions and explorations of his contemporaries.

These lectures explored the individual as a leader. Carlyle argued that an increasingly industrial society...
deemphasized the influence of the individual and that person’s ability to influence people and history. He extended this thinking into discussions of physiognomy: that individuals’ communications and actions always reflect inner character. He applied this individual character argument to national character, showing how individuals became heroes with their vision and belief-based action and how societal hero worship develops as a result. He eventually contended that only a few people had the leadership and moral capacity to effect political change, with most citizens prone to be willing followers. Many of Carlyle’s fellow thinkers rejected this last line of thinking, saying it was undemocratic.

—Angela M. Hull

See also charisma, of leaders; leadership, situational; leadership, spiritual; leadership, theories of; morality, moral leadership; postmodernism; power; transformational leadership

Further Readings and References


CASE STORY

Case story is a reflective, collegial, adult-learning method designed to help practitioners make sense of their work lives by bridging the gap between action and thought, and linking classroom learning with practice. It draws on individual stories of practice by blending aspects of the classic case study method with the tradition, artistry, and imagination of storytelling. This approach is distinguished from case study in that it is both a written and oral description of a real-life critical incident or dilemma of practice told from the author’s perspective. The model is suited for any practitioner willing to subject personal work experiences to systematic self-scrutiny and analysis of others and can be used successfully with graduate students and novice and veteran professionals in settings such as professional development programs, leadership institutes, and university classrooms.

A minimum of 3 hours is required to implement five steps. It is essential that the facilitator/instructor establish a learning environment where people feel safe and that is conducive to quiet reflection and confidential conversation. Beginning with Step 1, participants are introduced to a 7-minute writing exercise intended to ease them into writing about leadership and practice from a personal perspective, and they are next divided into groups of five, where they communicate according to case story guidelines (see Step 3). In Step 2, after reviewing an example, participants are guided to write a one-page narrative about a professional dilemma that matters to them. During Step 3, in small groups, participants take turns telling, listening to, and discussing case stories. The process begins with one member reading his or her own case story aloud and then telling the story in his or her own words without any interruptions. When finished telling, there is 1 minute of silence, after which participants may ask only clarifying questions. Listeners may not give advice or share personal examples. The goal is not to solve the problem for the storyteller, but to assist him or her in understanding what happened and to find his or her own meaning in the difficult experience. In Step 4, small groups merge and begin to reflect on the process. Finally, Step 5, the whole group reflects and reports on learning, and the facilitator reinforces the importance of understanding ourselves in order to improve professional practice.

The unique power of composing case stories lies in the evolution of the individual stories and in the communal interaction among participants and the facilitator. Each successive step in the model imposes a structure on facilitator and participant roles around sharing and listening to stories, leading to conditions in which participants can access their own experiences, develop the skill to turn them into case stories, and feel comfortable enough to share them with others. For most groups, their routes to understanding and meaning occur through learning to cope with the microcomplexity of their own experiences told through stories. This can be especially important for leaders during times of crisis. Case story groups help to break the isolation of leadership and can lead to greater self-awareness and understanding of practice.

—Patricia Maslin-Ostrowski and Richard H. Ackerman

See also case studies; charisma, of leaders; personality; qualitative research, history, theories, issues; research methods; transformational leadership
Further Readings and References:

Case Studies

Case studies are research-informed stories that fuse some facet of theory with an aspect of practice. Researchers who are focused on complex, unresolved issues and human phenomena within particular contexts, functioning as a “detective” or “reporter,” often employ the case study method. The selected problem is studied by framing an inquiry, planning a course of action, searching for clues, generating tentative solutions, and keeping possibilities open. Case studies as deliberately narrow, deep passages of inquiry engage questions of value and personal bias. The researcher also addresses contextual influences, communicates in depth with others, and generates possible explanations for discoveries. Different points of view, well-developed characters, believable narrative, and tolerance for ambiguity and even contradiction are all demonstrated in case study writing. The case writer’s lived inquiry moves from a state of awareness to informed activism—what has been called “intelligent action.”

Although an entrenched methodology in many scholar-practitioner fields, namely law, medicine, and psychology, case writing in education is gradually becoming more commonplace. Expansion of the case method in administration studies could support a deeper integration of theory and application while increasing the field’s relevance. Superintendents have characterized case studies as having utility for exposing administrator candidates to real-life dilemmas requiring thoughtful decision making. Importantly, the case method in leadership preparation assists the profession in linking to two ends that both scholars and practitioners value.

Case stories can be usefully distinguished from cases, and they are related. Initially, prospective leaders think of case studies as cases, or as short, non-analytical vignettes used as warm-up exercises for discussions. Researchers list a host of benefits for leadership aspirants when case study is used in such multifarious ways as to critically interrogate assumptions dominating the administration field and one’s own context; collect and analyze data; build arguments based on evidence; and develop interpersonal skills. As informed change agents, school practitioners are better positioned to influence the culture of their workplaces and beyond. One outlet for sharing their research-based stories is the Journal of Cases in Educational Leadership (JCEL) (www.ucea.org/cases).

Case studies featuring the site-based reform of challenging settings are experiencing increased popularity. Using the case study method, students examine a range of controversial topics either reflected in the literature or potentially so. In one professor’s case study integrating aspiring school leaders’ writing, it was found that diversity capacity building for at-risk student populations was an uppermost concern. Topics included the effects of high-stakes testing on grade retention and buffers for developing cultural resiliency through expanded forms of capital. One practitioner’s case research explored the effects of standardized testing on an elementary school, finding that an unbridgeable gulf exists between what teachers and legislators believe to be legitimate educational practices.

Finally, case studies are valued as a method for testing theory and practice against one another and engaging developing scholar-practitioners in reflective processes that can lead to action.

—Carol A. Mullen

See also case story; dialectical inquiry; expert power; field theory; fieldwork, in qualitative research; instruction, survey of; leadership, theories of; learning environments; mentoring; qualitative research, history, theories, issues; research methods

Further Readings and References
CATHOLIC EDUCATION

Long a major force in American education, new Roman Catholic elementary and secondary schools continue to open in such geographically diverse locations as Atlanta, Minneapolis, and Orlando. At the same time, schools in such places as the Diocese of Brooklyn, the only all-urban diocese in the United States and home to some of the oldest Catholic schools in the nation, continue to close. As a result, the Catholic schools’ share of the non-public-school population continues to decline from 53% of all students during the 1991–1992 school year to 47.1% of the total during the 2001–2002 year, the latest period for which data are available. Yet even in light of this steady decline, Catholic schools remain the largest nonpublic school “system” in the United States. In reality, though, it should be kept in mind that Catholic schools are not as much a system as a loosely coupled collection of independent schools.

Catholic schools have long provided quality education for millions of children. Furthermore, even as the number of Catholic schools and their market share of the population have declined over the past 35 years, these schools continue to offer an array of options for children from a variety of socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds.

Amid a growing tide of anti-Catholic sentiment, in 1884, American Catholic bishops in the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore issued a declaration that had a dramatic impact on the face of education in the United States. In an effort to combat anti-Catholic prejudice, the Bishops decreed that a parish school should be built near every church and that all Catholic parents are bound to send their children to the parish schools, with few exceptions.

Following the Council’s dictate, Catholic education embarked on a period of remarkable growth, since the rapidly increasing Catholic immigrant population was augmented by a seemingly endless supply of priests, brothers, and nuns to staff the schools. This growth is reflected in the fact that the 200 American Catholic schools that existed in 1860 grew to more than 1,300 in the 1870s; by the turn of the twentieth century, there were almost 5,000 Catholic schools in the United States.

In the midst of their growth spurt, Catholic and other nonpublic schools received a major boost in 
Pierce v. Society of Sisters of the Holy Names of Jesus and Mary (Pierce) in 1925. In Pierce, the United States Supreme Court struck down as unconstitutional a statute from Oregon that would have required parents to satisfy the state’s compulsory education law by sending their children to public schools on the basis that it deprived the operators of the schools of their right to due process. The 
Pierce Court further reasoned that while states may oversee such important features as health, safety, and teacher qualifications relating to the operation of nonpublic schools, they could not do so to an extent greater than they did for public schools. The Court also ruled that the law was unconstitutional because it obstructed parents and guardians from controlling their children’s education. Pierce thus served as kind of Magna Carta that protected the right of nonpublic schools to serve the needs of children.

The growth of Catholic education in the United States peaked in 1965, at which time there were 14,296 schools in operation. Shortly thereafter, in 1970, enrollment in Catholic schools totaled 5,253,000 students. However, the Catholic schools entered into a period of steady decline as they experienced a loss of almost 3,000,000 students, and enrollment currently stands at 2,484,252. As indicated by the data at the start of this entry, during a time of declining enrollments, Catholic schools have attracted an increasingly smaller market share of Catholic students. This decline can be attributed to a variety of interrelated factors, such as the sharply diminished birthrate, movements by Catholic families to locations where Catholic schools are unavailable, increasing costs of tuition and fees at Catholic schools, greater acceptance by Catholic parents of the public schools, the desire of Catholics to enter the mainstream of society by eschewing Catholic schools, and changing social attitudes.

The decline of Catholic schools can be seen in the fact that as of the 2003–2004 academic year, only 7,955 schools remained in existence. Furthermore, as noted, 22 more Catholic schools in New York’s City’s Brooklyn diocese are scheduled for closure in the fall of 2005, along with unheralded closures in other American dioceses. The decline in the number of Catholic schools is exacerbated by virtue of the fact that at present, 13.5% of their students are not members of the Catholic faith, thereby raising questions about how the schools can maintain their religious identities and missions.

A closely related major factor that had a significant impact on the decline of the number of Catholic schools that began in the late 1960s was the sharp
drop-off in the number of women and men who entered the religious life. The dramatic drop in the members of the religious was accompanied by a corresponding, and necessary, increase in the percentage of lay faculty and administrators in Catholic schools. This change had a profound impact on American Catholic education, both in terms of financial implications and the challenge to individual schools to maintain their Catholic identities.

From the time of its inception in the United States until the late 1960s, Catholic education was all but the exclusive mission of the religious due to two closely related factors. First, education was a traditional ministry of Catholic religious communities. As such, teaching orders migrated from Europe to the United States in the nineteenth century to staff the burgeoning number of Catholic schools. Furthermore, a growing number of religious communities that were established in the United States also focused on teaching as their primary work. Second, based on the rapid growth of Catholic education, it would have been all but impossible to have provided appropriate compensation for lay staff. Not surprisingly, the economic necessity presented little alternative but for the religious to continue to staff and operate Catholic schools. This problem was exacerbated by virtue of the fact that Catholic schools continued to charge minimal tuition, did not devise long-term plans for their financial well-being, and did not adjust their plans accordingly for such costs until the steady, virtually irreversible, decline was well under way.

Throughout most of the first half of the twentieth century, a steady supply of American Roman Catholics entered the religious life. Unfortunately, from the point of view of the schools, this seemingly endless supply of vocations to the religious life began to run dry at the end of World War II. The noted Catholic historian Harold Buetow maintained that the post-1945 drop in the number of women and men who entered the religious life can be attributed to the low birthrate that occurred during the Depression coupled with the war years of the first part of the 1940s, which took its toll on religious staff in Catholic schools. In light of the amount of time and education, however, relatively rudimentary compared with contemporary levels of appropriate professional preparation for educators in Catholic schools needed to meet the upgraded standards of teacher education, there was an unavoidable lapse of time before the declining ranks of properly prepared religious teachers joined the faculties of Catholic schools. At the same time, as religious individuals were given greater freedom to pursue opportunities of their own interest within the religious life, fewer and fewer turned to education, preferring to work in a variety of other fields involving the social sciences.

The predominance of religious staff members in Catholic schools is reflected in the fact that in 1920, 92% percent of teachers in Catholic schools were religious. In 1940, this declined to only 91.2%. There was little appreciable change over the next decade as the percentage of religious stood at 90.1 in 1950. Dramatic change was soon in the offing as the percentage of lay teachers rose to 26.2% in 1960, 51.6% in 1970, 71.0% in 1980, and 85.4% in 1990. At present, since lay teachers account for 94.9% of teachers in Catholic schools, they have achieved a greater mass by percentage than religious educators since accurate statistics have been kept.

Four major challenges, the first three of which are closely intertwined, confront Catholic education as it stands at the dawn of the twenty-first century. First, Catholic school leaders must address the steady decline that they have experienced in enrollments since the mid 1960s. To date, educational leaders have taken tentative steps to resolving the enrollment crises by seeking to attract increasing numbers of students from diverse economic, cultural, religious, ethnic, and racial backgrounds, including the disabled. In fact, minority children currently account for 26.5% of the Catholic school population, up from 10.8% in 1970. If Catholic educational leaders are up to this opportunity, then perhaps they can re-create their schools by serving children who have long been underrepresented in their schools.

In a closely related second challenge, and as noted earlier, as increasing numbers of students in Catholic schools are not active members of the Catholic Church, educators need to take greater precautions in defining their Catholic character so as to maintain their unique identity. This dilemma is even further exacerbated as many Catholic schools are located in inner-city neighborhoods where populations are largely non–Roman Catholic.

Third, since the costs associated with operating schools continue to increase, Catholic educational leaders face a major test as they seek to keep expenses low so that their schools can remain a viable option for parents who wish to have their children in nonpublic-school settings. At present, the average tuition of $2,178 in Catholic elementary schools (with actual costs of $3,505) and $4,289 in Catholic high schools (with actual costs of $5,571) is undoubtedly daunting
for many families. On the one hand, Catholic schools maintain a commitment to serving the poor, many of whom cannot afford to pay tuition. On the other hand, as staff in Catholic schools seek to earn living wages, educational leaders must seek to find ways of raising sufficient funds without driving the cost so high that even more families depart the Catholic schools.

In light of the lack of qualified educators, a fourth challenge for Catholic school leaders is identifying and preparing a new generation of staff for their schools. As salaries remain low and the hours relatively long, leaders must find ways of ensuring a steady supply of qualified and dedicated educators who can staff the schools.

Having had a successful past, Catholic schools face something of an uncertain future. However, even as they face uncertainties, it is likely that they will continue to make meaningful contributions to American education for many years into the future.

—Charles J. Russo and Gerald M. Cattaro

See also adaptiveness of organizations; Aristotle; Bible, as history; children and families in America; Christian Coalition; church-state issues; creationism; Gallup Polls, on public education; idealism, as philosophy in education; leadership, spiritual; Lemon test; Loyola, Ignatius; Plato; politics, of education; prayer in school; religion, in schools; Supreme Court United States, key cases in education law

Further Readings and References


Raymond Cattell’s major influences on the profession of education include his work on the behavior of groups, his perspective on traits as determinants of behavior, and his precepts related to intelligence and intellectual ability. His work focused on the hereditary and cultural determinants of both personality and motivation. He wrote more than 50 books and 500 articles and/or book chapters. Cattell (1905–1998) earned a BA in chemistry and physics, an MA in education, and a PhD in psychology from the University of London. Cattell changed his focus to psychology after hearing a lecture by Sir Cyril Burt and chose as his mentor Charles Spearman, the creator of factor analysis.

Cattell believed that the goal of psychology and personality theory was to formulate laws that would enable the prediction of behavior under many conditions. He even created his own religion called “Beyondism,” because he found traditional religions unscientific and unorderly. He believed that personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. He placed emphasis on the structure of personality, both in regard to biological background and social determinants. Cattell wanted to create a “periodic table of personality.”

Cattell identified two major kinds of traits in his work: source traits and surface traits. Surface traits are clusters of observable, behavioral events; they are less stable and merely descriptive, and therefore less important in his viewpoint. On the other hand, he felt that source traits are the genuine influences that help to determine and explain human behavior. Source traits are stable, extremely important, and are the major material that the personality psychologist should be studying. Source traits may be divided into constitutional traits and environmental mold traits. Constitutional traits are internal and have their basis in heredity. Environmental mold traits came from the environment and are molded by events.

Cattell divided traits into three groups: temperament, dynamics, and ability. Temperament traits are often tied to constitutional bodily characteristics. Dynamic traits concern themselves with getting started or initiating any act. Ability traits, in a way, measure or express the efficiency of the personality in behavior directed to solving cognitive problems.

Cattell held the self to be of prime importance. He divided his consideration of the total self into three
parts: self-sentiment, real self, and ideal self. Self-sentiment means one’s attitudes concerning the conception of self. The real self is actually the personality. The ideal self is what one would wish to be, granted all things and all power.

In relating groups to individual personality, Cattell introduced the concept of group syntality. Syntality is defined as the relevant characteristics of an entire group that determine consistent behavior by that group and thereby lead to possible predictions of group performance. He stated that social situations and values have a profound effect in individual behavior. Thus, the individual’s family and culture were significantly important to the personality formation of the individual.

In addition, Cattell formulated the concepts of fluid and crystalline intelligence. Crystalline intelligence is seen as being a “fixed” aspect of intellectual ability and is related to the accumulation of knowledge and facts. Crystalline intelligence forms the basic intellectual ability of each individual. Fluid intelligence, on the other hand, is related to an individual’s ability to apply knowledge in functional ways. It involves reasoning, one’s approach tendencies toward new problems, and openness to new ideas.

Cattell also developed a profile that included traits, characteristics, and tendencies of effective leaders. His perspective of leadership as being an interface of intellectual ability and specific personality traits is still a dominant theory in the field.

Toward the end of his life, Cattell was to be awarded a gold medal for life achievement from the American Psychological Association. Two days before he was to receive the award, the ceremony was suspended because information came to light of his writings in the area of eugenics and fascism. After a tempest, Cattell withdrew his name from further consideration.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also Binet, Alfred; Burt, Cyril; cognition, theories of; ethnocentrism; eugenics; fascism and schools; intelligence; personality; psychology, types of; psychometrics; Spearman, Charles

Further Readings and References

principal, who has a greater level of discretionary power than do persons at the first level. Should the issue remain unresolved at the principal level, the matter should be forwarded to the district superintendent, who, except for the treasurer, is the supervisor for all district personnel. Finally, the Board of Education is the last level of appeal within the district. Dependent upon content matter, situations that remain unresolved may be appealed to the state superintendent or the state’s commissioner of education. Additional redress is available through the federal and state court systems. Persons are required to “exhaust administrative remedy,” that is, follow the chain of command and move upward one progression at a time, in order to preserve legal standing. Circumventing the chain of command may legally negate entitlements.

—Brenda R. Kallio and Anita Pankake

See also adaptiveness of organizations; authority; chief academic officer; bureaucracy; empowerment; hierarchical developmental models; hierarchy, in organizations; scalar principle; span of control; Taylor, Frederick

Further Readings and References


CHAOS THEORY

Chaos theory, a mathematical notion describing underlying order that exists in some seemingly random events, has been employed by scholars of educational leadership as a metaphor or model for understanding the social conditions of schools. Sometimes also called “deterministic chaos,” chaos theory explores how apparently simple phenomena, describable with differential equations, can generate complex, unpredictable behavior. Put another way, some phenomena that are well understood and can be described mathematically still can produce apparently random effects. These “chaotic” processes essentially defy conventional mechanistic understandings of the universe that assume randomness exists only where humans do not possess full knowledge of factors at work. Instead, chaos theory holds that phenomena can be fully described by mathematical expressions and still exhibit random behavior in the sense that it cannot be known in advance.

The French mathematician, Henri Poincaré, developed the theoretical underpinnings for chaos theory in the late 1800s as he attempted to create a model for predicting the motions of objects within the solar system. By the mid-1900s, scientists and mathematicians capitalized on Poincaré’s insights by identifying other phenomena that similarly could be described by differential equations, yet yield seemingly random behavior. Edward Lorenz, an early pioneer of the field, in 1961 analyzed weather data and noticed that resulting patterns, previously attributed to randomness or simple error, could be described by such equations—and furthermore, were sensitive to subtle initial differences in conditions. Essentially, Lorenz noted that weather fluctuations contained underlying order, though not predictability. Widespread use of computers in the 1970s and 1980s greatly facilitated the popular development and application of chaos theory by enabling the analysis of large quantitative data sets describing similar phenomena.

Two important implications follow from chaos theory. The first is the notion that some phenomena can be completely well understood yet ultimately remain unpredictable. This challenges the view that the universe behaves mechanistically, with linear cause-effect relationships. The second implication is that phenomena previously thought to be random or unexplainable now might yield to analysis that reveals chaotic behavior. Scholars in disciplines as diverse as economics, fluid dynamics, epidemiology, astronomy, and sociology have analyzed large quantitative data sets only to discover chaotic phenomena.

Books such as James Gleick’s 1987 Chaos: Making of a New Science have stimulated broad public interest in the emerging subfield of mathematics. Such works on chaos theory have popularized several notions, chief among these, the “butterfly effect”: Chaotic phenomena have in common that they behave according to well-understood principles but also that they are highly sensitive to initial conditions. Theoretically, weather, which behaves chaotically, can be affected by subtle starting conditions—so that a butterfly beating its wings on one side of the planet could contribute to
eventual major storms on the other side. The relationship between one event and another is nonlinear and unpredictable, yet connected in that both are part of a system with underlying order. Fractal geometry illustrates aspects of some chaotic behavior. In a fractal image, which is infinitely complex, any two portions are self-similar when compared; that is, they resemble one another but do not mirror or replicate any pattern exactly. This is true regardless of the sizes of the portions. Apparent order exists, yet the qualities of one part of a fractal image cannot be predicted by knowing about those of another part.

Since the popularization of chaos theory, scholars have sought to apply insights from the theory to the field of educational leadership. Several themes emerge from much of this literature. According to some writers, the ultimate unpredictability of some phenomena as described by chaos theory means that school leaders must give up attempts at total control over school environments and instead seek to better understand and accept their inherent unpredictability. Other writers, inspired by popular business writers such as Margaret Wheatley, argue that the most durable organizations are those that are formed chaotically rather than through mechanistic, bureaucratic, or other traditional processes. Another strand of scholarship holds chaos theory as a metaphor that fosters new understandings of the century-old field of educational leadership. Some scholarship explores all three of these strands.

To this point, however, scholarship in educational leadership generally has not explored chaos theory through application of its mathematical insights. Large data sets have not yet been mined for chaotically behaving phenomena. Studies have not been structured so that descriptive differential equations might be deduced. Rather, the current body of educational leadership scholarship draws from popularized accounts of chaos theory. It does not tend to confirm or extend it mathematically. Nonetheless, perhaps the most significant contribution of recent scholarship on chaos theory in educational leadership is that it has broadened the bounds of theoretical discourse to include unpredictability and nonlinearity in conjunction with underlying order. This represents a break with the longstanding Western intellectual tradition of viewing the universe—and schools in particular—as linear, predictable, and ultimately controllable.

Chaos theory is connected with, though not the same as, complexity theory. Chaos theory explores how simple systems or entities can generate complex, nonlinear behavior. Complexity theory considers how complex phenomena or entities can produce apparently simple behavior. Complexity theory is at work when large numbers of entities begin to operate together, creating self-organizing systems. An outside force or prime cause is unnecessary for such self-organizing, complex systems. Just as it has with chaos theory, scholarship in educational leadership has begun incorporating complexity theory as a metaphor for understanding schools as social systems.

—Jackie M. Blount

See also conceptual systems theory and leadership; creativity, in management; empiricism; factor analysis; forecasting; heuristics; hypotheses, in research; imagination; Kuhn, Thomas; leadership, theories of; networking and network theory; paradigm; postmodernism

Further Readings and References


**CHARACTER EDUCATION**

In an effort to reduce violence and promote safe learning environments at school, many schools have begun to consider moral or character education as a necessary part of the school curriculum. For example, in New York State legislation was passed in 2000 mandating that all public schools in the state have a character education program in place, as noted by Kimberly Williams in 2003. Irene McHenry wrote in 2000 that moral growth occurs when connections with other individuals are strengthened and the value of community is emphasized in ways that promote responsibility to and for others. To encourage this sense of community, character education programs focus on morals and ethics for personal growth. To allay concern about which values should be taught, the federal government has supported grants to develop character education projects that embrace some of the following
values: caring, civic justice, fairness, respect, responsibility, trustworthiness, perseverance, and self-discipline, as noted both by Williams in 2003 and Joseph Tomaselli and John Golden in 1996.

A critical aspect of character education programs is to stress the importance of friendships and the process involved in building relationships that result in friendships. Another important component of character education programs is the emphasis on developing a climate for tolerance. John Hoover and Ronald Oliver suggested in 1995 that implementing character education within the curriculum contributes to creating an empathetic school where the focus is on the idea of being “my brother’s keeper.” Schools that emphasize character education teach the worth of fellow classmates throughout the entire school day. Other schools focus on a specific character trait, such as honesty, for a week or longer, then move on to another important character quality. Other schools emphasize character traits through reading and discussing books about heroes of the past and of today.

There are many character education programs available at all levels of K–12 education that focus on preventing hate, bullying, school violence, and other negative behaviors. In a variety of ways, character education programs promote respect, tolerance, responsibility, and building connections to the larger society. Teaching students to identify and understand values that promote a basic respect for all within the community enables students to define their beliefs, goals, and behaviors more clearly. This is an important part of education in the twenty-first century.

—Sandra Harris

See also at-risk students; bullying; children and families in America; critical race theory; cultural politics, wars; discrimination; dropouts; drug education; expectations, teacher and student cultures; homophobia; learning environments; multiculturalism; peace education; resiliency; school safety; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


Knowledge of the nature and functions of charisma as a leadership process has increased within the last decade to the point that a simple description is most difficult. On a basic level, charisma may be defined as an interactive process through which a leader influences members of a group to adopt the vision and direction of that leader, but charisma is more than a process. Only a small percentage of leaders possess charisma, and those who are able to change an organization using those skills are successful only under certain conditions.

A leader with charisma usually has the ability to articulate a clear and demanding vision, to attract and inspire followers, to build trust, and to act in unconventional ways to demonstrate confidence in their vision for the group. Negatively, they may also exhibit a strong dominating personality that controls the group and inhibits the expression of alternative proposals from the followers.

To promote change through a charismatic process, leaders need cooperative followers and organizations that are in crisis or plan to make a significant shift in direction and purpose. Followers who accept the leader’s vision for change place confidence in the wisdom and correctness of the vision and subordinate their priorities to those of the leader are the ones most likely to follow the direction of a charismatic leader.

The nature and condition of the organization will in part determine the effectiveness of charismatic leadership. Groups that are more flexible in structure and that are experiencing crises such as external threats to their existence are more open to charismatic leadership. Organizations that need to make a significant reorientation of goals and purposes also offer opportunities for a leader with charisma. Educational organizations such as public schools and institutions of higher education are not considered to be as open to influence by a leader with charisma because of their bureaucratic orientation.

Sociologist Max Weber was the first theoretician to propose a significant role for the use of charisma in governmental and industrial organizations. He believed that only a few individuals possessed this rare and divine gift and through their behavior, they could use it to bring change to a failing organization that was too inflexible to change. In his description of the influence of charisma, he did not recognize the
importance of followers, structure of the organization, or the interaction patterns among these components, choosing instead to focus on ways to make charisma function as a routine element in the organization.

The work of documenting the complexity of charisma has been done by scholars who are primarily behaviorists and whose analyses have followed that intellectual orientation. Their discoveries have complemented each other with a minimum of serious disagreement. In response to increased societal and organizational desire for leaders with charisma, these researchers produced studies that clarified many issues about charisma and identified some conditions that facilitated its development.

The model of charismatic leadership developed in 1998 by Jay A. Conger and Rabindra N. Kanungo is one of the more comprehensive and has been partially confirmed by empirical research. One component summarizes the benefits of this kind of leadership. For the organization, one can expect a high degree of internal cohesion, consensus, and value congruence within the group, with low levels of internal conflict. In relation to the task, the group will experience a high level of empowerment, high task performance, and high levels of group cohesion.

—Max S. Skidmore

See also behaviorism; bureaucracy; Carlyle, Thomas; goals, goal setting; group dynamics; leadership, participatory; leadership, theories of; leadership effectiveness; leadership styles; motivation, theories of; organizational theories; transformational leadership; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


The term charter school refers generally to a school choice reform movement emerging in the 1990s in the United States based on the idea that autonomy, choice, and competition can encourage schools to innovate, diversify programmatic options, and improve outcomes for students. The charter represents a contract between a public entity and a group operating a school, usually specifying a fixed number of years. Depending on the state law, a school could be chartered by a public entity such as a state board, a public university, a local government, or another educational authority, for instance. The central aspect of the model is that the day-to-day operations of the school are managed largely independent of the chartering authority. Chartering agencies exercise an oversight function with their schools to ensure that basic criteria specified in the charter are met and to review the schools’ outcomes in deciding whether a charter should be renewed or revoked.

However, as a state-level reform, there is a considerable degree of variation as to what constitutes a charter school in different jurisdictions across the country. In some states, charter schools enjoy high levels of legal, fiscal, and operational autonomy, with many state regulations waived so that the schools can explore new routes to improved results. Other states put severe restrictions on the autonomy of the schools (as well as on chartering authorities), leading to few schools and/or nominal differences between charter schools and district-administered schools. The movement has grown rapidly since the first law was passed in Minnesota in 1991. As of 2004, 41 states and the District of Columbia had passed legislation authorizing charter schools; almost 3,000 schools were in operation, serving well over a half-million students.

THE POLITICS OF CHARTER SCHOOL REFORMS

The charter idea is consistent with reforms that call for deregulation and decentralization of authority in education and other sectors. In looking for more efficient and effective ways of educating diverse students, some reformers sought alternative forms of educational provision free of traditional bureaucratic constraints. The idea of “contracting out” was extended beyond peripheral school services such as busing or food preparation to the delivery of schooling itself. Ray Budde first used
the term charter in the late 1980s in outlining an alternative model, where teachers could form small schools based on common professional interests. The notion was further popularized in the early 1990s by journalist Ted Kolderie in seeking innovations in schooling. As the movement has spread, privately run educational management organizations such as Edison Schools and National Heritage Academies have pursued chartering as a way of increasing their participation in the publicly funded sector.

The movement represents a diverse coalition of various interests. Many traditionalists appreciate the opportunity to fashion privatelike schools that emphasize character, moral values, or basic skills in parent-directed school choices. Neoliberals such as the Democratic Leadership Council and the more conservative Center for Education Reform embrace the concept to bring market style competition into public education. Some teachers see this model as a means of experimenting with alternative approaches or focusing on a specific philosophy. Prominent members of the civil rights movement have endorsed the concept, seeing it as a way to empower minority communities or to level the playing field for disadvantaged children who have been denied the choices available to more affluent families. Republican and Democratic federal administrations have been active in promoting and financially supporting the charter movement, and the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 specifies charter status as a possible alternative for failing schools.

Critics tend to challenge the movement on a number of different fronts. School boards and other professional groups are concerned about the loss of authority over local funding of schools, claiming that charters bypass local democratic structures and effectively remove public oversight of public spending on education. In many jurisdictions where charter operators are not required to hire credentialed or unionized teachers, unions treat charters as an effort to undermine teachers’ rights to collective bargaining. Other observers see charters as part of a process of supplanting the old common school ideal and integration efforts with a model of education that fragments children by social characteristics, leading to greater segregation.

THEORY AND RESEARCH

The theory behind charter schools is premised on the notion that bureaucratic forms of accountability lead to unresponsive public monopolies and standardization of services. Instead of top-down directives specifying processes or practices, alternative forms of consumer-oriented accountability, with minimal direct interference with daily school operations from the chartering authority, create competitive incentives that encourage individual schools to find new and better ways of meeting consumer demands. Research on the implementation and outcomes of charter reforms suggests mixed results: Competitive incentives are shaping the organizational behavior of charter schools, but not always in ways anticipated by reformers. As independent schools of choice, charters are usually set up as an alternative to other local public schools, thus providing parents with additional options to find a better fit for their children. Surveys of parents indicate relatively high levels of consumer satisfaction.

However, the research on achievement indicates that charters are not necessarily a panacea. Although many charters exhibit exemplary outcomes, on average, charter schools perform about as well as, and often worse than, other local public schools in terms of student outcomes. Evidence regarding resegregation depends on the locality: In some states, charters serve higher proportions of disadvantaged students; in other areas, they appear to attract more affluent populations and serve fewer children with special needs. While charter schools were often advanced as “laboratories” or “research and development centers” for new classroom practices in the public sector, results to date demonstrate that most innovations have been in other areas of organizational behavior outside the classroom—instructional practices tend to look quite familiar and even tend toward the traditional in many instances. Instead, many charters are pioneering practices in other areas such as management, employment, and marketing. However, this has also led to further concerns in some areas that certain charter schools are targeting students already in private schools, thereby undercutting the competitive incentives intended to prod district-run public schools and increasing the possibility that charters could lead to further segregation of students.

—Christopher Lubienski

See also accountability; at-risk students; competition, forms of, in schools; cultural politics, wars; Department of Education; economics, theories of; elections, of school boards, bond issues; finance, of public schools; Friedman, Milton; learning environments; management theories; market theory of schooling; privatization; productivity; resource management; schooling effects; voucher plans; workplace trends
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CHAVEZ, CESAR ESTRADA

Called by some “the American Gandhi,” Cesar Chavez (1927–2003) was an extraordinary labor organizer who created the United Farm Workers Union after a protracted struggle with the agricultural industry in California’s San Joaquin Valley. Chavez grew up in Gila Bend, Arizona, the son of a small store owner. With the Great Depression, Chavez’s father had to abandon the store and the family took to a life of crop picking to survive.

Young Chavez’s school days were a painful reminder to him of racism against Mexican Americans; he and his brother were subjected to racial epithets, and students were punished if they spoke Spanish. The camps where the family had to live were primitive, lacking in running water, heating, or electricity. He and his sister slept in the family automobile because she was afraid of snakes and spiders. Chavez had many bitter memories of life in the fields. He recalls being cheated by labor contractors who would not weigh the sacks of fruit that were picked or withheld bogus deductions to cheat the workers of their pay.

Chavez served in the U.S. Navy during World War II, and once, while on leave in Delano, California, he chose to sit in the White section of a movie theatre and was arrested and put in jail. He married his high school sweetheart, and after two children found he was making $1.00 to $1.50 a day picking string beans. He then encountered the Community Service Organization (CSO), founded by the great activist Saul Alinsky. It was through CSO that Chavez learned how to organize people and how to confront power. Finally, in 1962, Chavez organized the National Farm Workers Association in an abandoned movie theatre in Fresno, California. With $82 in the treasury, the union went into battle with a pledge of nonviolence. In a lengthy labor struggle in which Chavez’s union had to ward off the Teamsters, his union prevailed. Chavez had succeeded where no other organization had managed. To keep his union members from resorting to violence, he resorted to fasting, as had Gandhi for the same reasons. Chavez understood the power and use of cultural/religious symbols in the battle to bring dignity to the lives of Mexican laborers. The power of the union was that it became an instrument to restore a sense of honor to hardworking people who were largely powerless. Cesar Chavez has become a symbol of a leader of a highly oppressed people who can prevail against great odds if organized properly.

—Fenwick W. English

See also collective bargaining; critical theory; cultural capital; immigration, history and impact in education; Latinos; leadership, theories of; Mendez, Felicitas; minorities in schools; Sanchez, George

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CHICAGO SCHOOL REFORM

The efforts to reform the Chicago Public Schools have captured the attention of the nation since 1988, when the Illinois state legislature mandated the decentralization of decision making from the central administration to elected local school councils at each school. In 1995, amendments to the act consolidated the remaining central powers under the control of the city’s mayor and led to a 6-year period of steady
improvement in student achievement under CEO Paul Vallas. Since 2001, a new, weaker administration has taken more direction from the mayor’s office, with student achievement continuing to improve. This article examines these three phases of Chicago school reform.

**SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT THROUGH LOCAL SCHOOL COUNCILS**

In 1988, the Illinois General Assembly enacted the Chicago School Reform Act (P.A. 85-1418). The Reform Act had three central components: (a) a set of goals that established that Chicago students should achieve at levels comparable to other students across the country, (b) the system’s resources should be reallocated toward the school level and should provide compensatory funding for schools educating higher numbers of low-income students, and (c) a system of school-based management through the establishment at every school of local school councils (LSCs). In turn, the LSCs had three major responsibilities: (a) to hire and fire the principal, (b) to establish a spending plan for the school, and (c) to adopt a school improvement plan designed to improve student achievement.

LSCs were established at every school, adding about 6,000 locally elected school officials and doubling the number of minority school board members across the nation. This was a significant reconnection of local schools to local communities in a large urban area. At the school level, LSCs functioned in diverse ways, with a quarter or more adopting a strong democracy mode of operation. However, the largest group (more than 40%) operated with consolidated principal power, with parent and teacher members mostly bowing to the desires or dictates of the principal. A few schools fell into adversarial politics, and perhaps a fifth of the schools displayed combinations of these political styles. The Consortium on Chicago School Research, which produced this categorization, also suggested that about a third of the city’s elementary schools had entered into significant restructuring, while another third were making improvements that were not necessarily cohesive or likely to be long lasting. Within 5 years, about 80% of the schools had changed principals. Schools with entirely low-income enrollments had about $1,000 more per pupil to spend than did schools with fewer than 30% low-income students. At the average elementary school, that meant about $459,000 in supplementary funding ($689,000 in the average high school), which could be used at the discretion of the LSC. Schools used these funds in very different ways, with some concentrating the money on instructional programs and adding teachers, while others focused on social support programs for students or on enhanced school security.

During the 5 years following implementation of the 1988 Reform Act, student achievement improved slightly in the elementary schools but dropped sharply in high schools. Between 1990 and 1995, the percentage of elementary students (3rd through 8th grade) reading above the national median increased by 3 percentage points (from 23.5% to 26.5%). Meanwhile, the percentage of high school students (9th and 11th graders were tested) reading above the national median fell from 30.6% to 23.6%; it would drop to 20.5% in 1996. However, financial decisions by the board of education led to a fiscal crisis in the fall of 1993, which was resolved by a temporary relaxing of the board’s debt restrictions for 2 years. The fiscal crisis undermined confidence in the board of education established by the Reform Act and resulted, in 1995, in amendments to the act that gave political control of the Chicago Public Schools to Chicago’s mayor. While LSCs continued in existence, other provisions in the amendments gave the central administration powers to hold schools accountable for low student achievement and to restrict the powers of the LSCs in such schools.

**MAYORAL CONTROL, ACCOUNTABILITY, AND SANCTIONS**

The 1995 amendments to the Chicago School Reform Act ceded authority over the Chicago Public Schools to the mayor of Chicago and granted a new set of powers to hold schools and students accountable for improved student achievement. Mayoral control was seen as an antidote to the largely ineffective and cumbersome 15-person board of education established in the 1988 act. The accountability measures were seen as a way to focus the local decision making of LSCs, school personnel, students, and parents on improving the levels of student achievement. At the same time, the act placed responsibility for school performance squarely on the mayor’s shoulders, eliminating the separation between “rationalized” educational decision making and politics that had been the hallmark of the liberal reforms of the mid-twentieth century.
The mayor, Richard M. Daley, was given the power to select a small, five-person Reform Board of Education, and to appoint a CEO (not necessarily an educator) and his or her top four assistants. Daley quickly exercised his new powers to select his then retiring chief of staff to be the president of the new Reform Board of Education and to appoint his budget director, Paul Vallas, to be the new CEO. Vallas’s educational credentials were limited to 1 year of teaching in a Greek Orthodox parochial elementary school.

The mayor had first been elected in 1989, shortly after the Chicago School Reform Act had been adopted, and had chafed at the limitations on his appointive powers in selecting board members. In his early years in office, he advocated for the adoption of vouchers and talked about “blowing up” the public schools. By mid-decade, he had come to see the value in improving confidence in the public school system as a strategy for retaining middle-class residents in the city. In the ensuing years, as chairman of the U.S. Conference of Mayors, he would loudly urge other big-city mayors to become more directly involved in the running of city schools, and many of his colleagues followed his lead in “taking over the schools.” His agenda evolved over the years from an initially naive “back to basics” rhetoric to a more sophisticated understanding of the dynamics of school change.

Vallas and the Reform Board of Education moved quickly to solidify the finances of the CPS, using new powers in the amendatory act to combine funds and gain financial flexibility. He refinanced the district’s debt at the much lower interest rates then available, freeing funds from debt service to expand instructional spending. In 1997, the board adopted Vallas’s plan for placing low-performing schools on academic probation and later designated seven schools to be reconstituted. Schools were initially placed on probation if fewer than 15% of their students read or did math at or above the national norm (median). In the seven high schools that were reconstituted, all positions were declared vacant; the faculty and staff were allowed to reapply for their jobs but were not guaranteed of being rehired. One school replaced only 20% of the faculty, while another replaced 60%.

At about the same time in 1997, Vallas and the mayor declared an “end to social promotion” and installed test cutoff scores at third, sixth, eighth, and ninth grades, which students had to meet to be promoted to the next grade. More than 10,000 students would be retained each year starting in 1998 as a result of these promotion gates.

Schools on probation were threatened with reconstitution or closure, were publicly reviled for the low achievement of their students, and were provided with probation managers and external partners to help with their improvement efforts. Principals and LSCs in these schools had some of their decisions made subject to the approval of the probation manager (who was usually a successful former principal of another Chicago school), including the adoption of the school improvement plan and the expenditure of funds. These were infringements on the local autonomy of schools established in the 1988 Reform Act but sanctioned by the 1995 amendments to the act. Eventually, the board also authorized the removal of principals from schools that persisted on probation and their replacement by principals appointed by the CEO and the board. Schools not on probation continued to exercise their prior autonomy, but the emphasis on student achievement as measured by standardized tests shaped many of their decisions about curriculum adoption and school improvement.

If the 1988 Reform Act emphasized the opportunity to act, the 1995 amendments focused on expectations, will, and capacity. The sanctions of probation, reconstitution, and retention were designed to shape the motivations of teachers and students toward change and improvement. Teachers, with some justification, complained that it was unfair to hold them accountable for student achievement if the students were “blowing off” the standardized tests by which achievement was measured. The threat of retention, based on test results, was designed to increase the motivation of students toward doing well on achievement tests. It was hoped that students would work harder in class and that retention would eliminate the excuse of teachers blaming the students for their own lack of learning.

However, the probation strategy also recognized that teachers might not know how to improve their teaching. Thus, the district provided external partners to all schools on probation. A request for proposals (RFP) had produced a list of local and national organizations willing to work with schools and their faculties to improve student learning. Schools on probation were given the right to select which external partner they would work with. The district paid for the external partner for the first year a school was on probation and paid half the costs during the second year. The school was required to pay half the costs from its discretionary budget in the second year and all of the
costs of the external partner in the third and following years. About a sixth of the city’s schools were placed on probation (70 elementary schools and 39 high schools in 1997).

Over the next 3 years, nearly half the elementary schools originally placed on probation raised the percentage of students at or above the national norm (median) to 20% or higher, enough to escape probation. By contrast, only 7 of the 39 high schools escaped probation. Student achievement levels on the district’s standardized tests rose in nonprobation schools as well. Between 1995 and 2001, the percentage of elementary students above the national median in reading rose from 26.5% to 37.6%; students doing math at the median rose from 29.8% to 43.6% (it had been at 46.7%, nearly matching the national distribution, in 2000). In high schools, the gain in reading from the 1996 low point of 20.5% was 11.3 percentage points (to 31.8%); in math, the gain was even larger, from 21.7% to 45.0%.

RENAISSANCE 2010: PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SMALL SCHOOLS

In the spring of 2001, Mayor Daley pressured both CEO Vallas and Board President Gery Chico to resign, claiming that gains in student achievement were flattening out and new leadership was needed. Vallas was eventually replaced by Arne Duncan, a young staffer in Vallas’s office. Duncan was widely seen as the public face of Daley administration operatives, with more direct control from the mayor’s office than had been the case under Vallas. Duncan’s Chief Education Officer was a successful and widely respected former elementary school principal, Barbara Eason-Watkins. Under Eason-Watkins’s leadership, the district extended the use of reading specialists in both elementary schools and high schools, and emphasized professional development activities. Rigid promotion standards were relaxed, and the number of students retained began to decline.

In 2004, the district announced a new initiative called Renaissance 2010. Under this plan, those schools that had made the least progress in student achievement would be closed and 100 new schools would be opened in their place by the year 2010. These new schools were to be roughly evenly divided between district-run schools, charter schools, and contract schools. These new schools would be smaller and more numerous than the currently failing schools they would replace. The plan drew inspiration from a Gates Foundation initiative that had been under way for several years that broke up large, unsuccessful high schools into a number of smaller, independent schools using the same facilities. It also drew upon the experience, during the Vallas administration, of the creation of 15 charter schools and the creation of a series of new “small schools” and schools that bridged the traditional separation between \( K-8 \) elementary schools and secondary schools. Few details of how these new schools would be created were made public. Rhetoric about the plan emphasized that decisions about the new schools would be made at the local school and community level (a rationale for not releasing more details), though the affected communities complained that they were not being consulted and did not know how they would be allowed to make decisions about their schools.

As the new Renaissance 2010 plan was being revealed, the Chicago Teachers Union (CTU) went through a bruising election in which the reform-minded president and her staff were turned out of office by a narrow margin. The new slate of officers promised a return to more traditional union activities focused on pay, benefits, and work rules. The new officers of the CTU have expressed their total opposition to Renaissance 2010.

Achievement trends continued upward during the initial years of the Duncan administration. In 2002, 43% of elementary students were at or above the national median in reading, with scores hovering in that vicinity in 2003 and 2004. In math, 48.2% were at or above the median in 2003, with a small drop-off in scores in 2004. Chicago public schools discontinued the standardized tests for 11th graders after 2001. The percentage of students meeting or exceeding state standards on these tests rose from 30.1% in 2003 to 32.0% in 2004; this compares with the statewide percentages of 55.2% in 2003 and 56.9% in 2004.

—G. Alfred Hess

See also accountability; achievement tests; at-risk students; Black education; bureaucracy; capacity building, of organizations; choice, of schools; competition, forms of, in schools; conceptual systems theory and leadership; critical race theory; cultural politics, wars; decision making; desegregation, of schools; determinism, sociocultural; discipline in schools; dropouts; economics, theories of; finance, of public schools; governance; innovation, in education; leadership, theories of; learning environments; management theories; market theory of schooling; motivation, theories
of; multiculturalism; No Child Left Behind; organizational
theories; politics, of education; privatization; productivity;
reform, of schools; school improvement models; state
departments of education; systemic reform; unions, of
teachers

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CHIEF ACADEMIC OFFICER

In most institutions of higher education, the responsi-

bility for leading the overall academic enterprise resides

with the chief academic officer. The chief academic

officer reports to the chief executive officer, usually
titled the “president” or “chancellor.” Chief academic

officers may have the descriptive title of “vice presi-
dent (or vice chancellor) for academic affairs” or
“provost.” However, with recent trends for college

presidents to emphasize their role in fund-raising and
marketing, many chief academic officers are also chief
operating officers. Many have the title of “provost” and
“executive vice president” with offices of student

affairs, enrollment management, admissions, research,
and other enterprises reporting directly to the provost.

The origin of the use of the title of provost in
the United States is unclear. As early as the early
nineteenth century, Columbia University had a provost
position, only to see it abolished and then returned to
the campus by 1912. Most Ivy League campuses even-
tually instituted provost positions, and many institu-
tions of higher education today have moved to the
provost model for the chief academic officer. At many
independent liberal arts colleges, the chief academic
officer may carry the title of “dean of the college.”

Most chief academic officer positions include
responsibility for the development, management, and
evaluation of all academic programs and courses; over-
seeing all matters concerning recruitment, selection,
evaluation, compensation, promotion, tenure, termina-
tion, sabbatical leaves, and assignments; and research
support of faculty members and other academic person-
nel. In addition, most positions include the devel-

opment and implementation of programs to improve
teaching, learning, and faculty service and professional
growth. The chief academic officer also has oversight
for all areas of student life, including student organiza-
tions, housing, student well-being services, and other
initiatives that relate to life outside the classroom.

Today, chief academic officers are expected to
manage large budgets, work effectively with deans of
schools and colleges and other administrators, oversee
shared governance structures, address faculty and
student concerns, enforce all university policies related
to academics, serve as a liaison to stakeholders regard-
ning the academic enterprise of the university, lead
strategic planning initiatives, raise funds to support
academics, and work with boards and other policy-making
bodies in an effective manner. Likewise, the chief aca-
demic officer may have various interdisciplinary units
and academic support functions, such as libraries, aca-
demic facilities, research boards, and technology trans-
fer and intellectual property units. In some instances,
the chief academic officer oversees information tech-
nology and the campus e-learning enterprise.

Central to the modern chief academic officer’s suc-
cess is the ability to work in a collaborative environ-
ment with chief business officers, senior administrative
advancement officers, chief academic officers in insti-
tutions within one’s own state and region, and with
higher education coordinating boards, as noted by Ann
Ferrin and Wilbur Stanton in 2004. With many legis-
lative activities focused on funding issues, including
student tuition at state institutions of higher education, chief academic officers often speak before legislative committees and other governmental groups in support of policies that support the academic enterprise of the institution.

—Paula Short

See also administration, theories of; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; bureaucracy; chain of command; higher education; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; normal schools; scalar principle; schools of education

Further Readings and References


**CHILD DEVELOPMENT THEORIES**

Children change in somewhat predictable but highly individualized ways. Child development theories identify discrete periods within childhood. Different theories explaining these changes help educational leaders understand and serve their communities of learners. Learning theories, such as behaviorism and constructivism, focus on the processes by which change in knowledge, skill, or disposition may be influenced. Developmental theories focus on sequential stages that may or may not consider learning as a factor, but may be a factor in learning. The sequence of learning is a continuous process, while the sequence of development is usually linear and irreversible.

**DEVELOPMENTAL ASPECTS OF SCHOOL CURRICULUM**

Schools are largely organized on the cohort model of grouping children by age in a gradual sequence, and most states grant teacher certification defined by the developmental level of the schools in which they may legally teach. Horace Mann may be credited with both those customs, having introduced kindergarten and grade-level divisions in the new public school system. He also pioneered teacher preparation, and his thoughts on teaching were widely circulated. These included sensitivity to children’s capacities and adjustment of instruction in response to them.

American schools, at first designed to instill a canon of knowledge, eventually became contexts in which each child was nurtured to his or her fullest potential, thus revealing an assumption of natural impetus that schools should discover and enrich.

Current reform legislation (i.e., No Child Left Behind) emphasizes the achievement of academic objectives; most critics of the trend cite inconsistencies with what is developmentally appropriate, although the new standards emphasize developmentally appropriate instructional methods. The scope and sequence of curriculum was designed as a sequence of preparatory steps. Most use an “expanding horizons” model of topics gradually more distant from the children’s immediate experience. As hypothesized by Jerome Bruner, however, any child can learn just about any concept if it is presented in a way the child can grasp. American public schools are closely scrutinized for curriculum materials that might prematurely expose children to mature sexual content. Waldorf schools carefully define what is and is not appropriate based on child development stages, for instance, prohibiting teachers from posing values clarification questions because they cause more confusion than certainty until children reach an age of reason.

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES**

Physical changes are the most obvious and were of greatest interest in early years of high mortality when it was unusual for a child to survive to adulthood. Survival of the child and survival of the family dictated an interest in predicting a healthy and productive development. Earlier concepts of development regarded the change from child to adult as a binary shift at some recognized signal, such as the physical capacity to bear children or perform rituals requiring reason and judgment. Not until modern times was childhood considered an important period with its own qualities, rather than merely preparation for
adulthood. Rousseau famously extolled a romantic constraint-free childhood for boys, but not girls, to learn through curiosity and creativity. He triggered the last two centuries of interest in finding out how the mind develops its interests and capacities.

Child development theories changed radically, influenced by technological and philosophical innovations along with the momentum of popular culture. Widespread cultural changes have included child development issues. The exploitation of child labor in factories was cause for reform and even further focus on the rights of children to a safe environment in which to develop. Urban concentrations made large-scale observations possible, solidifying a knowledge base of normal and abnormal development rates. Queen Victoria popularized the charm of children while Prince Albert demonstrated the nurturing of their intellectual and practical achievements. Authors such as Charles Dickens, Hans Christian Anderson, and Mark Twain highlighted the personal experiences and perspectives of children. The Common School movement and published texts such as McGuffey’s Reader standardized American concepts of development through school.

Greater literacy rates have, in turn, influenced the dissemination of child development theories, such as Dr. Benjamin Spock’s baby and child care books that loosened the grip of strict schedules and returned parents to trusting their instincts. This highlights the enduring tension of the nature versus nurture debate. New medical conditions, such as fetal alcohol syndrome, recognize the powerful influence of early exposure to toxins.

FREUD’S LEGACY

Most early psychological theories were based on the observation of people with problems to be solved or prevented. Sigmund Freud used universal physical changes of early childhood as the structure for his groundbreaking psychoanalytic theory of development based on sexual associations. His stages (oral, anal, phallic, and latent) were useful for explaining distortions in adult adjustment. He introduced the idea of fixation, meaning an arrested and abnormal development. His theory was based on instinctive drives, and his interest was in the adult understanding those drives. While few people accept Freud’s complete model any more, the stages are a familiar concept used casually to describe behavior that is immature or maladaptive.

Freud’s contemporaries extended his original concept of natural development. Alfred Adler departed from Freud’s drive theory by adding the social context. He identified altruism as a mark of development; he explained motivation as an “upward thrust” that compels all children; and he identified the “world view” to explain stable distortions of perspective. His work, rejected by a medical establishment that embraced psychotherapy, was instead very influential in American education, particularly Rudolf Dreikur’s goal-directed behavior theory.

ERIKSON’S EIGHT STAGES OF MAN

Erik Erikson extended Freud’s childhood stages to address changes over a lifetime. Critical dilemmas at each stage must be resolved for optimal psychosocial development. Each stage has a healthy goal with its alternative distortion (i.e., trust vs. mistrust), resulting in hope if resolved satisfactorily, but suspicion and paranoia if not (see Table 1).

PIAGET’S COGNITIVE STRUCTURES

A meticulous researcher, Piaget observed young children’s responses to their environment and posited that they required “interobjectivity,” or interaction with objects, to develop their concepts of reality. According to schema theories, children develop models of the world in their minds and are constantly assimilating new information or accommodating conflicting information by adjusting their schemas. His stages are commonly used to explain the difficulty young children have with abstract ideas and are helpful to teachers trying to understand what will engage students in learning (see Table 2).

Piaget emphatically discouraged any manipulation of the stages, insisting that they are descriptive rather than prescriptive. The idea of accelerating the cognitive processes was absurd to him. In contrast to behaviorists, who focus on external stimuli to reinforce learning and drive reduction as a reward for successful adaptation, Piagetians focus on developmental readiness. They further suggest that there are sensitive periods in which appropriate cognitive activities must occur for optimal development. This theory has profoundly influenced American education.
VYGOTSKY’S PSYCHOSOCIAL
CONSTRUCTIVISM

Unlike Piaget, Vygotsky did not consider stages as a discrete sequence. He added “intersubjectivity,” or interaction with people. His is rather a learning theory in which cognitive development was limited to a small range within each age, and social interaction with more experienced people was necessary to discover the student’s “zone of proximal development,” or ZPD.

Table 1  Erikson’s Eight Stages of Man

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Psychosocial Crisis</th>
<th>Goal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–1 yr (Oral-sensory)</td>
<td>Trust vs. mistrust</td>
<td>Hope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–3 yr (Muscular-anal)</td>
<td>Autonomy vs. shame &amp; doubt</td>
<td>Will</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3–5 yr (Locomotor)</td>
<td>Initiative vs. guilt</td>
<td>Purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–11 yr (Latency)</td>
<td>Industry vs. inferiority</td>
<td>Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent</td>
<td>Identity vs. identity confusion</td>
<td>Fidelity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early adult</td>
<td>Intimacy vs. isolation</td>
<td>Love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late adult</td>
<td>Generativity vs. self-absorption</td>
<td>Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maturity</td>
<td>Integrity vs. despair</td>
<td>Wisdom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


NOTE: Erikson’s stages are psychoanalytic in that they are useful for adults to understand problems in their adjustment. The focus here is on interaction with others and personal capacity to solve problems made compelling by their natural order. He originated the concept of “identity crisis,” a drama familiar to middle and high school educators.

Table 2  Piaget’s Cognitive Structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensorimotor</td>
<td>0–2</td>
<td>Physical experience helps build a schema.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoperational stage</td>
<td>2–7</td>
<td>Concrete physical situations are needed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concrete operations</td>
<td>7–11</td>
<td>Logical structures for physical experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal operations</td>
<td>11–15</td>
<td>Conceptual reasoning is possible.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


VYGOTSKY’S PSYCHOSOCIAL
CONSTRUCTIVISM

Unlike Piaget, Vygotsky did not consider stages as a discrete sequence. He added “intersubjectivity,” or interaction with people. His is rather a learning theory in which cognitive development was limited to a small range within each age, and social interaction with more experienced people was necessary to discover the student’s “zone of proximal development,” or ZPD.

Both Piaget and Vygotsky influenced a *constructivist* trend aligned with Bandura’s social cognitive theory, which introduces the concept of agency, that is, the person’s active effort to find meaning and take action. This is not a stage theory, but it is a developmental theory because future development is affected by the doubt and incompetence of early failure.

Learned helplessness is a related concept focusing on interruptions to optimal development.

As Stephen Pinker pointed out, it is easier to find the single gene that causes a dysfunction than it is to find the multiple genes that are necessary for normal healthy behavior. For instance, John Bowlby contributed the concept of *attachment* in terms of an innate need for bonding demonstrated by the distress of primates deprived of maternal nurturing. Martin Seligman and Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi are promoting the field of *positive psychology* to focus on the healthy and ideal development instead of the traditional interest in explaining the abnormal.

MASLOW’S HIERARCHY
OF NEEDS

Abraham Maslow focused instead on healthy individuals to formulate a hierarchy of needs. In this motivation theory, there are innate needs (physiological, safety, love, and esteem) that must each be satisfied or the person cannot proceed to the next level. This explains why a person who is hungry or tired might not be satisfied with promises, hugs, or praise. This is a positive psychology because it focuses on what can be done; it is developmental in that gradually higher levels of need become the dominant focus as children mature. The sequence is typically illustrated in pyramid form.

BLOOM’S TAXONOMY

Revised in 2001 by members of the original team who codified it with Benjamin Bloom in 1956, Bloom’s taxonomy describes development of three domains: cognitive, affective, and psychosocial. Each domain is a hierarchical model that is descriptive and does not...
address motivation or internal processes. It is thus behavioral in the sense of acknowledging only that which can be observed, or assessed. While it is not a theory explaining how or why children change, it serves as a framework for understanding the sequence toward more mature thought, feeling, and movement (see Table 3).

The taxonomy of cognitive development has been a powerful influence on instruction and assessment, thanks to the work of Madeline Hunter, whose “theory into practice” included the identification of cognitive level in the objective for a lesson. The cognitive sequence is typically divided into “lower level” and “higher level” skills.

EGAN’S IMAGINATIVE EDUCATION

This approach to teaching, developed by Kieran Egan, in developmentally appropriate ways relies on cognitive structures. It is cultural and evolutionary, for the series of frameworks for understanding the world correspond to the development of narratives by civilizations. As a teaching theory, it is intuitively developmental for matching concepts and instructional experiences to students’ capacities to interpret them (see Table 4).

Egan flatly rejected the associationist model of learning that requires the scaffold of previous learning, going so far as to call progressivism a myth. He identified cognitive tools that are best used once a child has developed oral language: stories (which provide meaningfulness of the context and engage the emotions); binary oppositions (which define the scope of the topic); fantasy (which engages the imagination); and rhyme, rhythm, and meter for increasing the memorability and impact. These cognitive tools help the student develop a better understanding. As a philosophy of education, it focuses not on achievement of standard objectives so much as development of a lifelong learning capacity.

KOHLBERG’S LEVEL OF MORAL REASONING

Another dimension of cognitive development concerns decisions that affect other people. Unlike Piaget, who divided moral reasoning into two stages, corresponding to the shift from concrete to formal operations, Lawrence Kohlberg identified three levels with two stages each. Although the research basis for his model has been criticized (using hypothetical situations to reveal reasoning, and using only boys as subjects) and the cultural basis is limited (i.e., reflecting a dominant White male European value of justice and independence, with no acknowledgment of more feminist concerns of empathy or self-control), it remains a widely used sequence to explain the logic behind actions that affect others. He thought that very few people reach the most advanced stage and that the conflicts in school could be explained by adults expecting children to use a higher stage of moral reasoning than they are developmentally prepared to do. His framework is descriptive rather than prescriptive, and useful for understanding relationships (see Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Bloom’s Taxonomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive</strong></td>
<td><strong>Affective</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remembering</td>
<td>Receiving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Responding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using</td>
<td>Valuing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing</td>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>Characterization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesizing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Egan’s Imaginative Education Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Kinds of Understanding</strong></td>
<td><strong>Developmental Process</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somatic</td>
<td>Prelinguistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mythic</td>
<td>Oral language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romantic</td>
<td>Learning literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophic</td>
<td>Theoretic abstractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ironic</td>
<td>Complex communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SELIGMAN’S PERSPECTIVE-TAKING MODEL
To understand resilience in children, Martin Seligman proposed a perspective-taking theory, which describes the gradual capacity to understand others’ points of view emerging from the egocentric. Three explanatory styles are used to understand perspective: personalization (me/not me), permanence (always/not always) and pervasiveness (everything/not everything). Each style is a continuum that may be interpreted, from naive to mature, for it is more reasonable to conclude that most things are not all about me, not always going to happen, and do not affect everything. The extreme positions typify irrational and immature behavior that educational leaders find themselves trying to mediate.

SAARNI’S EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE MODEL
Saarni’s theory, like Piaget’s, is grounded in careful research and, like Seligman’s, focuses on the positive. It is a skill-based model of personality development that acknowledges social and cultural contexts. Carolyn Saarni articulated eight skills for school-aged children to master in order to become emotionally competent. Children learn these skills through experience and interaction with family and peers. Failing to learn these skills can result in unhealthy emotional behaviors. It is still very new, but some consider it a stage theory because mastery of one skill tends to mean it is generalized across relationships, signaling the maturity of the child to that developmental level (see Table 6).

ANOTHER DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL
Suzanne Kobasa proposed the hardy personality theory of optimal development, similar to the first stages in Erikson’s theory. This is an example of a model that has not been fully developed into a theory that can be used to explain phenomena. It is also an example of the continuous offering of new concepts of development, contrasting or synthesizing the existing knowledge base. The requirements of control, commitment, and challenge echo Albert Bandura’s self-efficacy model and suggest William Glasser’s control theory; the resolutions appear to be more affective than cognitive. The focus on practical skills and independent living echo Dewey’s pragmatic philosophy and progressive pedagogy (see Table 7).

Her model offers a useful set of skills for the adolescent stage, with the implicit message that these skills are sensitive to experience and they do not develop automatically. They require thoughtful guidance, perhaps in schools.

—Naomi Jeffery Petersen

See also behaviorism; cognition, theories of; Dewey, John; Freud, Sigmund; hierarchical growth models; individual differences, in children; intelligence; language theories and processes; Mann, Horace; Maslow, Abraham; mastery learning; Montessori, Maria; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; personality; Piaget, Jean; psychology, types of; self-actualization; Skinner, B. F.; social psychology; special education
Table 7  Kobasa’s Development of Hardy Personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Expected Resolution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing the Hardy Personality</td>
<td>0–8</td>
<td>Feel in control of own life, committed to specific activities, look forward to challenge and opportunity for growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forming an Identity as an Achiever</td>
<td>9–12</td>
<td>Develop steady, durable core of self as person who is capable of intellectual, physical, social, and work accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill Building for Self-Esteem</td>
<td>13–16</td>
<td>Feeling of being worthy, deserving, entitled to assert needs and wants; confidence in ability to cope with life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies for Self-Sufficiency</td>
<td>17–22</td>
<td>Sense of responsibility for taking care of oneself and, perhaps, a family; based on a sense of emotional and financial autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction in Work and Love</td>
<td>Adult</td>
<td>Contentedness in personal accomplishments and social/personal relationships</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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**CHILDREN AND FAMILIES IN AMERICA**

The current status of children and families in America is that the total number of children under age 18 in
2002 was 72,894,483, or 25% of the United States population. The number of non-Hispanic White children was 44,027,087; the number of Latino children was 12,342,259; the number of African American children was 10,885,696; the number of Asian American children was 2,464,999; and the number of American Indian children was 840,312. Additional children are reported in biracial categories. Enrollment in public schools for prekindergarten through Grade 12 was an estimated 48 million in 2003. Enrollment is projected to increase to 49.7 million in 2013.

The percentage of school age children (ages 5 to 15) with disabilities includes American Indians (7.7%), African Americans (7%), non-Hispanic Whites (5.7%), Latinos (5.4%), and Asian Americans (2.9%).

In 2003, 38% of fourth-grade students scored below basic reading level, 28% of eighth-grade students scored below basic reading level, 24% of fourth-grade students scored below basic math level, and 33% of eighth-grade students scored below basic math level.

The challenges experienced by children in the United States are illustrated in the following summary. During a typical day in 2001:

- 846 low-birthweight babies were born.
- 76 infants (under age 1) died.
- 33 children ages 1 to 14 died.
- 18 teens died from accidents.
- 5 teens died from homicide.
- 4 teens committed suicide.
- Almost 400 children were born to females aged 15 to 17.
- In an average day (between 2000 and 2002), 750 children were added to the poverty population.
- In an average day (between 2000 and 2002), 1,680 children were added to the count of females for whom no parent has full-time, year-round employment.

Low–birthweight babies were only 7.7% of births in 2001; they accounted for 66% of infant deaths that year. According to the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), 57% of multiple-birth babies are low birthweight compared to 6% of single-birth babies. The rise of multiple births may be linked to efforts to enhance fertility and women having children at older ages.

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) asserted that one of the greatest challenges to research is identifying the underlying reasons for ethnic variations in low-birthweight and preterm delivery. In 2001, 6.6% of births to non-Hispanic Whites were of low birthweight, compared to 13.1% of births to non-Hispanic Blacks, 6.5% of births to Hispanics, 7.5% of births to Asians and Pacific Islanders, and 7.3% of births to American Indians and Alaskan Natives. The high rate of low birthweight among Blacks is not related to multiple births. The infant mortality rate for children born into poor families was more than 50% higher than that for children born into families with incomes above the poverty line. The U.S. infant survival rate remains worse than that of most other industrialized nations. The infant mortality rate of African Americans (13.5 deaths per 1,000 live births) remains more than twice that of Whites (5.7 deaths per 1,000 live births).

Compared with 25 other developed countries, the United States ranks 23rd in terms of children’s deaths due to injuries. Also, U.S. children are more likely to be involved in automobile accidents than are children from other countries.

Teen deaths by accident, homicide, and suicide accounted for 75% of all deaths in this age group in 2001. Accidents accounted for three times as many teen deaths as any other sources. Most lethal accidents are automobile accidents. In 2001, 10,156 Americans ages 15 to 19 died from accidents, homicide, or suicide.

Based on an analysis of 2000 census data, three characteristics surrounding a child’s birth increase the risk of child poverty:

1. Being born to a teenage mother
2. Being born to a mother who has not completed high school
3. Being born to a mother who never married

The poverty rate for children born to a teenage mother who has never married and who did not graduate from high school is 78%. Fifty-one percent of the fathers of children born to females under age 18 were in their 20s.

In 2001, there were nearly 1.5 million teens between the ages of 16 and 19 who were not in school and had not graduated from high school. The dropout rate in 2001 (9%) was 1 percentage point lower than the 10% rate in 1996.

Teens in foster care, youth involved with the juvenile justice system, teens who have children of their own, and youth who have not completed high school
are the most at-risk young people in the United States. In 2000, approximately 16% of the 550,000 children in publicly supported foster care were between the ages of 16 and 18. Each year, approximately 20,000 youth leave the foster care system at age 18 without being adopted or returning to families. African Americans make up more than 40% of the foster care population. African American youth are more likely to be in residential or group care, stay in care longer, and are less likely to be reunified with their families.

Thirty to forty percent of foster children have physical or emotional difficulties. The high school dropout rate among foster care youth may be as high as 55%. Based on data for 2001, 2 to 4 years after leaving foster care, only half were employed, half of the women had given birth, and a significant number were dependent on the welfare system. Half the population had been arrested, and a quarter was homeless. Earnings below the poverty level were typical.

Each year, there are more than 600,000 admissions to secure detention facilities. There are approximately 27,000 youth in these institutions on any given day, an increase of almost 100% since 1985. More than one third are detained for status offenses (noncriminal offenses such as running away) and various technical violations of probation. Approximately two thirds are minority youth, and the growth in detention includes increased rates of detention for African Americans and Latinos.

As many as one half to three fourths of incarcerated youth suffer from a mental health disorder. Suicide within juvenile detention and correctional facilities is more than 4 times greater than in the general population. It is estimated that more than half of all detained youth have drug use problems that require substance abuse treatment.

Academically, incarcerated youth function at a significantly lower level than do their peers. Although 10% to 12% of the general population suffers from learning disabilities, rates are as high as 42% among the incarcerated population.

In 2002, there were nearly 850,000 mothers under age 20. Although declining, the numbers exceed those of other industrial countries. African American and Hispanic girls are more than twice as likely as Whites to become pregnant at least once before age 20. Only one third of teen mothers receive a high school diploma after having a child. Among young men who have fathered children, less than half complete high school.

Young women who give birth as teens have significantly lower earnings and greater probability of being poor or receiving welfare. Nearly half of all teenage mothers receive welfare within 5 years of becoming parents. Teen fathers enter the labor market earlier, and although they initially earn more money than their peers, they earn less by the time they reach their mid-20s.

Compared to White students, African Americans are twice as likely to drop out before graduation, and Hispanics are 4 times as likely. The most powerful predictor of who drops out of school is where a young person attends school. The greatest dropout problems occur in the 200 to 300 schools in the 35 largest U.S. cities. In these schools, 50% or fewer of the students who enroll in the ninth grade graduate. Large schools (more than 900 students) attended primarily by more than 90% of students of color have the highest dropout rates.

In 2001, almost 1.4 million teens between the ages of 16 and 19 were neither enrolled in school nor working. African American and Hispanic youth were almost twice as likely as White youth to be idle in 2001. Ninety-one percent of non-Hispanic White young adults, 86% of African American young adults, and 66% of Hispanic young adults completed high school.

The percentage of young adults aged 18 to 24 who completed high school was 87% in 2001.

In 2001, nearly 18 million children had no parent in the household who worked full-time, year-round. In addition to having higher poverty rates, these children are more likely to lack access to the health and family benefits that a stable job provides.

It is estimated that 60% to 65% of mothers with children under age 6 work outside the home. According to Harold Hodgkinson, knowing household income and parental education level in America can help predict nearly half of the deviation of national assessment scores without any knowledge of race.

The child poverty rate in the U.S. is among the highest in the developed world. Approximately 38% of American children under the age of 18 live in low-income families (less than $28,500 for a family of three with one child). Sixteen percent, almost 12 million, of all U.S. children live in poverty (less than $14,250 for a family of three with one child). About 19% of children under age 6 live in poverty. The child poverty rate is highest for African American (30%) and Hispanic (29%) children. The poverty rate for White children is 13%.

The number of families with children headed by a single parent was 9.7 million in 2001. Children growing
up in single-parent households typically do not have the same economic or human resources available as those growing up in two-parent families. Nearly two thirds of all children live with both biological parents, 25% live in single-parent families, 8% are stepchildren in married-couple families, and 4% live with neither parent.

In 2003, U.S. households were 28.2% married couples without children, 23.3% married couples with children, 16.4% other-family households, 15.2% women living alone, 11.2% men living alone, and 5.6% other nonfamily households. Households with their own children made up 32% of all households. Single-mother families increased from 3 million in 1970 to 10 million in 2003; the number of single-father families grew from less than half a million to 2 million. Of the 12 million one-parent family groups, the 10 million maintained by women were more likely than the 2 million maintained by men both to include more than one child (45% compared with 37%) and to have family incomes below the poverty level (32% compared with 16%).

A family household contains at least two persons—the householder and at least one other person related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption—and is categorized into three types: married couple; female householder with no spouse present; and male householder with no spouse present. A nonfamily household may contain only one person (the householder) or additional persons who are not relatives of the householder. Nonfamily households may be classified as either female nonfamily or male nonfamily households. By census definition, householders must be at least 15 years of age.

Population projections suggest that the race/ethnic composition of the United States may shift from 74% non-Hispanic White in 1995 to 68% non-Hispanic White by 2010. Due to immigration and higher fertility rates among minorities, half of all school children will be non-Anglo American by 2025.

According to Harold Hodgkinson, there are 3,068 counties in the United States, but only 200 counties will handle virtually all the increase in diversity—60% of that will be made up of Hispanics and Asians, over 40% of the Asians in three cities: Los Angeles, San Francisco, and New York.

By 2015, the overall composition of households is projected to shift, with a decreasing proportion of family households with children and increasing proportions of family households with no children and people living alone. The number of families with children under 18 is projected to be 32.2 million in 2010. The number of nonfamily households is projected to be 37 million by 2010 and reflect 32% of all households. By 2010, it is projected that 27% of households, 31 million people, will be living alone.

—Marilyn L. Grady

See also Asian Pacific Americans; at-risk students; Black education, child development theories; class, social; communities, types, building of; critical race theory; Council of the Great City Schools; cross-cultural studies; determinism, sociocultural; discrimination; dropouts; drug education; emotional disturbance; enrollment projections; equality, in schools; ethnicity; expulsion, of students; forecasting; human capital; Indian education; individual differences, in children; Latinos; learning environments; mainstreaming and inclusion; Mendez, Felicitas; mental illness, in adults and children; multiculturalism; parental involvement; pregnancy, of students; resiliency; Sanchez, George; social capital; special education; television, impact on students; tracking, in schools; underachievers, in schools; Woodson, Carter G.

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School choice is a popular K–12 reform concept based on the idea that positioning families as consumers empowered to select between different educational options can lead to any of a number of desirable outcomes. Practices such as open enrollment, magnet schools, inter- or intradistrict choice, charter schools, and voucher plans are examples of policies that allow for the selection of schools by students and/or parents. School choice is advanced by different reform groups for different reasons, including efforts to improve academic achievement, limit rising costs, liberate choice, empower communities, assert parental authority over schooling, decrease segregation based on social characteristics, and inspire innovation and competition between schools.

As a school reform endeavor, school choice has been relatively controversial in terms of advocacy, opposition, and outcomes. Rather than mandating specific practices for schools to follow, the power of school choice is that it tends to rely on structural changes in governance, where market style forces such as consumer demand are elevated to inform educational management decisions on school programs and courses. School governance is often more decentralized or deregulated in order to transfer autonomy to local management, which can differentiate local programs in response to local demand. Consequently, school choice is often popular with parents and groups advocating for privatization and other market-based perspectives on school improvement. Teachers unions and other professional organizations associated with traditional educational structures are typically more resistant to various forms of choice.

**EMERGENCE AND EVOLUTION**

Although increasingly popular as a reform since the 1970s, school choice is essential to the private purchase of educational services, and the explicit notion can be traced back at least to the writings of Adam Smith and Thomas Paine. School choice emerged as a serious force in the post–World War II era with Milton Friedman’s essay proposing government funding, but nongovernment provision of education. While Friedman was writing as an economist, the idea was also embraced by many White southerners seeking to thwart court-ordered desegregation of schools by creating “White flight” academies. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the idea was adopted by some progressives who believed that choice would allow for the integrative selection of schools based on interest rather than on race, residence, or more coercive measures, such as busing. This use of choice to support desegregation plans appeared in the growth of theme-based magnet schools, which were also seen as a way of keeping White families in urban public school systems. Publicly funded vouchers for private schools were first advanced as a serious reform proposal in the 1970s. Vouchers would have been a boon to parochial schools facing declining enrollment of Catholic families but were also criticized on grounds of separation of church and state and for their potential of exacerbating the abandonment of urban public schools by White and affluent families. Results of a government experiment in the Alum Rock district of San Jose, California, on the efficacy of vouchers were mixed. More recently, state legislatures have created publicly funded voucher programs in Milwaukee, Cleveland, and Florida aimed at disadvantaged children or children in failing schools, who may then attend private and religious schools. In *Zelman v. Simmons-Harris* (2002), the U.S. Supreme Court found such programs to be constitutional, since the primary intention was not thought to be religious and funding was channeled through parents, rather than directly to religious schools. Since the early 1990s, and with the repeated defeat of voucher referenda by voters, choice advocates have turned their attention to charter schools—publicly funded schools managed independently of the local education authority. While less discussed, homeschooling is even more popular, with the parents of up to 1.5 million children choosing to forgo other educational options in favor of instruction in the family.

**THEORIES OF SCHOOL CHOICE**

While often discussed as a monolithic phenomenon, competing notions of school choice have emerged...
from, and are inspired by, various and often contradictory theoretical and political perspectives. Many neoconservatives argue that choice puts parents back in the center of educational decision making. Some progressives note the potential of choice in leveling the playing field and increasing educational opportunities for disadvantaged children. A libertarian perspective maintains that choice is a good thing in and of itself. Others contend that choice can be a way of empowering teachers or building community. A neoliberal economic perspective holds that choice generates the incentives necessary to force schools to adopt organizational behaviors that will result in increased effectiveness and responsiveness to students’ needs.

RECENT ISSUES AND RESEARCH

As a controversial approach to educational organization, management, and reform, school choice has been the subject of much debate and has drawn considerable attention from researchers. Discussions center on four of the more contested issues, including the impact of school choice on academic achievement, costs, the organizational behavior of schools, and student sorting and segregation. The efficacy of school choice in boosting student achievement is unclear and is debated largely on methodological grounds. As the model matures and spreads, researchers will have better data and designs with which to work. Second, although school choice has the theoretical power to leverage competition and bypass administrative overhead to reduce costs, evidence to date suggests that this is not happening to any great extent promised by reformers. Third, more competitive forms of school choice appear to be fulfilling the promise of changing schools’ organizational behaviors by reshaping the incentives to which schools must respond, but not always in the desirable ways intended by reformers. Finally, evidence on the effects of school choice in ameliorating or exacerbating segregation of students by social characteristics is mixed. Perspectives on these issues appear to be largely related to policymakers’ and researchers’ ideological standpoints. Yet while hotly contested on these and other issues, school choice has entered the educational mainstream, is popular with policymakers and parents, and therefore will likely be a formidable factor for the foreseeable future.

—Christopher Lubienski

See also charter schools; Friedman, Milton; globalism; human capital; market theory of schooling; No Child Left Behind; privatization; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; voucher plans

Further Readings and References


CHRISTIAN COALITION

In the latter part of the twentieth century, politics, government, and society in the United States have been impacted deeply by conservative religious ideas and the organizations that endorse and foster them. The political and sociocultural landscape has been transformed, with major implications for the administration of the nation’s education systems. Local, state, regional, and national movements espousing a conservative agenda have become an ever-present, and sometimes dominating, presence in decision making by school boards, building administrators, state, and national education policymakers.
The Christian Coalition of America is perhaps the foremost example of the rise of the religious right, a pattern that has unfolded over several decades. Founded in 1989, the Christian Coalition has played a dominant role in mobilizing politically conservative elements into a strongly influential, but not monolithic, lobbying force. The group was founded by Pat Robertson, a Virginia talk show host and 1988 presidential candidate. Two main motives for existence of the Christian Coalition were to restore the United States to the status of being a “purer,” homogeneous nation united under God and to propagate the message that conservative Christians are an oppressed minority who are victimized by a socially liberal world that ignores or marginalizes them and their beliefs.

The Coalition’s leadership (http://www.cc.org) sees the organization as a means to revive Christianity’s voice in government, representing a membership of over 2 million. The professed mission of the Coalition is to:

- represent the pro-family point of view before local councils, school boards, state legislatures, and Congress;
- speak out in the public arena and in the media;
- train leaders for effective social and political action;
- inform profamily voters about timely issues and legislation; and
- protest anti-Christianity bigotry and defend the rights of people of faith.

Its ultimate purpose is to guarantee that government actions make families stronger.

The presidency of Ronald Reagan (1981–1989) represented the form of administration favored by the religious right and emboldened its organized supporting elements such as the Christian Coalition to pursue greater triumphs, particularly in the presidency of George W. Bush (2001–2009). The agenda, from school boards to Congress, the presidency, and federal agencies, is laid out clearly: The coalition’s agenda and motivation is a mixture of patriotism, social conservatism, proselytization, and social mobilization, for the purpose of transforming the United States and returning it to what coalition leaders see as its rightful set of values.

The Christian Coalition of America is active in lobbying on behalf of legislation it supports and for its vision of the constitutional structure of the United States. For example, it has supported a proposed amendment to the U.S. Constitution restoring prayer in public schools, claiming it is needed to correct Supreme Court rulings that have strayed from the meaning of the provisions of the First Amendment on freedom of religion. Its issue advocacy, which consists of spending unregulated money on advertising that promotes positions on issues rather than candidates, has become a favored tactic of many interest groups, protected as a First Amendment right by the 1976 U.S. Supreme Court decision, Buckley v. Valeo.

The Coalition annually raises millions of dollars to produce and distribute voter guidelines and other direct-mail literature to describe candidates’ positions on various issues and to promote its agenda, which includes stronger parental authority; more complete access to public facilities, such as schools, for religious activities; and greater impact of religious values on school policies.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also Bible, as history; church-state issues; creationism; fascism and schools; fundamentalism; homophobia; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; law, trends in; Parent Teacher Association; politics, of education; prayer in school; privatization; religion, in schools; science, in curriculum; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; values of organizations and leadership; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


CHURCH-STATE ISSUES

The First Amendment Religion Clauses were ratified in 1791 as part of the Bill of Rights. According to the Religion Clauses, “Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof.” While the Supreme Court did not address a dispute involving religion and public education on the merits of an Establishment Clause claim until 1947, in Everson v. Board of Education, since then it has resolved more cases on the religion clauses than any other subject.
In reviewing cases that involve the Religion Clauses, the Court has created confusion over the appropriate judicial standard. The Court enunciated a two-part test in *School District of Abington Township v. Schempp* and *Murray v. Curlett* (1963) over the constitutionality of prayer and Bible reading in public schools. The Court expanded this two-part test into the tripartite Establishment Clause standard in *Lemon v. Kurtzman* (*Lemon*) (1971) in evaluating state aid to religious schools. When the Court applied the *Lemon* test in cases involving both aid and prayer or religious activity in the schools, it failed to explain how or why it became a kind of “one size fits all” measure in First Amendment disputes. Over the years, the Court has limited, and expanded, the availability of government aid to religious schools and their students under the judicially created Child Benefit Test. Conversely, the Court has more consistently prohibited state sponsored religious activities in public schools.

*Everson v. Board of Education of Ewing Township (Everson)* (1947) was the Court’s first case on state aid to students who attend religiously affiliated nonpublic schools. In *Everson*, the Court upheld a statute that permitted local school boards to reimburse parents of children who attended religiously affiliated nonpublic schools for the cost of transportation. While not actually using the words “child benefit,” the Court found that since education satisfied a secular state purpose and transportation fit in the general category of other public services that are available to all, such as police and fire protection, the benefit primarily was to children, not their religiously affiliated schools. Under this test, the Court held that states may, but are not required, to provide benefits to students in nonpublic schools.

The most significant case involving aid to nonpublic schools was *Lemon v. Kurtzman* (1971), wherein the Court considered the constitutionality of programs that provided salary supplements to certified teachers in nonpublic schools who taught only subjects that were offered in the public schools and reimbursements for teachers’ salaries, textbooks, and instructional materials for courses that did not contain subject matter dealing with religious subject matter. Invalidating both statutes, the Court enunciated a tripartite *Lemon* test. In creating the test, the Court added a third element, on excessive entanglement, from *Walz v. Tax Commission of New York City* (1970), wherein it upheld state property tax exemptions for church property used in worship services to the two-part test from *Abington v. Schempp*. Under this test, a statute must have a secular legislative purpose, must not further or restrain religion, and must not markedly interweave government with religion.

Prior to *Lemon*, the Court set the outer limits of the Child Benefit Test in *Board of Education of Central School District No. 1 v. Allen* (*Allen*) (1968) in upholding a statute that authorized the loaning of textbooks in secular subjects to students who attended nonpublic schools. The Court upheld similar programs in *Meek v. Pittenger* (1975) and *Wolman v. Walter* (1977). Conversely, while the Court struck down loans of other instructional materials in *Meek* and *Wolman*, in *Mitchell v. Helms* (2000), the Court overturned the parts of those two cases that were inconsistent with permitting the loans of materials such as computers and projectors to religiously affiliated nonpublic schools.

In 1983, in *Mueller v. Allen*, the Court ruled that a state could permit state income tax deductions for actual expenses for tuition, textbooks, and transportation of dependents who attended elementary or secondary schools. The Court upheld the deduction as constitutional since it was available to all parents, not only those whose children were in nonpublic schools, and was one among many rather than a single, favored type of taxpayer deduction.

*Zobrest v. Catalina Foothills School District* (1993) signaled a shift in the Court’s Establishment Clause thinking. At issue was a school board’s refusal to provide a sign language interpreter for a deaf student who attended a Catholic high school. The Court held that the student was entitled to an interpreter since this aid was neutral insofar as it did not afford financial benefits to his parents or school and there was no governmental participation in instruction because the interpreter was only a conduit to effectuate his learning.

A year later, the Court examined a case where a state legislature created a school district with boundaries that were coextensive with those of a small religious community. The legislature created the district in an attempt to meet the needs of parents of children with disabilities who wished to send them to a nearby school that would honor their religious practices. In *Board of Education of Kiryas Joel Village School District v. Grumet* (1994), the Court affirmed that the law violated the Establishment Clause since it failed all three prongs of the *Lemon* test.

In *Agostini v. Felton* (1997), its most important Establishment Clause case since *Lemon*, the Court expanded the parameters of the Child Benefit Test for
the first time since *Allen*, in repudiating its earlier decision in *Aguilar v. Felton* (1985). In *Aguilar*, the Court banned the on-site delivery of remedial educational services under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act for economically disadvantaged students in religiously affiliated nonpublic schools in New York City. In *Agostini*, the Court reasoned that New York City’s Title I program did not violate the Establishment Clause since there was no governmental indoctrination, there were no distinctions between recipients based on religion, and there was no excessive entanglement. The Court was satisfied that since Title I is a federally funded activity that offers supplemental, remedial instruction to disadvantaged children on a neutral basis, it did not run afoul of the Establishment Clause because it had appropriate safeguards in place in the nonpublic schools. *Agostini’s* importance rests in its having modified the *Lemon* test by reviewing only its first two parts, purpose and effect, while recasting entanglement as one criterion in determining a statute’s effect.

In *Zelman v. Simmons-Harris* (2002), the Court upheld the constitutionality of a voucher program. The Court held that the voucher program was constitutional because, as part of the state’s far-reaching attempt to provide greater educational opportunities in a failing school system, it allocated aid on the basis of neutral secular criteria that neither favored nor disfavored religion, was available to both religious and secular beneficiaries on a nondiscriminatory basis, and offered assistance directly to a broad class of citizens who directed the aid to religious schools based entirely on their own genuine and independent private choices.

Unlike its evolving attitude toward aid to students who attend religiously affiliated nonpublic schools, ever since its first case involving religion in the schools, the Court has largely adopted the Jeffersonian metaphor calling for a virtual wall separating Church and state, language that is not in the Constitution. In *People of State of Illinois ex rel. McCollum v. Board of Education of School District No. 71, Champaign County* (1948), the Court initiated a program that allowed religious leaders to enter public schools to provide religious instruction for students whose parents agreed to have their children attend the classes. The Court ruled that since tax-supported public schools could not be used to disseminate religious doctrine, officials acted impermissibly in affording religious groups invaluable aid in helping them to provide students via the state’s compulsory education machinery.

In *Engel v. Vitale* (1962), the Court’s first case on prayer in school, the Court struck down a prayer from the New York State Board of Regents for suggested use in public schools; the prayer was intended to inculcate moral and spiritual values in students. The Court held that the daily classroom practice of having students recite prayer was a religious activity wholly inconsistent with the Establishment Clause.

A year later, in the companion cases of *School District of Abington Township v. Schempp* and *Murray v. Curlett* (1963), the Court addressed the appropriateness of Bible reading and/or the use of the Lord’s Prayer/Our Father in public schools, and effectively banned forced public prayer and Bible reading in public schools in the United States. The Court later struck down the posting of the Ten Commandments in public schools (*Stone v. Graham* (1980)) and a statute that would have required a “moment of silence” in every public school classroom (*Wallace v. Jaffree*, 1985).

In *Board of Education of Westside Community Schools v. Mergens* (1990), the Court upheld a federal statute that permits student-sponsored prayer and/or Bible study clubs to meet during noninstructional time. The Court expanded its rationale in granting nonschool groups access to public school facilities in *Lamb’s Chapel v. Center Moriches Union Free School District* (1993) and *Good News Club v. Milford Central School* (2001).

*Lee v. Weisman* (*Lee*) (1992) was the Court’s first ruling on school-sponsored prayer at graduation ceremonies. In *Lee*, a middle school student and her father objected to prayer at her graduation, where school officials invited a rabbi to deliver the invocation and benediction. In striking the prayer down as violating the Establishment Clause yet avoiding the *Lemon* test, the Court maintained that the state, through school officials, had a pervasive role not only by selecting who would pray but also by directing the prayer’s content. The Court held that prayer was impermissible since students were a captive audience and were forced to participate, possibly against their wishes, insofar as they were not free to absent themselves from the ceremony.

In *Santa Fe Independent School District v. Doe* (2000), the Court struck down prayer prior to the start of high school football games as impermissible governmental approval or endorsement of religion rather than as a form of psychological coercion which subjected fans to values and/or beliefs other than their own.

Most recently, the Supreme Court considered a challenge to the inclusion of the words “under God”
in the “Pledge of Allegiance.” Rather than address the constitutionality of the term “under God,” the Court sidestepped the issue by holding that a noncustodial father lacked standing, or the legal ability, to file such a challenge (Elk Grove Unified School District v. Newdow; 2004).

—Charles J. Russo

See also Bible, as history; Christian Coalition; creationism; fundamentalism; law, trends in; Lemon test; politics, of education; prayer in school; religion, in schools; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; values of organizations and leadership; values pluralism, in schools

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CIVICS, CIVIC EDUCATION

Various groups, such as political scientists, philosophers, and historians have long debated what civics is and what the school’s responsibility is in creating citizens. Even though John Dewey’s extensive work on democracy and education has not resolved the issue, scholars and practitioners alike have used his ideas and those of others to shape the dialogue and definition of democracy. They have also debated how to develop citizens who know civic norms and can use civic knowledge to willingly participate in a thoughtful examination of and conversation about the most fundamental democratic values of the common good, self-government, justice, equality, diversity, openness, free inquiry, and the individual rights (life, liberty, property, pursuit of happiness).

At the very least, civic education teaches the fundamental civic knowledge, skills, and dispositions that should create responsible and productive members of society. Carried to an extreme, civics can be used to foster an attachment to the nation’s principles and institutions as entities worthy of admiration, loyalty, and sacrifice. Obviously, the ways in which educators advance any version of these views privileges the political and ideological perspectives that are attached to that vision of civics, civic education, and citizenship. For example, former U.S. Secretary of Education Rod Paige contended that the No Child Left Behind Act would improve student learning in civics and American history through the basic elements of reading, writing, math, and science.

Due to influence of the National Education Association and other organizations, the subject of civics was added to the secondary school curriculum in the late nineteenth century. With the influx of large number of immigrants who arrived in the United States, schools were expected to teach students how to become citizens and what their role was in relationship to their community and their nation. Today, there is a similar “hue and cry” over American youths’ lack of civic knowledge. This seems to recur periodically, as nearly 100 years after civics became a part of the school’s curriculum, education officials and policy leaders are once again outraged over the “civics illiteracy” of its young citizens, who are now more likely to be new immigrants, thus mirroring the conditions of the nineteenth century, which first led to the inclusion of civics in the school curriculum.

Seeking a renewed emphasis on the ideal of a national civic identity, educators and public policy leaders have once again found common ground in agreeing that without citizens who know what their role is, democracy is a “hollow shell.” Underscoring this belief is that the public schools must take the lead in teaching civic responsibility along with the call to teach...
civics in order to ensure the continued prosperity of the nation. This most recent appeal for civic education has led to a 2003 Congressional Conference on Civic Education, which developed several goals, including making civic education a central purpose of schools; establishing well-defined standards for the subject; and encouraging classroom programs that foster discussions of current events.

—Louise Anderson Allen

See also character education; civil rights movement; curriculum, theories of; democracy, democratic education and administration; Dewey, John; history, in curriculum; immigration, history and impact in education; moral education; reform, of schools; social studies

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CIVICS, HISTORY IN SCHOOLS

Civic education, the society-centered purpose of American public schooling, teaches knowledge, skills, and attitudes of self-governance for individual liberty and the common good. As the nation changed from colonial to democratic governance, civic education changed from a sacred agenda for the privileged few to a secular and common experience. Most colonial schooling was informally accomplished at home or through apprenticeship, with church sermons providing direct instruction in civic virtue entwined in moral virtue. Good citizenship was a by-product of obeying commandments. Exclusive Latin grammar schools focused on perennial subjects of eternal truth rather than practical matters like politics. With the 1776 revolution came a clear definition of democratic principles and a written constitution, the core of civic education.

Thomas Jefferson proposed, unsuccessfully, that universal education be provided at public expense, but not until later was there a more widespread egalitarian belief that all men were not only equal but trainable and therefore capable of governance. The nineteenth-century Common School Movement responded to social problems of increased immigration and urban industrialization with compulsory attendance and a curriculum based not on religion or classical literature, but on participation in economic and political opportunity. Although more secular, moral and civic virtue remained entwined, as seen in the fact that five out of seven curriculum objectives in the 1918 Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education included civics: “worthy home membership,” vocation, citizenship, “worthy use of leisure,” and ethical character. John Dewey advocated schools as socially relevant democratic communities with student government and extracurricular activities to simulate political involvement and projects to develop cooperative productivity.

Formally, civic knowledge is gained by the study of the U.S. Constitution in secondary school, typically in 8th and 11th grades; the emphasis tends to be on historical events and institutions rather than underlying principles of self-government and common good. Service learning is another means to connect civic education through community involvement and personal commitment. In elementary schools, civic education is incorporated into social studies and literature as well as such methods as cooperative learning, designed to teach social skills as part of the learning process. Less formal are the patriotic holiday observances such as Veterans Day.

Informally, civics is taught through classroom management or the “hidden curriculum” described by Phillip Jackson in 1990. Post–World War II child-centered parenting and equity legislation (e.g., Brown v. Board of Education, Civil Rights Act, Title IX of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act) emphasized individual rights plus the mediating effect of close proximity with diverse fellow students. By the end of the twentieth century, stringent monitoring of tolerance and multiculturalism influenced the elimination of ambiguous celebrations, like Halloween, and offensive mascots, like Indians. World events such as the Columbine High School massacre and the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks on America have inspired global and local sensitivity to different perspectives, but the usefulness of following rules of civic engagement receives less attention than basic human needs without which individuals may be compelled to destructive action.

—Naomi Jeffery Petersen
Civil Rights Movement

A civil right may include freedom of speech, the right to vote, or freedom of the press. Discrimination occurs when these rights are denied. Since the country was founded, African Americans were denied these rights. As a result, there was unprecedented energy after World War II to combat the discrimination. This energy presented itself in the form of boycotts, freedom rides, national rallies, and marches. The protests focused on ending discrimination, or more specifically, on protecting civil rights.

CIVIL RIGHTS LEGISLATION

In order to protect civil rights, Congress passed both federal statutes and constitutional amendments. In 1865, Congress voted to amend the Constitution, passing the Thirteenth Amendment, abolishing slavery in the United States. In 1868, Congress passed the Fourteenth Amendment, to protect against deprivation of “life, liberty, or property without due process of law” and against denial “to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.” Congress also passed several civil rights statutes during the Reconstruction Era.

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 is the most well-known statute passed by Congress. When President Kennedy initially tried to pass the Civil Rights Act in 1963, he ran into significant resistance, but Congress eventually did pass this act after Kennedy’s death in 1964. Under this act, one may not discriminate based on “race, color, religion, or national origin” in public establishments that participate in interstate commerce. This legislation started to address the treatment of African Americans as second-class citizens; however, the act did not ensure the right to vote. As such, in 1965, the Voting Rights Act was passed, enabling more African Americans to vote, and it banned literacy laws. A few years later, the Civil Rights Act of 1968 was passed, and it focused on housing discrimination.

Even after the civil rights movement, Congress and later presidents contributed to protecting civil rights. In fact, Congress overrode a veto in 1988 by President Reagan, passing the Civil Rights Restoration Act, which expands the reach of nondiscrimination laws within private institutions receiving federal funds. More recently, President George H. W. Bush signed the Civil Rights Act of 1991, strengthening existing civil rights laws and providing for damages in cases of intentional employment discrimination.

UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT CASES

In addition to civil rights activity in Congress, the court system also became involved in civil rights battles. Specifically, during the civil rights movement, there were continuing efforts to legally challenge segregation and other areas of discrimination against African Americans through the court system. These cases helped pave the road for the civil rights movement. In the 1896 *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision, the Supreme Court ruled that facilities for African Americans could be “separate but equal,” and the decision set up a precedent that lasted through the 1954 U.S. Supreme Court’s *Brown v. Board of Education* decision. In *Brown v. Board of Education*, the Court decided that separate was inherently unequal. This decision began a tide of litigation, legislation, and resistance that defined the civil rights movement.

THE EARLY CIVIL RIGHTS EFFORTS

When people consider the civil rights movement, they may automatically think of the 1950s and 1960s. We would be remiss, however, if we ignored the earlier civil rights efforts. Some scholars argue that an organized movement began in the late 1700s, when Massachusetts outlawed slavery within its borders, or...
in 1808, when the importation of slaves was banned by Congress. Still others cite the revolt of Nat Turner, who in 1831 led a slave rebellion in Virginia. Probably the most well-known event was when President Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation in 1863, freeing all slaves.

Even after the Emancipation Proclamation, segregation was firmly established as law, leaving African Americans as second-class citizens. Specifically, African Americans were forced to use inferior public facilities, whether it was a public school or a hospital. Legal protections for African Americans were almost nonexistent, and as a result, lynchings became a frequent occurrence throughout the South.

To combat the lack of legal representation among African Americans, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) took steps to provide more legal representation. Also, the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters was another organization that fought for African American workplace rights. This union helped African Americans gain new job opportunities with increased earnings. These early events certainly helped spur the momentum of the civil rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s and should be recognized as the impetus behind the movement.

THE CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT

It was well documented that during the 1950s, African Americans earned less and had higher rates of poverty. The African American population was also politically disenfranchised because they were separated from Whites through de jure segregation in the South. Throughout the South, African Americans were barred from the political process because of codes of conduct that defined segregation. These codes of conduct were known as Jim Crow laws.

Even when African Americans migrated to the North, they were disproportionately relegated to low-skilled and poorly paid jobs. The only significant racial integration pursued by the federal government following World War II was the desegregation of the armed forces in 1948. Despite the integration of troops, the public schools remained segregated by law until the 1954 Brown decision.

After the Brown decision, the upsurge of popular protests that characterized the resistance of the civil rights movement began. Rosa Parks’s refusal to leave her seat on a Montgomery, Alabama, bus in 1955 established the course for the movement. After she was arrested, leaders of the African American community in Montgomery, including Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., staged a boycott of the Montgomery Bus system that eventually led to its desegregation a year later. In 1957, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) was formed, and Dr. King was made the first president. The SCLC became a major force in organizing the civil rights movement. Its mission was to encourage leadership of the churches to become involved in the civil rights movement.

Also, in 1957, the desegregation of Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas, was put in the national spotlight when nine Black students were barred from the public school by Governor Orval Faubus and crowds of angry students and parents protested. During this event, Governor Faubus ordered the Arkansas National Guard to prevent the African American students from entering the school. As a result, President Dwight D. Eisenhower was forced to send the National Guard and Federal troops to escort the Black students into the building. The troops remained in Little Rock for the rest of the school year, escorting the African American students to and from the public school.

The momentum continued to grow when in 1960, college students began to join in the protests that were spreading across the South. On one particular occasion, four students from North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College began a sit-in at a segregated Woolworth’s lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. Although the students were not served, they returned continuously to the counter and insisted on being served. This action prompted more sit-ins around the country, and these four students became icons of the civil rights movement. It is estimated that over 70,000 people participated in sit-ins nationwide. One of the more organized student groups that participated in such protests was the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC). The SNCC group attracted hundreds of people nationwide to pursue legal reform and integration.

Student involvement continued into the summer of 1961, when almost 1,000 Black and White students and volunteers from across the country joined in the “freedom rides” that tested the desegregation of the transportation system in the United States. The Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) began sending student volunteers on the bus trips in order to test the new laws prohibiting segregation in interstate travel
facilities. The students were often met with stiff resistance; for example, mobs in Alabama burned a bus that held the student volunteers. Also significant in 1961 was the murder of Medgar Evers, Mississippi’s NAACP field secretary. After two hung juries in 1964, his murderer was convicted 30 years later.

In 1962, riots broke out at the University of Mississippi when the first Black student, James Meredith, was enrolled. The impetus behind the riots was Governor Ross Barnett, who said he would never allow the university to become integrated. Two students were killed in the riots, but James Meredith was protected by the National Guard and went on to graduate from the University in 1964. Similarly, at the University of Alabama, two Black students faced stiff resistance in 1963. President Kennedy ordered the Alabama National Guard to escort the two students into the school; however, Alabama’s Governor, George Wallace, stood in the doorway of the school and read a statement denouncing federal enforcement of desegregation and civil rights.

Possibly the most remembered event of the civil rights movement came in 1963, when Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. led a march on Washington, DC. The march culminated with Dr. King’s famous “I Have a Dream” speech. Over 200,000 people attended this nonviolent event and changed the flow of the civil rights movement. Only 4 months prior to this speech, Dr. King had been jailed in Birmingham for openly defying a court injunction against marching. Soon after King’s speech, President John F. Kennedy, who had been quietly in favor of the movement, came out with his full support for civil rights. Also during this year, four girls attending Sunday school were killed when a bomb exploded at the Sixteenth Street Baptist Church in Birmingham, Alabama. As a result, riots erupted in Birmingham, where two Black youths were killed.

During the summer of 1963, the Council of Federated Organizations (COFO), a network of civil rights groups that included CORE and SNCC launched a massive push to register Black voters. This became known as “Freedom Summer.” During Freedom Summer, SNCC had set up Freedom Schools throughout the South to coach African Americans on passing the state voter registrations tests. Despite SNCC’s attempts, southern officials often administered tests in an openly biased manner, preventing African Americans from passing the voter exams. Other supremacist groups used intimidation to keep African Americans from trying to take the exam.

When Kennedy was assassinated, only months after the march led by Dr. King, President Lyndon B. Johnson took up the cause of the civil rights movement in his name. Using the memory of the assassinated president, President Johnson was able to get the Civil Rights Act into Congress. When the Southern senators staged a filibuster that lasted a record 57 days, President Johnson was able to sway the majority and win the vote to end the filibuster only by convincing a senator from Illinois who controlled several votes by invoking the memory of former President Lincoln, who opposed slavery and was also from Illinois. The Civil Rights Act was signed by President Johnson in 1964, and it made segregation in all public facilities and employment discrimination illegal. After the 1964 act was passed, civil rights groups did not believe that the legislation did enough to guarantee African Americans the right to vote. At this time, Selma, Alabama, became the focus for peaceful protests to protest police brutality and to push for voting rights. During one particular march from Selma to Montgomery, the group was attacked by Selma police and White supremacist groups. The attack on the protesters became known as “Bloody Sunday” because 16 marchers were hospitalized and 50 received emergency medical treatment. Dr. King joined the march to Montgomery, and the marchers received federal protection along the route.

President Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act of 1965 a few months after the Selma march. Only 5 days after the Voting Rights Act in 1965, the Watts riots began, and 34 people were killed and $40 million in property damage occurred. Also shortly after the bill passed, three Mississippi civil rights workers who had been working to register African American voters disappeared. It was later learned that the three volunteers were arrested for “speeding.” After they were released, they were escorted by a deputy sheriff to a deserted dirt road. While on the road, they were met by three cars filled with members of the Ku Klux Klan. The three volunteers were found shot in the head.

The latter half of the 1960s marked a shift toward a more militant approach to gaining civil rights. Malcolm X represented the ascendency of this new vision and became the founder of the organization of Afro-American unity. In 1965, Malcolm X was shot to death in Harlem by members of the Nation of Islam. The Black Panther Party was another group that gained notoriety during this time; they took a more aggressive approach to achieving equality for African
Americans. Groups spun off from the Black Panther Party, including the Black Panther Party of Self-Defense, which openly advocated for retaliation against police violence. By the mid-1960s, SNCC and CORE adopted a more militaristic approach using the slogan “Black Power.”

Despite this more aggressive approach taken by some groups, Dr. King continued to advocate for a more peaceful approach, until he was assassinated on the balcony of his Memphis, Tennessee, hotel room in 1968. Dr. King was in Memphis organizing a garbage workers strike. Several months later, escaped convict James Earl Ray was convicted of the murder. Ray pleaded guilty and was sentenced to 99 years in prison. Three days after his sentencing, he took back his statement and maintained his innocence until his death in 1998, and questions about Dr. King’s death remain today.

While there is more to achieve in ending discrimination, it is unquestionable that the civil rights movement was unparalleled. The movement informed the nation about the prevalence of poverty and the problem of racism toward the African American population. The African American struggle for civil rights also inspired other movements among Native Americans, Latina/os and women. While allying themselves with civil rights forces, these movements defend the achievements of the past and fight for additional guarantees of equality.

—Suzanne E. Eckes

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Black education; children and families in America; Clark, Septima; critical race theory; desegregation, of schools; determinism, sociocultural; diversity; DuBois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; King, Martin Luther Jr.; liberalism; Malcolm X; Mendez, Felicitas; minorities, in schools; Office of Economic Opportunity; Picott, J. Rupert; politics, of education; Sizemore, Barbara A.; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; tracking, of students; Woodson, Carter G.

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In the 1950s, widespread public resistance to the Supreme Court’s ruling on school desegregation was so strong that South Carolina passed a law forbidding government employees from membership in civil rights organizations. Septima Clark taught in Charleston area Black schools for many years but was fired in 1956 because she admitted her membership in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Nevertheless, she remained steadfast in her community activism.

Septima Poinsette Clark (1898–1987) was born on May 3, 1898, in Charleston, South Carolina, one of eight siblings. Her father, Peter Porcher Poinsette, was born a slave, and her mother, Victoria Warren Anderson Poinsette, was a free woman who had spent her early childhood years in Haiti. Peter and Victoria met in Jacksonville, Florida, married and moved to Charleston. In her 1990 book, Ready from Within, edited with Cynthia Stokes, Clark described her mother as proud of her ability to read and write, a strict disciplinarian, and fearless; her father was gentle, hardworking, and committed to the children’s education. Of her mother’s fearlessness, Clark said it helped her to stand up to and in front of large groups that were hostile, such as the Klansmen and the White Citizens’ Councils.

Clark attended Avery Institute in Charleston. She began her teaching career in an underfinanced, overcrowded, and understaffed school on John’s Island, South Carolina. The Promiseland School had no glass windows and was chimney heated. It had 132 students and two teachers, who together were paid $60. Across the road was a White teacher who was paid $85 with three students. Clark went on to teach in Hickory, North Carolina, and Dayton, Ohio, and returned briefly to John’s Island, but settled in Columbia, South Carolina. Throughout these moves, she was deeply aware of Black and White teachers’ salary discrepancies, the vast differences in support, and the inequitable teaching conditions in the South’s segregated schools.

Through her involvement with a Charleston YWCA, Clark attended a workshop session at the Highlander Folk School in Monteagle, Tennessee, a well-known interracial training center for labor leaders and social activists. The school was responsible for providing its attendees the opportunity to break down racist and classist barriers, to develop leadership, fight against stereotypes, and improve the living
conditions of participants and their communities. It was here that Clark met and developed relationships with representatives of various national organizations, the NAACP, and the United Nations. She slept in dormitories with White people, engaged in dialogue, and was challenged by the advocacy question, “What do you plan to do back home?” She returned to Highlander on several occasions, and Myles Horton, the founder, asked her to become Highlander’s director of workshops.

Clark assisted in the development of Highlander’s Citizenship Education Program, built on literacy training and political empowerment. Several women leaders of the civil rights movement and those in training to carry on the bus boycotts, Freedom Rides, and sit-ins, met at Highlander: Rosa Parks, Fannie Lou Hamer, Ella Baker, and Dorothy Cotton. These women were later to become colleagues on the front lines of racial struggle and in the battlefields for democratic empowerment. Clark returned to John’s Island and opened a citizenship school that served as a model and prototype for schools all over the South.

Highlander was forced to close down by the state of Tennessee, but not before Horton, in 1961, had negotiated with the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the organization led by Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., to sponsor the Citizenship Schools. Septima Clark created a curriculum that taught reading as critical literacy, for the purposes of reading the Constitution and knowledge of personal rights and freedoms. In 1962, there were 40 citizenship schools in South Carolina. In the next 4 years, 10,000 teachers were trained for citizenship schools, and almost 70,000 Black voters were registered across the South. In southeast Georgia, there were 30 schools in seven counties. After the passage of the Voting Rights Act in 1965, registration again increased, and at least 1 million more Black people were registered by 1970. Clark was key to this expansion; she worked with and supported others in the leadership of the movement. In Ready From Within, in 1990, she noted the importance of cultivating a distributed model of leadership, encouraging people to develop as leaders by letting them. Clark was known for her ability to recognize natural leaders among the poorly educated attendees of the schools in rural communities.

As did other Black educational leaders working for social justice, Clark worked within coalitions and organizations. Clark’s extensive community work included that of the Federation Women’s group, the Teachers’ Association of South Carolina, Alpha Kappa Alpha sorority, and the National Council for Negro Women. She was known as a developer of educational leaders, sharing her unshakable confidence, love for humanity, and respect. From 1978 to 1983, she served as the first Black woman on the Charleston School Board. On December 15, 1987, Septima Poinsette Clark died in Charleston, South Carolina.

—Khaula Murtadha

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Bethune, Mary McLeod; Black education; children and families in America; Coppin, Fanny Jackson; critical race theory; desegregation of schools; diversity; DuBois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; King, Martin Luther Jr.; liberalism; Malcolm X; minorities, in schools; Office of Economic Opportunity; Picott, J. Rupert; politics, of education; Sizemore, Barbara A.; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; Woodson, Carter G.

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CLASS, SOCIAL

Americans hold ambivalent feelings about social class. On the one hand, the large and in recent decades growing disparities of material well-being cannot be denied. Poverty in the United States has always existed alongside the nearly unimaginable wealth of a more fortunate few. On the other hand, extreme inequality has never prevented a long tradition of Americans from seeing their society as a classless one, and as demonstrably unlike the aristocracies and inheritance of privilege that many believe characterizes the rest of the world.

Resolving the apparent conflict between great material inequality and the denial of the existence of social class has historically drawn on the myth of The American Dream. That is, for many Americans, the prospect of upward social and economic mobility is enough to negate the existence of class as a binding
and limiting social reality. In American culture, as long a class is not hereditary, its existence is ephemeral.

Popular conceptions of what counts as social class come and go, but certainly class takes on a somewhat different character in the United States than it does elsewhere in the industrialized world. Unlike European nations, the United States has never had a well-institutionalized and viable socialist movement. Moreover, American labor unions, unlike their counterparts elsewhere, have historically concentrated on the bread-and-butter issues of wages and benefits, rather than on the espousal of broader reform programs and the development of political coalitions.

Unlike the general public, sociologists and other social scientists have long been preoccupied with class. Here again, there is little consensus. Some see class as fundamental to understanding contemporary society, while others believe that class offers little help in understanding systems of privilege and inequality in postindustrial society. Definitions vary, but in general, class has been used as a catch-all term to describe any number of ways in which the economic positions of the privileged are held at the expense of those who are marginalized.

None of the various data collection agencies of the United States government designate social class as a category. Such common expressions as “lower,” “middle,” or “upper” class do not appear in documents by the U.S. Census Bureau, the Department of Labor, and certainly not the Department of Education. Instead, class has largely given way to occupation as a means to categorize the economic lives of working Americans.

Much of the literature on social class has grown extremely specialized and technical, and those debates will not be reviewed here. For this entry, class is a shorthand term for privileged socioeconomic location and advantaged life chances, whether in terms of income, wealth, social status, or simply overall socioeconomic well-being.

SOCIAL INEQUALITY IN THE UNITED STATES

We can provide some context for understanding social class and its relationship to education in the United States with a few simple statistics. Clearly, the United States is a wealthy country. In 2002, the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in the United States was $37,600, second only to Luxembourg and far higher than other industrialized nations. This level of affluence, however, is accompanied by great inequality in the distribution of material resources. In 1997, the poorest 10% of American households earned just 1.8% of total income, while the top 10% brought in 30.5% (figures very close to those of Costa Rica). Moreover, the Gini Index (a measure of income inequality) of the United States of 40.8 was higher than (among others) Sweden, Switzerland, Denmark, France, or Germany and about the same as China. In short, the United States combines great material wealth with great socioeconomic inequality.

RACE AND CLASS

As in much of the world, class in the United States is closely intertwined with race. Neither is reducible to the other, yet neither can be fully understood without reference to the other.

The work of sociologist William Julius Wilson, particularly in his provocatively titled The Declining Significance of Race in 1980, set the agenda for much thinking about the interplay of race and class. For Wilson, ongoing structural changes in the economy (such as plant closings and technological change) have had their most profound impacts on industries and regions in which minority workers are located. The result is that minorities suffer less from the direct effects of their race, and disproportionately from class-based processes.

Of course, the fact that race is highly associated statistically with socioeconomic status does not mean that race and class are the same or that race has become irrelevant to understanding educational inequality. Race-based residential segregation still characterizes much of the United States, and educational inequality is in large part an outcome of residential inequality.

CLASS, CULTURAL CAPITAL, AND SOCIAL REPRODUCTION

Class stands at the core of the analysis of many critical scholars of education. Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis’s benchmark volume Schooling in Capitalist America in 1976 was one of the first to systematically analyze schooling as a site of social reproduction, that is, as an institutional setting used by the privileged classes to their own benefit in an exploitative relationship with the less privileged. For Bowles and Gintis, schools “corresponded” to capitalist work organizations in ways that served to reproduce the interests of capital across generations.

A different and highly influential class-based analysis is that of French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu.
Bourdieu portrays schooling as the setting in which the cultural capital of the elite is inculcated and rewarded. By cultural capital, Bourdieu refers to cultural knowledge generally held to be reserved for the elite—the so-called high culture of the privileged classes. Cultural capital differs from human capital, which refers to skills related to the actual demands of the workplace. Cultural capital gains its force by the ability of the upper class to define it and to exclude the disadvantaged from mastering it.

**THE CONSEQUENCES OF CLASS**

The effects of social class work through American education in a variety of ways. Three are examined.

**School Funding**

American public schools are financed by a bewildering combination of local property taxes, state-level support, and various sources of federal money. Unlike virtually everywhere else in the world, the United States has no Ministry of Education. The tradition of local control of education at the expense of centralization characterizes American education.

There are unquestionably benefits to having educational decisions made by those closest to them, but this extreme decentralization brings with it some costs. Put simply, residential inequality engenders educational inequality. Communities that are better able to support local schools naturally enough do so, while communities with weaker local economies (hence weaker tax bases) tend to wither. Americans tolerate large inequalities in the educational resources available to students. Jonathan Kozol showed this graphically and dramatically, and statistically the story is equally stark. Underlying all of this, of course, is class.

There is some debate about the ultimate impact of these class-based disparities in funding on educational achievement, although the consensus seems to be that money well spent does make a difference in student achievement. Even equalizing school funding, of course, would do nothing about inequalities that arise from variations in family resources. More affluent families are very simply more able to pass on their advantages to their children.

**Class in the Classroom**

Class also shows itself in different ways in the “classrooms and corridors” of schools. Perhaps the most influential study here is Paul Willis’s 1993 ethnography, *Learning to Labour: How Working Class Kids Get Working Class Jobs*. Willis focused on a group of working class boys in an economically distressed 1970s British industrial city. He described in great detail the boys’ cultural estrangement from what they saw as the feminized and unworthy culture of the school. Rather than being dominated by school culture, Willis’s boys actively resisted and ridiculed it. The irony is that in so doing, they consigned themselves to futures of increasingly unremunerative and meaningless working-class labor. For Willis, the effects of class were no less crushing for being partially self-imposed.

Sociologist Annette Lareau drew on Bourdieu’s cultural capital theory in her ethnographic study of parental involvement in two high schools. Lareau portrayed middle-class parents as being able to negotiate the demands and class culture of the school in ways that working class parents were not. Being at least as educated as the teachers, middle-class parents were able to mobilize their resources in ways that ensured that their children were the chief beneficiaries of their involvement in the school. Working-class parents tended to lack this cultural capital.

More recently, Valerie Lee and David Burkham have brought an entirely different sort of data to the question of social class and education. These authors used the U.S. Department of Education’s Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Cohort (ECLS-K). In their 2003 volume, *Inequality at the Starting Gate*, Lee and Burkham demonstrated that social class differences in children’s cognitive preparation for school appear well before they even enter kindergarten. These social class differences are typically larger than racial or ethnic differences.

A commonly identified culprit in class-driven critiques of schooling is tracking. The received wisdom for a long time was that school tracking systematically discriminated against students from less privileged classes (as well as against students of color). Many scholars held track assignment to be essentially indistinguishable from assignment based on social class.

The class dimension of tracking has turned out to be more complicated than this. Evidence that tracking is based directly on social class is weak. Instead, the relationship between class and track placement seems to be because of class-based differences in student achievement. Even with this, though, there is evidence that other less formal processes of course taking in schools can work to the detriment of some students.
Federal programs aimed (at least in part) at reducing class disparities in cognitive achievement have experienced mixed successes and failures. George Farkas and Shane Hall have been critical of Title 1, perhaps the most well-known of these programs, on the grounds that it has become too diffused and ill-focused to serve those most in need. For Farkas and Hall, the failure of policymakers to take class (and not only race) seriously compromises the effectiveness of any remedial program.

**Class and Educational Expansion**

The worldwide expansion of educational systems has been one of the central global trends of the last century. One might expect that as educational systems grow to add more members, access to them will become more widely granted to previously marginalized groups. This suggests that the effects of class on educational opportunity would come to decline over time.

This does not, however, appear to be the case, at least in the United States or (with a couple of important exceptions) anywhere else where the possibility of declining class-based access to education has been examined. Instead, when educational systems expand, the elite tend to preserve an inordinate share of the new opportunities for their own sons and daughters. While those previously excluded from the system may gain an access that they had never before had, the gap between their attainment and that of the elite does not generally narrow with expansion.

This resistance of equal educational opportunity to emerge from educational expansion has been explained with the concept of *maximally maintained inequality*, or MMI. This concept directs attention to the ability of the educational elite to monopolize educational opportunities in ways that contribute to the social reproduction of their class positions across generations. Schooling becomes, in this light, little more than another resource by which advantaged parents pass on their privileges across generations.

**CLASS AND THE FUTURE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION**

What does the future hold for class and schooling in the United States? Can we anticipate a more or less class-stratified society and educational system as we continue to develop into an information-based, postindustrial society? On balance, there seems little reason to expect class effects to diminish and many reasons to anticipate that they will widen.

It has been observed that American education has had some success stories, that is, that some sorts of inequality have declined over time. Most notably, the effects of gender have declined and even reversed, to the point where girls and women now outperform boys and men on a great many educational outcomes. The decline in educational gaps between Whites and African Americans has been less steady perhaps, but has nonetheless been real.

Class, however, is different. Unlike gender and race, class differentials in income and wealth have been widening over time, with little evidence that they will reverse anytime soon. Barring substantial refocus of educational and other social policy toward the redress of class inequality, the prospects for diminished class-based inequality in American education is slim.

—David B. Bills

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CLASS SIZE

Teachers and parents have long maintained that students learn better in smaller classes, but research has been slow to document either that this is true, or why and how it might be true. Published in 1990, an important statewide study in Tennessee, known as the STAR study, showed benefits from small classes in the primary grades. Students, especially African American students, who were in small classes in the primary grades scored higher on achievement tests and continued to score better than their comparison group through middle school. As a result, states and the federal government have developed initiatives to reduce class size in public schools. Nevertheless, the policy debates about class size reduction continue.

THE RESEARCH

In the 1970s, Gene V. Glass and his associates conducted a series of meta-analyses of previous studies and found that smaller classes did improve student achievement across all grade levels and subject matter. They found an even greater effect on nonachievement outcomes, such as the instructional environment and effects on teachers. But their meta-analyses were criticized, and the conclusions were refuted by many.

Among the critics were Glen E. Robinson and James H. Wittebols, who published a review of 100 class size studies that had been conducted between 1950 and 1985. They concluded that the research did not support an optimum class size for all situations. However, they did find evidence that students in the primary grades benefited from smaller class sizes for reading and mathematics. Also, they concluded that students of lower ability and those of minority ethnicity or from impoverished homes benefited from smaller class sizes. They found that changing instructional approaches and teaching practices were more effective than reducing class size in improving achievement. The research they reviewed did show that class size was a major concern of teachers and of the public and that students in the primary grades behaved better in small classes. Finally, they found that class size had a large impact on school budgets.

Although there have been a lot of studies on the relationship between class size and student achievement, most of them have been nonexperimental in design. Nonexperimental studies inspire less confidence in their results than controlled experiments do. Some of the studies in which class size was an independent variable and student achievement was the dependent variable showed a relationship, while others did not. Studies have varied a great deal in the way they defined small and large classes; a class size of 20, might be considered small in one study and large in another. Teaching methods and styles also varied in the different studies; thus, it was difficult to draw conclusions across the studies.

The Tennessee STAR study was a great improvement over previous studies because it was large, with over 6,000 students across the state of Tennessee, and because of its strong research design. The design was a true experimental design over a 4-year period. Students and teachers were randomly assigned to a small class (13 to 17 students), a regular class (22 to 26 students), or a regular class with a teacher aide. Results of standardized tests showed that students in the small classes performed better than students in the other classes in all subjects and across Grades K through 3. Follow-up studies showed that students who had been in small classes in the early grades maintained their advantage in Grades 4 through 7. There were no significant differences between the regular-sized classes with an aide and the regular-sized classes with no aide.

The STAR study found that at the end of kindergarten, students from small classes were about 1 month ahead of the other groups; at the end of second grade, they were 2 months ahead; and at the end of fifth grade, they were 5 months ahead. There were no differences in the effects of small classes between boys and girls, but minority and inner-city children benefited more from small classes than other children did. Although the STAR study has its critics, it has been widely accepted among researchers as providing reliable information about the relationship between class size and student achievement.

CLASS SIZE AS GOVERNMENT POLICY

California and Wisconsin are among the states that have adopted and funded class size reduction (CSR).
The SAGE program in Wisconsin began in 1996 and was targeted to low-income students in grades K–3. Evaluations of SAGE have shown that students in small classes (15) performed 25% to 30% better on standardized tests than did students in the same districts who were not in small classes. Also beginning in 1996, California provided a financial incentive for all school districts to reduce class sizes to 20 in Grades K through 3. Almost all districts took the money and reduced class sizes in the primary grades. One result was that there was a huge increase in the number of classes with teachers who lacked full credentials. Although the state spent $832 per pupil by the third year of the program, additional local resources were required as well. Districts with high percentages of poor and minority children already lacked both classroom space and qualified teachers; thus, the California CSR program exacerbated inequities among districts. Evaluations have found that there have been small gains in achievement, but it has not been possible to separate the effects of other simultaneous reforms from the CSR effects on test scores. A number of states that have adopted CSR policies have been unable to provide sufficient funding to implement them.

LESSONS FROM RESEARCH AND POLICY

Research findings indicate that everything else being equal, classes of 15 to 17 benefit the learning of all kindergarten through third-grade students, but especially those who are poor, minority, or in inner-city schools. The California experience indicates that a broad policy of CSR must take into consideration existing conditions in school districts, the need to target those students who would benefit most, the available supply of qualified teachers, and the high cost. Research is thin on whether there are other interventions that are more cost-effective than class size reduction. Further research is also needed on how class size reduction improves student learning. Some of the studies to date indicate that it may be students, rather than teachers, who behave differently in smaller classes. Students are more engaged and participate more in learning activities in small classes. However, it seems clear that a competent teacher is essential to student learning. Thus, the policy questions that remain revolve around how to allocate resources between efforts to reduce class size versus efforts to improve the quality of teachers and instruction.

—Carla Edlefson

See also achievement tests; administration, theories of; at-risk students; behaviorism; boards of education; classroom management; classroom research; contracts, with teacher unions; cost-benefit analyses; economics, theories of; efficacy theory; enrollment projections; governance; learning environments; politics, of education; research methods; salary and salary models; schooling effects; school size; staffing, concepts of; teacher recruitment and retention; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References


CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION

Classification of education is a typology of levels of instruction or the categorization of education systems. Useful terminology developed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, called the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), was issued to compile internationally comparable educational classification. The ISCED classification distinguishes between seven levels of education, ranging from preprimary to tertiary. The international definitions of preprimary, primary, and tertiary are similar to the definitions used in the United States, except for slight variations in the lower- and upper-secondary brackets.

The preprimary bracket consists of nursery schools and kindergartens for children aged 3 to 5, although in some countries, it starts as early as age 2 and may continue through age 6.

The primary education, also classified as the elementary bracket, spans ages 6 to 11, or first through
sixth grades in the United States, where pupils ordinarily spend 6 to 8 years. Early childhood education encompasses these first two brackets, although there are variations in preprimary education in different countries.

The secondary school bracket, a 4- to 6-year program, is normally completed at Grade 12. Secondary school consists of a combination of middle, junior high, 4-year high, and senior high schools. It covers ages 11 to 12 through 17 to 19 and is divided into lower- and upper-secondary levels. The United States has defined “lower secondary” as spanning Grades 7 through 9 and “upper secondary” as Grades 10 through 12. In the United States, lower-secondary education loosely equals intermediate, middle, or junior high school; however, in many other countries, the completion of lower-secondary education necessitates an examination that constitutes the conclusion of compulsory education. The upper-secondary bracket includes academic, technical, or vocational education, or some combination thereof, and is equivalent to a U.S. high school diploma.

In the postsecondary bracket, also known as the higher- or tertiary-educative bracket, high school graduates who decide to continue their education enter a technical or vocational institution, or a 2- or 4-year college or university. This bracket includes three ISCED levels.

The postsecondary bracket encompasses college, university, professional, vocational, and technical institutions. Typically, vocational and technical institutions and junior/community colleges grant associate’s degrees or certificates. Colleges and universities usually provide 2-year associate’s and 4-year bachelor’s degree programs. For a postgraduate degree, following a bachelor’s degree, at least 1 and often 2 years are necessary to obtain a master’s degree, ISCED Level 6, while a doctoral degree, Level 7, usually requires a minimum of 3 years.

Nonuniversity higher education also includes education beyond the secondary school level in vocational or community programs. As an attainment indicator, a person is classified at the highest level at which he or she completes a grade or degree. For example, a student in the United States must complete Grade 9 in order to attain a lower-secondary credential, and 2 years of higher education, the associate’s degree, in order to attain nonuniversity higher education.

—Eunyoung Kim

See also American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; compensatory education; early childhood education; elementary education; high schools; higher education; junior high schools; middle schools; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; normal schools; schools of education; universities, preparation of educational leaders in

Further Readings and References


CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management involves a variety of actions on the part of classroom teachers that establish structures, processes, procedures, and expectations that facilitate the teaching and learning processes by keeping students safe, emotionally physically, and intellectually. Classroom management includes discipline but takes a broader perspective. Discipline carries a connotation of reaction, whereas classroom management has a more proactive perspective. Discipline (as a subset of classroom management) remains a major concern of the public regarding school each year on the Gallup Poll. Being preventative in work with student behavior is important for the immediate environment of the classroom and for the school as a whole. A positive classroom environment enhances learning and keeps children safe. Litigation due to negligence, lack of due process, or change of placement for special needs children is less likely when classrooms are proactively managed.

Classroom management has about as many definitions as it does writers on the topic. Many writers do agree that good classroom management involves student motivation; minimizing behavioral disruption; having access to materials that are linked to learning; clarity in the minds of the learners as to what they are about, which means the teacher’s lesson is fairly concrete; good interpersonal rapport between all parties; and lively tempo of teaching. Embedded in this idea are several subheadings for assisting in a discussion of classroom management: motivation, managing student behavior, organizing the physical area and its furnishings, clarity of instruction, planning of instruction, and
social interactions (between and among students, teachers, parents, and other adults in the school).

While this list is not exhaustive, it provides an organizing framework for at least a cursory discussion of some of the important areas in any discussion of classroom management.

**MOTIVATION**
Motivation has been defined as a process of arousing, directing, and maintaining student behavior. Motivating students today is a major challenge for classroom teachers and administrators at all levels of education. Educators are often concerned about the numerous social and technical elements competing for students’ attention. Knowing how and applying strategies to motivate students is not simple, but it is essential to successful classroom management.

**MANAGING STUDENT BEHAVIOR**
Setting expectations for students’ behavior is an important component to be established immediately for successful classroom management. Once the rules and procedures are identified, it is important that they be taught through repetition and reinforcement. Strategies for accomplishing this include constant monitoring and action to correct any inappropriate behavior that occurs. Managing student behavior can be accomplished by emphasizing appropriate behavior as well as correcting inappropriate behavior; such actions can do much to build a positive classroom climate.

**ORGANIZING THE PHYSICAL AREA AND ITS FURNISHINGS**
The organization and arrangement of a room, its furnishings, and the materials kept in the room make up an important component of classroom management. Keeping traffic areas clear, arranging furniture (desks, tables, shelves, etc.) to encourage the behavior intended, and having books and other materials where they are needed during instructional periods are examples of elements of the physical environment that can contribute to or detract from successful classroom management.

**CLARITY OF INSTRUCTION**
Students need to understand what they are being asked to do regarding their class assignments. Some experts recommend that instructions be stated verbally, posted in writing in the classroom, and written by students in notebooks or on their papers. A time for responding to student questions should be provided following the giving of instructions. Variations of these elements are necessary depending on whether the instructions are for seatwork, for different groups, or for homework.

**PLANNING OF INSTRUCTION**
For successful classroom management, planning needs to be done for the year and for the individual lesson and everything in between. Subjects, units, and activities to be used in the instruction, events in the school that may affect the allocated time for instruction, and myriad other considerations need to be a part of the planning of instruction. Knowing the objectives or purposes of the lesson and sharing those with students helps the teacher to plan and achieve clarity of instruction. Planning helps with pacing, whether it relates to a single lesson or the curriculum to be delivered for the year. Planning is an essential for management in any endeavor; this holds true for classroom management also.

**SOCIAL INTERACTIONS (STUDENTS, TEACHERS)**
Establishing rules and procedures for social interactions needs to be done at the beginning of the school year. Rules of conduct to be followed by everyone must be identified. Establishing the balance between being approachable and encouraging interactions and minimizing the number of social interactions that disrupt the learning environment require careful planning and skillful implementation. These social interaction expectations cannot wait; they are, in fact, a prerequisite to the managing of student behavior.

Classroom management, with discipline as a component of it, plays a significant role in the instructional program and in the climate of the classroom. As individual classrooms are or are not managed effectively, the entire school feels the impact on its climate. Administrators play a key role in schoolwide management. Just as teachers establish rules and procedures, set expectations, and monitor student behaviors in classrooms, school administrators have this responsibility for the school. In addition, administrators must deal with student misbehavior that occurs outside the classroom or inside the classroom but with which the teacher feels unable to deal. Administrators must be
knowledgeable about motivation, about management techniques, and strategies for reinforcing positive behavior and correcting inappropriate behavior. In addition, specific rules and procedures must be applied to discipline issues involving special needs students. Both teachers and administrators need current information on these in order to implement them appropriately and avoid litigation.

—Anita Pankake

See also behaviorism; brain research and practice; child development theories; class size; classroom research; climate, school; cognition, theories of; conditioning theory; critical thinking; curriculum, theories of; discipline in schools; early childhood education; ethos, of organizations; humanistic education; individual differences, in children; instructional interventions; intelligence; learning, theories of; literacy, theories of; mainstreaming and inclusion; philosophies of education; special education; supervision

Further Readings and References


CLASSROOM RESEARCH

Although some elements of teaching “effectiveness” in classroom research may be estimated using test outcomes of students, as in other types of research, principles of validity must be followed. A framework of classroom research—processes, contexts, content—and for considering “effectiveness” aligned with the idea of content validity must be considered. A first step is to posit an operational definition of the domain or content under consideration. What are the purposes of schooling, classroom practices, and classroom research? The following criteria may be used to provide a guiding focus for determining effectiveness in classroom research: Develop student-friendly environments where the clients or students achieve positive, demonstrable outcomes in at least the A, B, C, D, Es of schooling (an Abecedarian Compact) and demonstrate these in and out of schools. In accordance with age and developmental expectations, students will achieve in:

A academics
B behavior and discipline
C citizenship and participation
D development into humane, mature, competent, civil citizens; self-concept and self-esteem
E economic sufficiency

In this discussion, the domain for effectiveness is the A, B, C, D, Es, and the criteria or outcomes are as follows:

A. Test score knowledge, breadth and depth (more subjects, higher scores)
B. Records of attendance, tardies, discipline referrals (quantity, severity of offense), anecdotal records of professionals
C. School activities, clubs; community work; church
D. Informed professional judgments (IPJ) of educators and others; portfolios
E. Work experience, employment (or admission to advanced schooling)

Some outcomes will be quite easy to measure, such as test scores of growth in cognitive abilities. Other outcomes will be long-term and judged using IPJ (rather than “measured” in the usual sense). These outcomes might include skills and dispositions such as punctuality, attitude, voting, law abiding, and social responsibility. Much of any educator’s in-school time is spent helping students learn expectations of schooling, learn how to get along in groups, and how to behave in acceptable ways. Thus, classroom research and assessments of teaching effectiveness must include enough of the domain (content validity) to be of much value in education improvement.

TEST SCORE EMPHASIS

Although analyses of student test outcomes seem to be a direct way to estimate classroom (teacher) “effectiveness,” even here there are theoretic and implementation issues. If one believes that teacher and peers
affect students, the unit of analysis should be the class average performance on the topic being considered, rather than the individual student. Advances in statistical methods such as hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) allow students to be treated as nested into a class, and the class to be nested into a school. Some mixed-method models can reduce teaching and teacher work to simplistic, mechanistic, formulaic drudgery. An alternative to the test-driven craze for assessing teacher “effectiveness” has long been observation of teaching (observational analysis) and judgments based on observations.

**OBSERVATIONAL ANALYSIS**

Many observation instruments have been developed and have existed to record teaching behavior, particularly student-teacher interaction. Interactivity has been clearly defined, and engagement (participation) has become the focus of some observations. Observation data provide a communication vehicle for analyzing and discussing teacher and student classroom behavior. Observers use coded or open-ended instruments to record teacher and student classroom behavior. Conclusions and assessments are derived by tallying and analyzing data from the observations.

Prior to the work on “interaction analysis” by Ned Flanders in the 1960s, much research on teachers and teaching relied on teacher characteristics and checklists of observable aspects of the classroom, such as order and space use. Flanders’s carefully validated work emphasized verbal communication events between teachers and students, characterizing the communication events as “indirect” (I) or “direct” (D), “teacher initiated” (seven categories), “student initiated” (two categories), and one category for “silence or confusion.” Researchers placed a checkmark in a category at set time intervals, tallied the checks, and developed a description of the classroom verbal communications as I or D, teacher initiated, or student initiated. Use of the Flanders system generated high reliability.

Recognizing that communication was more than verbal interactions and that people learn also from context and nonverbal messages, Charles Galloway advanced his ideas about combining the classifications of verbal communication (I, D, from Flanders), with nonverbal interactions described as “encouraging” (E) or “restricting” (R). Each Flanders category except “accepts feelings” had a corresponding nonverbal component. The combined verbal/nonverbal interactions conveyed the learning climate.

Development of these interaction systems initiated an era of classroom interaction research: research on teaching/learning and research on student and teacher communication events as a foundation for teaching and learning. Attention to interactions added a major dimension to classroom research, even providing a structural process for one element of teacher evaluation.

After the introduction and refinement of interaction analysis, classroom and teacher research grew rapidly into newer modes of supervision designed to improve teaching, with continuing emphasis on classroom communication research as a process to understand teaching and learning. Part of the classroom observation work included development and refinement of teacher and classroom observation instruments, including validity, reliability estimates, and rater agreement protocols.

The clinical supervisory process relies on observation data as a lens for teacher and supervisor interaction in promoting reflective instructional practice. Although useful in generating a picture of what happens in the isolated environment of the classroom, observational analysis has weaknesses that require continuing research refinement, such as validity, reliability, and development of rubrics for categorizing and quantifying observation data. Any observation captures only a small slice of teaching. Can observers objectively and reliably report the behaviors being observed? Inter-rater agreement, reliability estimates, connecting observation analyses to student outcomes, and other issues hamper the utility of observation analysis for assessing classroom “effectiveness.” Validity and reliability (or credibility and replicability) remain a concern for many researchers and practitioners.

In 1977, Russell French identified 10 areas deserving consideration and attention. Although made years ago, the observations are still relevant:

1. Development of more adequate observational systems that are multidimensional, with systematic ways of applying several systems of the same raw data
2. Studies of racial, ethnic, and cultural differences in verbal and nonverbal behavior
3. Studies of interactions beyond the classroom
4. The influence of students on teachers and administrators
5. A longitudinal view of classroom and school interactions
6. A need for participant observations, lessening the reliance on outside observers
7. Identification of positive anthropological and sociological variations in the interactive process
8. Study of the relationships between cognitive and affective learning and verbal and nonverbal communication
9. Acquisition of additional data generated from existing observational systems
10. The relationship of communication to learning style

Some promising developments in the use of observation instruments within the context of examining mediating classroom processes, such as in reduced class size settings are a potential beginning in addressing concerns previously mentioned. More development and refinement need to be done.

EXAMINATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE BEHAVIOR AND OBSERVATIONAL STUDIES

A connected area (but not necessarily a direct one) to observation instruments is that of observational studies. Just as there have been interests in teacher behavior and a need to communicate that behavior in a meaningful way, the behavior of principals and other levels of administrators generated a need to organize the observational process. Debate has developed over the appropriateness and utility of structured versus unstructured approaches, with the former requiring formal instruments and the latter a more qualitative approach. A preference for the unstructured approach gained in popularity in the 1990s with the rise of improved qualitative methods. Implications of using observation instruments are interesting.

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<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Adams-Biddle</td>
<td>Sociology of the classroom</td>
<td>Structure of the classroom</td>
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<td>Flanders expanded system</td>
<td>Social-emotional climate</td>
<td>Teacher behavior</td>
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<tr>
<td>Galloway-French</td>
<td>Nonverbal teacher behavior</td>
<td>Verbal behavior that either enhances or restricts student communication</td>
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to studying current practice. In addition, action research can focus immediately on teacher-defined problems and requires teacher collaboration and professional discussion, two teacher growth activities shown to improve teaching processes and outcomes. Perhaps the emergence of action research as a school improvement approach and a form of professional development will lead to connecting research and practice, with a balance between quantitative and qualitative methods that eventually can connect student outcomes to teaching processes. The challenge for persons involved in classroom research and effectiveness to link teaching to student outcomes is not unique to this field, but rather seems to be a conundrum for similar areas within education.

**SUMMARY**

Improvement of practice is the bedrock of a strong profession. Improvement of practice needs to benefit the clients of the profession as well as the professional. Collegial observations can help a professional improve, but in the last analysis, classroom research and effectiveness will rest with each individual: Practice collegial observation and professional dialogue, reflect, practice the improvements, and repeat the process.

—Charles M. Achilles and Daniel Gutmore

**See also** behaviorism; child development theories; class size; climate, school; cognition, theories of; conditioning theory; curriculum, theories of; early childhood education; individual differences, in children; instructional interventions; leadership effectiveness; learning, theories of; literacy, theories of; philosophies of education; research methods; supervision; walk-throughs, of classrooms

**Further Readings and References**


### CLIMATE, SCHOOL

School climate can be defined as the conditions and shared perceptions of organizational variables thought to affect organizational functioning, such as teacher morale and principal leadership style. There have been two major strands of school climate research, beginning with the traditional strand focusing on organizational climate. The second came later and concentrated on school social climate.

Historical development of the first strand began in schools with observations by school administrators. They found that schools differed in terms of esprit de corps. H. Jerome Freiberg noted *The Management of a City School*, the 1908 book written by Arthur C. Perry, a school principal in Brooklyn, New York; esprit de corps, school climate, or school pride is not easily or quickly gained, but a tradition to be passed along through generations. Further development of this area of study progressed beyond observations gleaned from direct experience with schools to characterizing and measuring multiple dimensions of organizational climate through surveys.

A dominant idea in climate research is that climate is a gestalt, meaning that individual elements are formed into wholes that represent more than their individual components. Thus, organizational climate reflects perceived patterns in the experiences of organizational members. In education, the pioneering work of Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft sought to identify multiple dimensions of faculty group and leader characteristics that would generate the gestalt that was climate. In the 1960s, they developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), which included four subscales for the faculty
group: disengagement (lack of task involvement), hindrance (burdensome administrative duties), esprit (morale and sense of accomplishment), and intimacy (friendly social relations). Also included were four subscales for the principal as a leader: aloofness (principal acts formal and impersonal), production emphasis (supervises teachers closely), thrust (sets an example by working hard), and consideration (enhances teachers' welfare). Profiles based on these subtests generated six descriptive labels of climate, termed climate clusters or constellations. These constellations could be roughly arrayed on a continuum, with open and closed occupying the extreme ends and autonomous, controlled, familiar, and paternal the middle. An open climate, for example, featured high faculty esprit, low disengagement, and high principal consideration.

In the 1980s, researchers such as Laurence Iannaccone studying political phenomena in schools led to the notion that leaders' political aspirations needed to be included as part of climate. During this decade, Wayne Hoy and his colleagues undertook a substantial revision of Halpin and Croft's OCDQ. In 1986, Wayne Hoy and Sharon Clover developed and tested a revised instrument, which reformulated hindrance as a principal characteristic, terming it restrictive behavior. In addition, production emphasis was labeled directive behavior. These behaviors—imposing administrative requirements and exercising direct control over teachers' work—appeared to capture political dimensions of the principal's role. The previous aloofness subscale was omitted and the consideration subscale termed supportive behavior.

For teachers, a collegial subscale extended the concept of esprit from taking pleasure in working together and enjoying each other's company to having respect for each other's professional competence. This concept appeared to enhance teachers' professional role, perhaps linked to growing teacher unionism. Two earlier dimensions, intimacy and disengagement, remained. An open-closed continuum was proposed, with fewer climate constellations than Halpin and Croft (open, engaged, disengaged and closed). A revised instrument at the high school level also defined characteristics of principal and teacher behavior and an open-closed continuum. In the 1990s, Hoy and colleagues' work expanded to using an organizational health metaphor to study school climate. This work reflected developments in organizational theory at the time, which emphasized the organization's relationship with its environment. In an unhealthy climate, schools were vulnerable to debilitating outside forces and marked by ineffective leadership and low teacher morale.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the growing popularity of organizational culture research raised the question of the relationship between culture and climate. Culture and climate researchers come from different fields and employ different methodologies. Benjamin Schneider, a climate researcher in the general organizations field, maintained that some organizational culture researchers were somewhat dismissive about the contributions of climate research. For example, some culture researchers characterized climate research as focusing on the transient tone or mood of a setting, although most climate researchers view climate as a stable rather than transient phenomenon. Others used the terms climate and culture interchangeably. Schneider suggested that the concepts similarly emphasized ways organizational participants experience organizations. As a result, the concepts might be viewed as complementary and the strengths of the two perspectives combined.

The second major development in school climate research is the development of multidimensional assessments of students' social climate. These assessments seek to capture students' experiences in the classroom and whole school, encompassing such dimensions as teacher support of students, consistency and clarity of rules and expectations, and student commitment/achievement orientation. Research on student perceptions of whole-school climate has been published in educational psychology journals and book length treatments of school climate, such as Freiberg's 1999 volume, School Climate: Measuring, Improving, and Sustaining Healthy Learning Environments. Separate research on school effectiveness also draws a link between climate factors such as an orderly school environment and student cognitive, behavioral, and affective outcomes.

A large research base in education spanning several decades has resulted in many climate measures for use by school researchers and practitioners. Qualitative research techniques have been added to traditional quantitative surveys. Research on students' perceptions of whole-school climate is also expanding, using larger samples and more sophisticated quantitative analysis techniques such as hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). Schools have used climate data as tools for reflection, diagnosis, and change. Discussion of the uses of climate data suggests that although climate is viewed as stable in schools, it is also alterable.
Although much climate research has been conducted in the United States, an increase in international work in non-English-speaking countries will likely allow for more cross-national comparisons of climate.

—Sharon Conley

See also culture, school; esprit (school climate); esteem needs; ethos, of organizations; Halpin, Andrew William; human resource development; leadership styles; management theories; Maslow, Abraham; morale; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; surveys and survey results

Further Readings and References


Clinical Education

Clinical education refers to clinical, real-life, practice-based experiences provided as an integral component of professional licensing or certification. Clinical education is common with lawyers, doctors, nurses, counselors, teachers, and principals. In educational administration, clinical education is identified with the principal internship using off-campus activities.

These experiences are directed by university faculty and may be facilitated by campus-based mentors. Clinical education should be an integral part of all principal preservice courses leading up to school administration practice. Clinical education is made up of two elements: clinical education and field experience. The clinical education component involves the acquisition and practice of clinical skills. Field experiences provide the principal intern with the opportunities to apply these skills in the school environment.

Clinical education in educational administration uses the guidelines as outlined in the National Council of Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and as prepared by the National Policy Board of Educational Administration for the Educational Leadership Constituent Council. According to NCATE, the internship is the process and product of that result from applying in a workplace environment skills described in the NCATE manual. The internship outcome should be an exhibition of the skills and knowledge useful to practicing administrators. The ability to use standards-based knowledge and skills in practice is a critical aspect of preservice principal development. Ideally, the internship should be a yearlong experience or a semester-long experience with multiple extended problem-based field experiences.

FIELD-BASED EXPERIENCE OVERVIEW

The primary setting for preservice principal clinical education and field-based experience is in a school with the principal. Principal interns are assigned to assist with a variety of substantial in-school and in-district administrative activities, which are cooperatively planned and supervised by school district and university staff.

CLINICAL SUPERVISION

Clinical experiences are supervised by university clinical faculty and a trained campus-based principal mentor. The faculty guides the individual interns preparing for school leadership. Clinical supervisors should be readily accessible to students for ongoing feedback and guidance on a daily basis. Principal interns are observed on a weekly basis by the trained mentor. Interns have a regular opportunity to discuss actual situations and actions taken with the supervising mentor and the clinical faculty.
CLINICAL ACTIVITIES

Clinical activities include self-inventory and self-improvement plans, peer teams, reflection journals, principal interviews, principal-focused shadowing, and day-to-day internship activities. Self-inventory based on state and national standards provides a framework for organizing day-to-day internship activities as well as an evaluation of the intern’s knowledge, understanding, and practice of standards. Self-development inventories are available through the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Principal interviews are structured interviews designed to understand the principal’s professional and personal background and an opportunity to bond with the supervising principal. The second interview is focused on understanding more about the responsibilities of the principalship. Focused shadowing provides opportunities for interns to act as qualitative researchers by observing the supervising principal for 2 hours over a sequenced 2-week period, documenting the principal’s interactions, subjects of the interaction, content of interaction, and context of the interaction. Focused-shadowing activities provide an opportunity for the intern to identify the practice role of the principal. Intern peer teams are a component of monthly seminars conducted with interns, intern supervisors, and other practitioners.

—Augustina Reyes

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; chain of command; clinical supervision; conflict management; critical thinking; curriculum, theories of; division of labor; feedback; field theory; goals, goal setting; hierarchy, in organizations; human resource development; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; infrastructure, of organizations; internships; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; knowledge base, of the field; management by objectives; management information systems; management theories; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; open-door policy; organizational theories; personnel management; planning models; politics, of education; power; problem-based learning; professional development; rational organization theory; research methods; resource management; role conflict; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; scheduling, types of in schools; school improvement models; school plant management; site-based management

Further Readings and References


Clinical Supervision

Originating in the mid-1950s and early 1960s through the work of Morris Cogan and others at Harvard, clinical supervision emerged as a way to promote in-class supervision to assist teachers in improving instructional practices to enhance student learning through the use of data collected and analyzed jointly by the teacher and supervisor. The term clinical was used to distinguish general supervision from in-class supervision and to elevate the professional practice of supervision to include close observations, detailed observation data, face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and the teacher, and a focus that connects the two together in an intimate professional relationship.

The primary intent of clinical supervision is to promote teacher growth and development through inquiry and reflection on classroom practices, with the teacher taking an active role in the process of improvement. Clinical supervision has evolved from an eight-phase model to a three-phase model (see Table 1).

The linchpin of the original model and subsequent iterations is the cyclical nature of the preobservation conference, classroom observation, and the postobservation conference. The cyclical nature of the clinical model helps to ensure that data are used to inform practice for both the teacher and supervisor. The preobservation conference is the cornerstone for the observation, serves as a way to focus for the classroom observation, and helps to determine which data collection tools will yield data to help the teacher focus on practice during the postobservation conference. The preobservation conference provides an opportunity for the teacher to “talk through” teaching, while readying the supervisor for observation and understanding the context of the classroom, characteristics of students, classroom climate, teacher’s instructional style, subject familiarity, and other unique aspects.

During classroom observations, data collection techniques, wide and narrow angle, along with tools to record data enable supervisors to track teacher and
Table 1  The Phases of the Clinical Supervision Model

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<tr>
<th>Cogan</th>
<th>Goldhammer</th>
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student words (selective verbatim, verbal flow), behaviors (class traffic, at task), and interactions (interaction analysis). The intents of the postobservation conference are for the teacher and supervisor to review data collected in the observation related to the focus established in the preobservation conference and to develop a working plan for ongoing growth and development.

—Sally J. Zepeda

See also accountability; capacity building, of organizations; career development; career stages; clinical education; collaboration theory; conflict management; consideration, caring; creativity, in management; curriculum, theories of; division of labor; elementary schools; high schools; human capital; human resource development; innovation, in education; involvement, in organizations; leadership, theories of; leadership effectiveness; management theories; motivation, theories of; networking and network theory; organizational theories; personnel management; politics, of education; principalship; supervision

Further Readings and References


Walter Cocking (1891–1964) is considered to be the “Father of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration.” Cocking was editor of *The School Executive* (1944–1959), *Overview* (1960–1963), and *The American School and University* (1964). Three-hundred-fifty essays penned by Cocking appeared in these publications.

Cocking was born in Manchester, Iowa. He attended a one-room rural school, graduated from high school in Strawberry Point, Iowa, and from Des Moines College. He taught high school social studies and science for 1 year, and the following year, he was appointed superintendent of schools. He completed his master’s degree in school administration at the University of Iowa. Cocking was appointed Director of Junior High Schools for the San Antonio, Texas, School System. He then became director of curriculum, books, and supplies for the St. Louis, Missouri, School System. He completed his doctoral work at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Cocking was a professor of educational administration at Peabody College when he was asked to serve as Tennessee State Commissioner of Education. He then became Franklin D. Roosevelt’s Chief Specialist in School Administration on the Advisory Committee on Education.

From 1937 to 1941, he was Dean of the College of Education at the University of Georgia. Cocking was
dismissed by the Georgia Board of Regents for his support of integrated schools. Cocking’s dismissal was precipitated by the interventions of Georgia Governor Talmadge. Cocking was later reelected to the position; however, he did not return to the University of Georgia.

Among his other positions, Cocking was a consultant to the Tennessee Valley Authority, served with the Office of Price Administration as Chief of the Educational Services Branch, and with the Federal Security Agency.

Cocking was one of the leaders who met in 1947 at the American Association of School Administrators Convention in Atlantic City, where the possibility of a national meeting of professors of educational administration was proposed. The first meeting of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) was held in Endicott, New York, in August 1947. The Cooperative Program in Education Administration of the early 1950s, financed by the Kellogg Foundation, had its roots in NCPEA. NCPEA was identified as a factor in the development of the University Council for Educational Administration.

Cocking was instrumental in bringing school architects and educators together at an annual conference for the purpose of stimulating cooperative school plant planning and creative school plant design. He was a leader in establishing the “Competition for Better Schools Design.” Cocking was awarded honorary membership in the American Institute of Architects for his efforts.

During the 1950s, the American School Publishing Corporation, publishers of The School Executive, Overview, and American School and University, sponsored an internship program for men pursuing study and careers in educational administration. The 13 interns worked with Cocking as directors of research for the corporation. These interns later assumed prominent roles in educational administration.

Cocking’s publications, in addition to the many essays he wrote, included the following books: Administrative Procedures in Curriculum Making for Public Schools (1928), Organization of Administration of Public Education (1938) (with C. H. Gilmore), The Education of School Administrators (1940) (with K. R. Williams), Schools (1949) (with L. B. Perkins), The Regional Introduction of Educational Practice in Urban School Systems of the United States (1951), and As I See It (1955).

See also administration, theories of; desegregation, of schools; equality, in schools; internships; knowledge base, of the field; management theories; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; National Council of Professors of Educational Administration; school plant management; schools of education; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration

Further Readings and References


**COEDUCATION**

Single-sex schools for girls is a modern phenomenon as compared with all male schools and, later, schools for both genders. Coeducation is defined as the education of students of both sexes within the same institution. It was adopted earlier and more widely in the United States than in Europe, where the tradition of male-only education provided a greater obstacle.

**HISTORY**

During colonial times in the America, individual roles were generally divided along gender lines. Between the end of the Revolutionary War and the beginning of the Westward Expansion, discussion and analysis of gender roles began to occur. Calls were made for expanded women’s rights, including their education. These increased educational opportunities for women could thus be achieved in single-sex or coeducational settings.

Two models of coeducation developed. The single-sex or separate-spheres model proponents believed women should be taught differently than men since their societal roles were different. Consequently, they felt girls should be educated isolated from boys. Early in America’s history, the separate-spheres model was
dominant. The other model, called integrational equality, saw females as having educational needs similar to those of males, thus advocating coeducation.

There were scattered examples of coeducation until the late seventeenth century, but there was no general trend until the growth of public education itself during the early 1800s. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard championed the education of girls with boys in classroom. The Westward Expansion in America, with its great distances between settlements, compelled officials to include girls in elementary schools. This soon spread to secondary schools as girls advanced through the grades. The public schools began to change after the Civil War. European immigration created a large demand for teachers. Educated women were needed for these positions. A notable exception after the Civil War was in the South. Many single-sex, usually private schools, were for Whites only. By keeping the single-sex schools, Southern girls could be isolated from the allegedly negative influences of both boys and African Americans.

Oberlin College, in Ohio, was one of the first post-secondary institutions to become coeducational. Post-secondary coeducation grew considerably after World War II. Nearly all formerly single-sex postsecondary institutions are now coeducational. Examples of these include Texas A&M University, which was formerly all male and military. Today, the university admits women, and corps participation is not mandatory. Likewise, Texas Woman’s University, which originated as an all-female college, now has a sizable enrollment of male students. However, in the last 40 years, there has been a resurgence of single-sex schools (i.e., separate-sphere institutions). Proponents say they are necessary for academic equality.

ISSUES

Studies on single-sex versus coeducation high schools have been conducted in the United States, Great Britain, Greece, New Zealand, and other countries. There are equivocal results. Some studies show strong positive effects, others a moderate effect, while others show no significant differences.

Some consider it necessary to change aspects of coeducational schools to mirror the successful traits of single-sex schools. They deem single-sex schools as elitist and racist and question why the country is being divided educationally. Anita Davis, of Converse College, feels there are conspicuous differences in the way teachers respond to boys as opposed to girls. Kim Gandy, president of the National Organization for Women, agrees with both Davis and the American Association of University Women study, which credits smaller classes, greater resources, and increased numbers of female teachers as the cause of increases in academic achievement in single-sex schools. A recent report showed that 85% of science and math faculty at all women’s high schools are female, compared with 36% at coeducational facilities.

The U.S. Department of Education plans to interpret Title IX in a way to make it easier for public school districts to create single-sex classes and schools. The decision was implemented to increase the flexibility districts have to meet individual student needs. However, the Department of Education does not advocate single-sex schools, though it does require districts to treat males and females equally.

—Elaine L. Wilmore

See also character education; charter schools; child development theories; choice, of schools; discrimination; diversity; elementary education; equality, in schools; feminism and theories of leadership; gender studies, in educational leadership; group dynamics; high schools; individual differences, in children; learning environments; organizational theories; restructuring, of schools; sexism (glass ceiling)

Further Readings and References


COGNITION, THEORIES OF

As early as the 1950s, cognitive theory was proposed by early psychologists such as J. P. Guilford, who described cognition as the awareness of objects, qualities, and ideas. Jean Piaget’s thoughts on cognition depicted the
evolutionary and developmental processes that spanned from the first sensory-motor reactions through the formation of reflective thought. Piaget held that the behavior of the human organism begins with organization of sensory-motor reactions and increases in intelligence as coordination between reactions to objects becomes progressively more interrelated and complex. His first stage of cognitive development, the sensorimotor stage, involves the coordination of sense impressions and movements. During this stage, relationships between experience and action are established. At the first step of the stage, actions are focused on sensible organization of the perceptual field. During the second step, habits, or fixed ways of responding, are developed; the transition between basic habit and intelligence is completed during the third step, after vision and apprehension are coordinated. Piaget’s second stage, of concrete operations, involves the reflective grouping of objects in steps of (a) preconceptual symbolic thought established; (b) perception of unanalyzable wholes equals reality (intuitive); and (c) attainment of concrete operations, or the ability to think while manipulating objects and symbols. The third stage of conceptual thought, formal operations, involves the completion of reflective intelligences and formal thought, including causal reasoning.

By the end of the 1960s and into the 1970s, an emerging psychology of human cognition focused on mental structures and processes underlying both simple and complex performance. The study of individual differences focused on attained knowledge as well as cognitive processes that related to instruction, practice, and learning.

Research into the 1970s and 1980s focused on cognitive analysis of aptitude and intelligence and led to two complementary approaches to studying individual differences in cognitive ability: the cognitive correlates approach and the cognitive components approach. The cognitive correlates approach is best exemplified by Joseph McVicker Hunt and consisted of assessing relationships between performances on psychometric ability tests using standard laboratory information-processing tasks. The cognitive components approach sought to understand the components of performance underlying individuals’ selection of items used to assess intelligence and aptitude. The componental approach has been useful in modeling performance in domains such as spatial transformation domains that are process based rather than knowledge based.

By the 1990s, cognitive psychology and the study of individual differences had evolved and provided analyses of competence and expertise. These works include the metacognitive monitoring of A. L. Brown and A. S. Palinscar, self-explanation, and text comprehension.

More recent work has been instrumental in the field’s use of criteria such as consequences, fairness, transfer and generalizability, cognitive complexity, content quality, content coverage, and meaningfulness and efficiency in assessing cognition and learning. In this work, six categories of cognitive demands were identified: use of working memory, use of language and communication, metacognitive skills, application of prior knowledge and expectation, acquisition of new knowledge, and use of scientific process. In other works, cognitive activities were derived and included problem representation, monitoring, strategy, and explanation. In 1993, John Anderson described a three-stage process of cognitive skill acquisition involving structures and processes in working, declarative, and procedural memory.

Of all the depictions of cognition through the years, Hunt’s work in cognition is perhaps the most elegant. He sees the process of living as a continuous creation of increasingly complex structures of body, behavior, and thought. The creation of these structures is the result of interaction between the organism and the demands of the environment. Simultaneously, the organism is accommodating to the external environment by producing an inner organization of physical and mental reactions with the environment, and assimilating the environment by incorporating perceptions into inner structures. The focus of organization at one stage becomes incorporated into subsequent ones, and a hierarchical organization of symbolic representation and information-processing strategies results. Sensorimotor intelligence supports the coordination of successive perceptions of actual objects and overt movements and is egocentric and addressed primarily to achievement of immediate goals. Sensorimotor thought proceeds in the direction of actual events and is irreversible, whereas reflective thought can proceed in either direction, can reverse direction, and can deal with hypothetical possibilities. Sensorimotor thought is essentially private and egocentric, as compared with formal thought, which uses a universal language and logic of grouping and is communicable and generalized. At each stage, a variety of new competencies becomes available to the individual, so that, in the end, a great range of skills is possessed. These skills are based on a few basic operations, and these successive mental structures at once simplify the environment and open up an ever-widening circle of possibilities for grasping and controlling the world.
These successive organizations come into being through sequential processes that allow the ordering of complex concepts, the ability to master and interpret cognitive structures, and to construct and perform operations. In these operations, means and ends are not separated, for motivation is inherent in the perceiving and acting, and the ends and means are subtly and gradually differentiated. It is unnecessary to assume preexisting organic needs as stimulators of intellectual activity, according to Hunt, and curiosity may be simply a product of interest in novelty, which is derived from attempts to perpetuate and to repeat interesting experiences encountered while experimenting with new means to achieve ends. The whole process is a transaction between the individual and the nature of stimulation available. In order that these transactions are useful, there must be a match between the mental organization of the individual and the nature of stimulation.

—Billie G. Blair

See also brain research and practice; egocentrism, theories of; intelligence; Maslow, Abraham; metacognition; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; Piaget, Jean; psychology, types of; psychometrics; Thorndike, Edward

Further Readings and References


**COGNITIVE DISSONANCE**

When a person encounters a situation, concept, or point of view that seems inconsonant with his or her own attitudes, a common consequence is cognitive dissonance, which results in feelings of discomfort, uncertainty, dislike for the dissonant situation, and a desire to resolve that discomfort. The usual way to resolve that dissonance is to try to avoid contact with dissonant stimuli by selective exposure to opportunities that might induce feelings of disquiet. Failing to avoid contact with cognitively negative elements in the environment, the process of selective perception makes it possible to ignore, or compartmentalize, the negative feelings by selecting to be attentive to available stimuli that are consistent with the person’s attitudes, beliefs, and values and failing to perceive incongruent stimuli that might produce value conflict or dissonance. The cognitive structure already in place within someone’s personality and personal history thereby interacts with the outside world. The term *perceptual screening* is used to refer to the process by which reality is shaped by cognitive structure.

Cognitive dissonance theory is particularly useful in attempting to understand why people may change their behavior from their norm. For example, when a lower-income voter supports economic policies of an administration that are designed to benefit the wealthy, simple logic would suggest that the behavior is inconsistent. A closer examination of the voter’s motivations might reveal that she was inclined to vote for the candidate opposing her economic interests because that candidate supported the No Child Left Behind legislation, opposed abortion, or favored the death penalty. What she has done is to rationalize the obvious gap between her economic self-interests and her vote choice by overlaying and overcoming that dissonance by focusing on other valence objects on which she may have had more intensely held opinions.

Leon Festinger is credited with developing theories of cognitive dissonance that today have widespread applications in psychology, sociology, political science, public administration, education, and other disciplines with a strong component of cognitive science. Dissonance occurs when a contradiction arises between behavior and attitudes. How severe the dissonance is perceived to be, the ability to find a way around the dissonance, and whether support groups are available to sustain the opinions that create the dissonance are important in determining whether opinions change in response to perceived need to resolve the dissonance. Leon Festinger, Henry Riecken, and Stanly Schachter’s study of a chiliastic and apocalyptic cult allegedly in contact with aliens from outer space that falsely predicted the end of the world and the second coming of a messiah has been replicated in subsequent studies of other unfulfilled prophecies showing that support for the cult often strengthened, with its members becoming even
more convinced that their beliefs were fundamentally true and that their actions were righteous.

This and an abundant companion literature lead to an emphasis on the study of how deeply held convictions, frequently contradicting common logic in the face of disconfirmation, can affect human history. In a twentieth century riven by ideological conflict and mass slaughter in global wars and innumerable smaller conflicts, culminating in an end-of-the-millennium burst of religious fervor, such perspectives resonate in efforts to understand the nature and limits of rational decision making in education and many other aspects of policy and administration when confronted with individual and mass belief systems.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also attitudes; brain research and practice; cognitive styles; creationism; decision making; egocentrism, theories of; ethnocentrism; fundamentalism; intelligence: Maslow, Abraham; metacognition; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; personality; Piaget, Jean; psychology, types of; psychometrics; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education

Further Readings and References


COGNITIVE STYLES

Cognitive styles have been described by some researchers as rather consistent differences between individuals in the way they organize and process information and life experiences. They represent stable attitudes, individual preferences, and/or habitual strategies that determine a person’s “typical” mode of seeing, remembering, thinking, and solving problems. Cognitive styles describe the representative ways that individuals process information. Elements of style were already the objects of research before the end of the nineteenth century, much of it preoccupied with finding one perceptual mode that would best improve learning and/or retention.

Research on cognitive styles expanded after World War II at Brooklyn College, the Menninger Foundation, and the Fels Institute. Herman A. Witkin and his colleagues at Brooklyn College developed the bipolar trait of “field dependence-independence,” the ability to identify a figure against a complicated background field, which was found to be correlated with analytic versus global functioning. Riley Gardner, Philip S. Holtzman, and others at the Menninger Foundation focused on style as a complex of cognitive “controls” that coexist in each individual. They called these combinations of controls cognitive styles. Jerome Kagan and his associates at the Fels Institute studied a reflection impulsivity dimension in which the reflective person tended to be more analytic and the impulsive person tended to quick and often erroneous responses.

Cognitive styles are related to intellectual abilities but differ from them in several ways. Abilities deal with the content of cognition, that is, what kind of information is being processed by what operation in what form? Styles are concerned with the process of cognition, that is, how information is being processed and organized. Abilities measure innate capacities and are value directional—more ability is better than less. Styles are concerned with the manner or preferences of performance and are value differentiated. Opposite styles can have adaptive value in differing circumstances.

Research on cognitive style broadened after 1960. Samuel Messick, in 1976, listed more than 20 dimensions of cognitive style derived from research. Reception styles, concerned with the perception and analysis of data, include such elements as perceptual modality preferences (kinesthetic, visual, and auditory), field independence versus dependence, and scanning (how individuals deploy attention). Concept formation and retention styles include such elements as conceptual tempo (reflection vs. impulsivity), breadth of categorizing (preference for broad vs. narrow conceptual categories), and leveling versus sharpening (individual variations in memory processing).

Several researchers have shown that cognitive style can be modified. For example, young children placed with teachers who exhibit a reflective style become more reflective during the course of the year. Charles Letteri designed his “Cognitive Profile” to measure seven dimensions of cognitive style as the basis for clinical “augmentation” activities to improve learner processing and organizing skills. The Learning Style Profile was developed by a National Association of
Secondary School Principal’s task force to assess 24 style elements, including eight cognitive processing skills, and to better organize instruction. Several bidimensional models of cognitive style also exist, such as the Gregorc Style Delineator and the Kolb Learning Style Inventory, which generate four combinations of cognitive style preference as the basis for matching styles with instruction.

—James W. Keefe

See also at-risk students; brain research and practice; child development theories; cognition, theories of; conceptual systems theory and leadership; critical thinking; instructional interventions; intelligence; Jung, Carl; learning, theories of; learning environments; locus of control; metacognition; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; personality; Piaget, Jean; problem solving; psychology, types of; psychometrics; research methods; testing and test theory development; trait theory; underachievers, in schools; validity and reliability; variables

Further Readings and References


COHORTS

In the broadest sense, a cohort is a group of individuals who share an experience. In the context of educational administration, a cohort is a group of students who experience an educational program together over a period of time. Cohorts are often created as an administrative convenience that allows educational programs and the resources that support them to be managed in predictable and more efficient ways. In higher education, for example, where it can be difficult to project the number of students who will be enrolled in courses over several semesters, creating a cohort of students who will begin the program together, progress through a series of courses in a prescribed order, and complete the program at the same time allows program administrators to accurately project course enrollments throughout the life of the program.

The preparation of school leaders has attracted cyclical scrutiny over the years, and the reforms of the 1990s brought new standards for school leaders, new and restructured programs, shifts in instructional strategies, and new licensure exams. At the same time, the concept of cohort models was resurrected. The most obvious effect was that managing student enrollment by organizing students into cohort groups made it easier to manage student enrollment, faculty assignments, and other resources. In addition, many viewed cohorts as an instructional opportunity that was an important key to improved program quality and the effectiveness of graduates in the field.

When cohorts are used to build and support relationships among students and faculty, it has been possible to enhance learning and foster professional networking and to develop the skills needed to create and support learning communities in their own schools.

CHARACTERISTICS OF COHORTS

Cohorts are familiar structures in professional training. They allow students to support each other through challenging programs and encourage the development of long-term professional networks. When certain prerequisites and program components are in place, the use of cohorts in preparation programs for school leaders is expected to achieve both professional and personal outcomes for students.

PREREQUISITES FOR THE COHORT EXPERIENCE

When students made a conscious choice to enroll in a cohort program, as opposed to a program that would allow individual choices of courses and schedule, they are more likely to look forward to the cohort experience and less likely to be surprised by the constraints. In addition, when students demonstrate a readiness for the cohort experience, they tend to be more willing to engage in collaborative learning activities and accept responsibility for their contributions. Not only is student readiness for the cohort experience helpful, but faculty must be ready as well. Once the administrative structures for managing student enrollment and course sequence are in place, the program design must
include relevant content, collaborative instructional strategies that build relationships in addition to knowledge and skills, and faculty commitment to identify and respond to student needs.

QUALITIES OF THE COHORT EXPERIENCE
To achieve more than administrative efficiency, the cohort experience must include relevant assignments, group interaction and collaborative assignments, an emphasis on relationships and team building, reflective practice, and opportunities to apply new learning in the field. Researchers have noted that cohort models supported the needs of adult learners. Others have highlighted the importance of the shared history that developed among cohort members.

Certain interpersonal dynamics and instructional strategies were also associated with the effective use of cohorts. Individual and group learning activities, reflection, and social involvement beyond the classroom were commonly used. Fran Kochan found problem-based learning, reflective journaling, collaborative projects, self- and peer assessments, games and simulations, action research, and applied research activities to be nicely aligned with the cohort model.

EXPECTED OUTCOMES OF THE COHORT EXPERIENCE
A number of positive outcomes are associated with the use of cohort models. Cohesiveness and mutual support helped individuals persist in their graduate work despite competing personal and professional responsibilities.

DISADVANTAGES OF THE COHORT MODEL
While there is little doubt that cohorts are effective in meeting the need for administrative efficiency by allowing administrators to project student movement through programs, sequencing of courses, and the use of faculty and other resources to support them, there are some disadvantages of the use of cohorts. Cohort scheduling is less adaptable to individual student needs, and not all faculty and students are comfortable with the interpersonal dynamics. Interpersonal conflicts, cliques, and other negative dynamics sometimes emerge, and the intensity of the cohort experience can become uncomfortable for some people.

Some researchers have cautioned that students who are products of traditional educational systems that have emphasized individual learning as defined and controlled by an authority figure must unlearn individualism and learn collaboration. Cohorts require appropriate strategies by faculty, including planning, monitoring, support for the individual students and the group as a whole, and the willingness to take on new roles. Other researchers have observed that the cohort structure allowed professional learning communities to develop as both students and faculty members served as teachers and learners, but not all faculty members are comfortable in that dual role. Cohorts develop a group memory due to their shared history and become powerful groups in a brief period of time, further shifting traditional relationships with faculty and administration.

Just as effective cohorts seldom emerge by accident, simply stating that the only purpose for implementing a cohort model is to increase administrative efficiency for the school leadership preparation program does not insulate faculty from challenging new interpersonal relationships with and among students. The emerging power of the group ensures that student views and concerns are expressed whether or not the faculty want to hear them.

SUMMARY
Sound instructional strategies are important regardless of the way students are grouped for course delivery. The use of cohorts in preparation programs for school leaders allows the university to manage the program and its resources more efficiently. In addition, when faculty and students are ready for a stronger emphasis on collaborative learning and relationship building, cohorts have the potential to become learning communities that serve as models for building relationships and teams in the school setting.

—Sandra Seay, Penny Laing, and Lynn K. Bradshaw

See also accreditation; administration, theories of; adult education; career stages; human resource development; internships; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; National Council of Professors of Educational Administration; schools of education; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration

Further Readings and References


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COLEMAN, JAMES

An American sociologist, James S. Coleman (1926–1995) earned a doctor of philosophy degree from Columbia University in 1955 and is considered one of the most significant academic figures in education policy making over the last several decades. His sociological research ranged over a number of topics, from social capital to adolescent behavior. His three most significant bodies of research which have contributed most to the education debate are *Equality of Educational Opportunity*, also known as the “Coleman Report”; the study of school busing and White flight in the 1970s; and the research in the 1980s on the advantages of private schools. In a career spanning over 35 years, he authored 30 books and many articles, which collectively have had significant influence on policymakers’ and researchers’ understanding of American education. Coleman initially achieved recognition with two studies on problem solving: *An Introduction to Mathematical Sociology* (1964) and *Mathematics of Collective Action* (1973).

While teaching at Johns Hopkins University in the 1960s, Coleman chaired the commission that published *Equality of Educational Opportunity* in 1966. This study investigated the assumptions that funding differences between Black and White schools would be significant and that these differences would explain the unequal achievement between African American and Anglo students. The Coleman report’s findings were surprising in that it found that the funding differences between schools attended by African American children and those attended by Anglo children were smaller than originally assumed. A second unexpected finding indicated that funding was not closely related to achievement, but instead that student success was more closely related to family socioeconomic status. Another significant finding, and the one used by policymakers to justify the U.S. government’s desegregation policies of the next two decades, also implied that school characteristics were not the strongest predictor of student success. His findings suggested that going to school with middle-class peers provided students with a greater learning advantage than dollars spent on instruction, and that the influence appeared the greatest on students from disadvantaged backgrounds.

This study is considered by some as controversial, and others believe it was poorly designed, the latter point suggesting the findings to be suspect. Even so, the Coleman report began the redefinition of equal educational opportunity by placing policymakers’ focus on student achievement as the primary measure of quality as opposed to quality being defined as a measure of equal inputs—equal spending, equal teachers, and equal facilities. Coleman argued that the study established an important precedent for much educational research that followed. Also, results of the study influenced the formation of school desegregation policy.

Coleman’s work has consistently challenged conventional wisdom especially with regard to schooling as the key remedy for inequalities in social and economic opportunity. In addition, his work has served as a foundation for researchers to better understand what it is about schools, schooling and home-community-school relationships that can make a difference for students. Coleman’s greatest contribution to education is his mobilization of the sociological profession to study education.

—Noe Sauceda
See also achievement tests; at-risk students; behaviorism; Black education; bureaucracy; children and families in America; class size; cost-benefit analyses; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; diversity; early childhood education; elementary schools; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; factor analysis; high schools; immigration, history and impact in education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; Latinos; management, theories; minorities, in schools; social capital

Further Readings and References


**COLLABORATION THEORY**

Collaboration in education represents a shift in the governance of schools from a hierarchical, bureaucratic model to a community configuration based on the assumption that increased participation from stakeholders in decision making can improve schools and facilitate instructional improvement specifically. Educators have responded to the continuing call for collaborative governance with a variety of efforts, all deemed collaborative: site-based decision making, teacher teams, school advisory councils, school-university partnerships, and interagency collaboration. Often a shared definition of collaboration is assumed by participants, with little discussion of either the concept or the process. This unarticulated, assumed understanding of the collaborative process engenders a potential for failure in the implementation of collaborative governance that can perplex participants and educational leaders.

Definitions and descriptions of the collaborative process from fields such as health care, business, and government are synthesized here to explicate the concept of collaboration. Based on the use of the term collaboration in a variety of settings, the following interdisciplinary definition was derived: Collaboration is the interaction of stakeholders with shared language and values, taking action toward collective goals. The term stakeholders includes anyone who has an interest in or who would be affected by collaborative action. In education, stakeholders can include parents, teachers, students, political activists, community leaders, school leaders, district administrators, legislators, law enforcement officials, social workers, health-care providers, and others with educational concerns or interests.

Many praise collaborative governance and use the term synonymously with building community in schools. They have suggested that effective collaboration is that which provokes meaningful and productive discourse to empower all, while simultaneously protecting individual efficacy, and they further contend that shared norms and values are essential to building a collaborative community. Other studies also highlight the role of dialogue and shared understanding as a foundation of a collaborative school community. Scholars emphasize the importance of dialogue as a way of not only doing similar work together but also understanding the work of one another. This collaborative community sets implicit standards for authenticity and respect in group behavior and interaction and creates a shared language and purpose among participants that facilitates collective efforts to improve student learning.

**THE COLLABORATIVE PROCESS**

Effective collaboration includes the participation of those who hold a “stake” in the outcome of the process. At the outset of a collaborative effort, stakeholders are often broadly defined, or participation may be all volunteer. Collaboration is often conceived by a core of concerned educators who functioned as an organizing team for bringing stakeholders together and initiating dialogue among representatives of a variety of interests, agencies, and political constituencies, including public and higher education, business, government agencies, or the community. This inclusive approach sets the stage for continued dialogue and establishing incentives for participation among the various organizations represented as stakeholders.

As stakeholders continue to meet, they begin to formally articulate shared vision and purposes through methods allowing everyone to have a voice, and then synthesize the voices into common themes and an agenda for action. Themes often center on imperatives...
for action around a particular shared need or student learning initiative. During the process of clarifying shared needs, the participation of stakeholders may vary. Ultimately, those stakeholders with goals most closely aligned to the shared goals remain active in the collaborative endeavor, while participation of others may wane. This coalescing process indicates the level of commitment to shared goals and the willingness of specific stakeholders to direct resources, both human and fiscal, to achieving the shared purposes. The actual work of collaboratives can be classified into at least six components of action: gathering and dissemination of data describing the shared issue or initiative; exploration of shared expectations and solutions, training, or professional development for achieving shared purposes; creating a viable plan for achieving shared purposes; coordinating human and financial resources; and assessing collaborative outcomes. The degree to which the goals of individual stakeholders and the organizations/constituencies that they represent are congruous with the group’s shared goals and purposes is an indicator of the potential success of the collaboration.

CONDITIONS THAT SUPPORT COLLABORATION

Organizational characteristics as well as previously existing norms, rules, and organizational scripts often hinder individual and collective participation in collaborative ventures unless collaboration is supported from within. Implementation of certain conditions in school settings can provide opportunities for collaboration that would not otherwise exist. Collaboration in the governance of education would have little chance of flourishing without the ongoing presence of these five sustaining conditions. An overt statement of encouragement and support from an administrator backed with offers of additional support facilitates collaboration. Incentives and rewards, such as recognition and promotion, further enhance participation in collaboration.

- Formal acknowledgment of cooperative efforts as integral to the work of an organization shifts perceptions of what constitutes legitimate work of an educational organization. When collaboration is formally included as an educational goal, then more time, money, and human resources are dedicated to that activity.

- Consensus is built around shared goals and vision. Inviting discourse on overriding educational issues helps coalesce like-minded people toward collective, coordinated action.

- Structures are established for facilitating ongoing dialogue and communication. Structures such as teacher teams, site-based decision-making committees, and related professional development structures are important to ongoing collaboration.

Forums for collaboration become institutionalized and customary. As communication structures emerge, the potentially illusive structures emerge, and institutionalization of such structures ensures continuation of the collaborative process. In other words, ongoing communication, dialogue, and decision making through these structures becomes the norm rather than the exception. Regularly gathering evidence of successfully achieving shared goals and celebrating these successes further strengthens the context for supporting collaboration.

Some researchers urge educators to identify the features of the school organization that facilitate or hinder the collaborative efforts needed for instructional effectiveness. For example, one element of traditional school structure, the culture of teacher isolation and autonomy, has been cited as a major hindrance to improving practice and is often a formidable obstacle to teacher collaboration. A critical question, then, in implementing collaboration within the school is whether or not certain organizational conditions are present to nurture and sustain those efforts.

EFFECTIVE COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP

Quality leadership is essential for success of collaborative efforts that shift the focus and culture of organizations. Such changes in the governance of schools require corresponding shifts in thinking about school leadership. The conditions described above can be created and supported by educational leaders who are aware that imposing collaboration is ineffective and inauthentic and may hinder communication and trust. Creating and sustaining conditions for authentic collaboration in schools is accomplished through leaders with specific behaviors and attitudes that break from traditional views of an administrator as manager. Successful leadership of collaborative governance is characterized by five behaviors:
1. Educational leaders intentionally and knowledgeably create conditions and opportunities that invite collaboration.

2. Educational leaders actively restructure how educators and other participants think about decision making, curriculum planning, and related issues.

3. Educational leaders consciously build consensus in communities around shared values.

4. Educational leaders intentionally share responsibility for education with stakeholders.

5. Educational leaders view their role as facilitators of others and act on the belief that all stakeholders share the goal of quality education for students.

Often collaboration requires a leader to make major shifts in traditional thought that accept letting collaboration happen rather than actively facilitating the development of collaborative elements and support. Implementing collaborative governance requires informed and intentional action from both leaders and participants. In turn, this shift to collaborative governance implies corresponding changes to the preparation of school leaders and teachers. Collaboration in school governance as an element of the curriculum and experiential elements of preparation programs is becoming more common, yet learning to collaborate does not lend itself well to paper-and-pencil activities. Understanding collaboration emerges from experiencing it, and knowing how to implement collaboration develops from observation and practice in the process.

—Janice R. Fauske

See also administration, theories of; capacity building, of organizations; chain of command; conflict management; decentralization/centralization controversy; decision making; diversity; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; group dynamics; hierarchy, in organizations; human resource development; infrastructure, of organizations; involvement, in organizations; leadership, participatory; line and staff concept; management theories; mentoring; motivation, theories of; networking and network theory; organizational theories; personnel management; power; problem solving; role conflict; site-based management; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References


COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Public education is the most heavily unionized occupation in the United States. The National Education Association (NEA), the nation’s largest teachers union, has about 2.5 million members, about 2 million of whom are K–12 teachers. The American Federation of Teachers (AFT), the second-largest teachers union, has about 1 million members, and about half of these members are classroom teachers.

NEA and AFT grew from different traditions, which initially shaped their approach to unionization and collective bargaining. In its early years, NEA was considered a professional organization and was not dominated by classroom teachers. Rather, its leadership tended to be superintendents, college presidents,
and college professors. In contrast, AFT, from its inception, has seen itself as a teachers union.

The emergence of AFT in the 1960s forced NEA to shift its focus more strongly toward teachers’ interests. Today, differences between the nation’s two largest unions have faded, and both AFT and NEA now clearly see themselves as advocates and representatives of classroom teachers and as unions.

In recent years, both major teachers unions have become powerful participants in the nation’s educational policy debates, where they make their voices heard regarding the interests and educational practice. Teacher unions are now major players in American educational policy and practice. At the same time, as unions have gained influence over public education, the education reform movement has grown and intensified. Questions have now arisen with regard to whether teachers unions can be effective promoters of educational reform while maintaining their traditional role as assertive advocates on the bread-and-butter issues important to their members.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND PUBLIC EDUCATION: THE CONTEXT

All unions exist primarily to protect and enhance the social and economic welfare of their members, and this truism certainly applies to the teachers unions. Teachers unions advance their members’ interests chiefly through bargaining collectively with school districts. Prior to the emergence of collective bargaining in the public schools, teachers were largely powerless to improve their working conditions or their economic status.

Private sector workers gained the right to organize and bargain collectively with their employers in 1935, with the passage of the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA). The NLRA did not apply to public sector workers, however. In 1959, Wisconsin became the first state to enact a collective-bargaining law for public sector employees; but the watershed event may be the teacher collective-bargaining agreement that was signed in New York City in 1961. From this beginning, collective bargaining for public school teachers eventually spread to approximately two thirds of the states. In fact, with the exception of Texas, all states with significant urban populations authorize collective bargaining between school systems and the teachers unions.

In all states that have adopted collective bargaining in the public education sector, state law governs the relationship between teachers unions and school districts. These laws differ somewhat from state to state, but in general, they require school districts to bargain in good faith with the teachers’ exclusive representative over teachers’ wages and benefits and other terms and conditions of employment. In many states, school districts bargain collectively with other employee groups as well, including bus drivers, clerical workers, custodians, and principals.

Most, if not all states preclude elected school boards from bargaining educational policies with the unions. This does not mean that unions cannot influence school boards’ policy decisions; rather, a union cannot compel a school board to abdicate its legal responsibility to set educational policy or delegate that responsibility to the teachers union. As the New Jersey Supreme Court explained in Ridgefield Park Education Association v. Ridgefield Park Board of Education (1978), citizen participation must not be precluded from decisions of significant government policy matters, lest the foundation of representative democracy be threatened.

Of course, it is sometimes difficult to differentiate between what constitutes a nonbargainable policy responsibility and what is properly labeled as a mandatory topic for negotiation at the collective bargaining table. Typically, however, school districts are required to bargain with their unions over matters pertaining to teachers’ economic well-being.

In collective bargaining, the union bargaining team and the school district’s bargaining team are obligated to meet in good faith to exchange proposals and counterproposals with the aim of arriving at a mutually agreed-upon contract. Once a contract has been agreed upon, it becomes legally binding on both parties.

Collective bargaining agreements commonly contain a grievance procedure whereby the teachers’ union can challenge what it perceives to be contract violations on the part of the school district. Usually, the grievance process begins with an informal effort to resolve a dispute over contract interpretation, with the matter ending in binding or advisory arbitration if not otherwise resolved. An arbitrator’s decision reached after binding arbitration comes to the courts with a heavy presumption in its favor.

The whole process of collective bargaining with its provisions for dispute resolution outside the courts is designed to achieve labor peace. Unfortunately,
however, collective bargaining is a system for attaining agreement when trust is low. And though the vast majority of collective bargaining agreements between school districts and unions are settled amicably, the very nature of the collective-bargaining process tends to define the two parties as adversaries.

THE IMPACT OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING ON THE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

As collective bargaining in American public education nears its 50th year, it is clear that the collective-bargaining process has impacted the school environment in several important ways. First, collective bargaining has contributed to making the relationship between teachers and school boards become more formal. The union contract has substituted a written and enforceable document for the informal understandings that had once existed between teachers and administrators.

Second, because the union contract applies equally to all teachers in all schools within the school district, contracts tend to produce more standardized work environments. The standardized work environment envisioned in a contract fails to capture the ethos of the education profession, the complexity of teaching, or the need for some autonomy in the classroom in order to respond to the needs of students. Collegiality and pedagogical technique do not bend easily into the strictures of contract language.

Third, collective bargaining has tended to bolster a trend toward centralized decision making by administrators because the union contract must be administered uniformly throughout the school district. Site-based decision making, a movement to devolve decision-making authority to the school level, has countered this trend to a certain extent, but often both the union and the school board see their interests being best served through insistence on a uniform application of the collective-bargaining contract in every school in the district.

CHALLENGES TO THE COLLECTIVE-BARGAINING MODEL IN THE SCHOOLS

While public sector bargaining is now firmly ensconced in American public education, the concept has been criticized for essentially adopting an industrial model of labor relations to a work sector where employees are generally considered to be professionals. When public sector collective-bargaining laws were passed, they were tailored after laws adopted for the industrial sector, where unionized employees worked in trades such as truck driving, auto manufacturing, and coal mining. The procedures for conflict resolution, the definition of management and labor, and their respective rights were all borrowed, in many cases word for word, from the private labor sector, which embraced the industrial model.

The adoption of the industrial model of collective bargaining to the public sector has had major consequences for public education. Specifically, public sector collective-bargaining laws transplanted the industrial labor model—a model that institutionalizes conflict between parties—into a profession that needs collegiality and collaboration. Industrial unionism adopts an us-versus-them mind-set and assumes and acts upon the proposition that labor and management (teachers and administrators) are permanent adversaries.

In the current environment of school reform, the conflict between an industrial model of labor relationships and an increased appreciation for the role of teachers as professionals has created a certain amount of tension in the teaching profession. Unionism is predicated upon the self-interest of management and labor, while professionalism is predicated upon service to another. Both roles are legitimate, but at times they may be contradictory.

Can teacher unions move from an industrial labor model, which often calls for the defense of its least-competent members, to a professional model, which seeks to protect the public from incompetence in its rank? Historically, professionalism has been defined in ways that are detrimental to union organization.

Research by Todd DeMitchell and Casey Cobb in 2003 revealed that 81.4% of the teachers in a national survey agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that they were better off as a professional with a union contract. Yet 62.8% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that quality teaching could be standardized into a contract. Another question in the survey underscored the conundrum that unions face when they try to push for greater professionalism. The question asked whether unions pursue bread-and-butter issues such as wages, benefits, and security over professional issues. Sixty-seven percent agreed with the statement. Yet a 1988 RAND study found that union efforts to obtain status benefits, such as increased participation in school site decision making, often engendered teacher suspicion and a feeling that the union was falling down on the job.
These studies raise the important question of whether the route to professionalism in education runs through the collective-bargaining table.

**THE FUTURE OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING**

Collective bargaining in public education is here for the foreseeable future. Most people agree that teachers have a legitimate right to pursue their economic self-interest through collective bargaining. At the same time, the union faces the challenge of securing the self-interest of its members while moving the teaching occupation toward greater professional standing.

School boards and teachers should recognize that conflicts of interest between teachers as workers and school boards as managers are real and that both parties have legitimate interests. Nevertheless, it is important for both parties to search for an expanded community of interest. School leaders must avoid knee-jerk management-style reactions to union demands. They must be neither intimidated nor unduly confrontational. For their part, teachers should recognize that pursuing their economic self-interest through collective bargaining requires a base level of collegiality between school administrators and teachers and that the confrontational nature that is often typical of the relationship between manufacturing companies and blue-collar workers is inappropriate in the public education sector. Whether collective bargaining in public education can evolve in such a way that teachers unions can be adversaries of school boards on economic issues while being partners with boards on educational issues still remains to be seen.

—Todd A. DeMitchell and Richard Fossey

See also administration, theories of; American Federation of Teachers; boards of education; Chicago school reform; collaboration theory; contracts, with teacher unions; decision making; elections, of school boards, bond issues; fringe benefits; governance; just cause; management theories; merit pay; National Education Association; reduction in force; salary and salary models; staffing, concepts of; unions, of teachers; working conditions, in schools

**Further Readings and References**


**COMER SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM**

In 1963 and 1964, researchers at the Yale Child Study Center sought to examine the problems of children who were being excluded from society’s social and economic mainstream. They concluded that schools were the “natural” place to both help and study children. At this time, the Ford Foundation was actively supporting projects nationwide that utilized the resources of universities to support public education. Researchers from the Yale Child Study Center developed their program at the suggestion of Douglas Ferguson, a project officer with the Ford Foundation.

Dr. Albert Solnit, director of Special Projects for the Yale Child Study Center, and Samuel Nash, director of Special Projects for the New Haven System, wrote a formal proposal to begin the study. The Ford Foundation accepted the proposal during the 1967–1968 academic year. During this time, officials at Yale and with the New Haven Schools discussed and refined their conception of the study’s guiding philosophy.
methodology, and organization. Dr. James P. Comer, who was completing his child psychiatry training in Washington, D.C., returned to New Haven in 1968 to help direct the fledgling program. The basic premise of the program was that the application of the principles of social and behavioral science to every aspect of the school’s program would improve the school’s climate by fostering improved relationships among those involved with the school’s operation. In addition, researchers hoped that the application of these principles would foster a significant leap in the academic and social growth of the school’s students.

Researchers selected Baldwin (K–6) and King (K–4) elementary schools in New Haven as the first research sites. Ninety-five percent of Baldwin’s 360 students and King’s 270 students were from lower- and middle-income families. Student records revealed that 98% or more of the students in both schools were African American. Both schools reported low academic achievement, serious behavior problems, and poor attendance among their student bodies. Parents and staff at Baldwin and King suffered from low morale and were clearly frustrated with the conditions surrounding the schools’ existence.

Comer’s team emphasized analyzing the school as a system in order to understand the complex interactions occurring within this system. Using paradigms from the fields of child psychiatry and public health, Comer designed the School Development Program to allow parents, teachers, administrators, and staff to understand each other’s needs and to then cooperate with one another in addressing those needs in an integrated and organized fashion. His early efforts forced Comer to realize that teachers, administrators, and parents rarely accept reform movements without opposition.

There are three guiding principles in the School Development Program that drive the decision-making process between all parties involved: consensus, collaboration and no-fault. The concept of consensus discourages the idea of voting on particular issues of concern. Collaboration encourages inclusion and respect among all members of the school development community. The no-fault principle discourages the assignment of blame for the problems within any given school and requires the examination of problems from such a viewpoint that everyone shares equal responsibility for positive change.

This decision-making process fortifies the foundation of the program, which is focused on the following three team operational mechanisms: the School Planning and Management Team (SPMT), the Parent Team (PT), and the Student and Staff Support Team (SSST). The primary mechanism of the SDP is the School Planning and Management Team (SPMT). The SPMT coordinates all school activities and is the school’s central organizing committee. Usually led by the principal, the SPMT comprises parents, teachers, and staff. Its purpose is to balance input and representation from the entire school community. The major function of SPMT is to create and implement a Comprehensive School Plan that reflects the goals of the school community in terms of academics, social climate, and staff development.

The Parent Team (PT) seeks to involve parents at every level of school life in order to foster a stronger link between home and school. At the most basic level, parents participate in support activities such as the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and attend other school activities and social events. At the second level, parents are physically present in the schools, serving as volunteers or paid assistants in classrooms, libraries, cafeterias, or in other rooms as needed. At the third level, parents select other parents to be representatives on the SPMT. The PT is an important aspect of the SDP because it empowers parents through participation in the schoolwide decision-making process.

The Student and Staff Support Team (SSST) addresses both macro- and microlevel issues dealing with school climate and the psychosocial development of the students. The SSST includes staff, professionals, child development, and mental health professionals. These include the guidance counselor, school psychologist, school nurse, speech therapist, truant officer, and any other professionals deemed appropriate. The SSST attempts to work “preventively and prescriptively” in addressing the concerns of individual students and the school community as a whole.

Central to the functioning of these three mechanisms is an emphasis on understanding child development. Comer recognized early on that dissonance between school and home would adversely affect student behavior and academic achievement. He felt that the key to reducing dissonance was to emphasize the proper development of the individual child. Thus, child development is a central component of the Comer Process. There are six developmental pathways: the physical, cognitive, psychological, language, social, and ethical dimensions of child development.

—William Malloy
Three main theories were identified in the research of organizational behavior: scientific management, human relations, and systems theory. The scientific management theory initiated by Frederick Taylor viewed workers as extensions of their machines, motivated by economic incentives, with emphasis on vertical communication flow, communication from the top down. Chester I. Barnard and Elton Mayo founded the human relations theory, which emphasized horizontal communication flow, especially among peers. System theory theorists defined a system as a set of interdependent parts connected by communication flows pervasive throughout the organization and the environment.

In 1938, Barnard named formal communication channels that traverse the organization through a hierarchy of authority as a communication system. This communication system typically includes the characteristics of centralization, shape, and technology. Centralization is the degree to which authority is concentrated in a single source and communication is controlled and organized throughout the organizational hierarchy. Centralized structures are more efficient when the problems and tasks are relatively simple, but when the problems and tasks become more complex, decentralized hierarchies appear to be more efficient. The shape or structure of a system refers to the tallness or flatness of the organization’s bureaucracy. Wayne Hoy and Cecil G. Miskel reported that the number of levels a message must travel within an organization could be seen as the distance a message must travel; and as the distance increases, the satisfaction and quality of the message tends to decrease. Finally, how organizations develop the capacity to be a knowing organization and use technology to communicate in the age of globalization will continue to change drastically. The use of the World Wide Web, electronic mail, and videoconferencing has had a tremendous impact and will continue to influence the flow of communication within and outside the organization.

Communication in organizations flows directionally through formal and informal networks. According to Fred C. Lunenburg and Allan C. Ornstein, this flow of communication is carried in four directions: downward, upward, horizontally, and diagonally. Vertical flow refers to the upward and downward direction of communication through the organization’s hierarchical shape. Downward communication is used by people at higher levels in the organization to transmit information to people at the lower levels of the organizational communication system.
hierarchy. Researchers have reported that downward communication is easy to send, but it tends to be inefficient. Upward communication is the transmitting of information from the lower levels of the hierarchy to the upper levels. These same researchers reported that upward communication is often viewed as an instrument of administrative control and that subordinates tend to withhold negative information and overemphasize the positive.

*Horizontal communication* takes place between workers at the same level within the organization and tends to happen more frequently than vertical communication. The purpose of horizontal communication is to integrate and coordinate tasks. These tasks include problem solving, sharing information with colleagues, resolving conflicts, and providing social and emotional support among peers in similar departments or positions. The same authors reported that the size of the organization or department, level of specialization, and proximity of the departments affect the efficiency and frequency of horizontal communication.

*Diagonal communication* is the fourth direction of communication flow. This flow of communication circumvents the chain of command. It involves people at different levels within the hierarchy of the organization who have access to and use information for a specific task, minimizing the time it would take to go through all the formal channels of the organizational hierarchy.

Along with formal communication networks, informal networks exist in all organizations. Facts, opinions, attitudes, suspicions, gossip, and rumors flow freely through informal communication networks, sometimes known as the “grapevine.” The grapevine coexists with the organization’s formal communication network and can be an advantage as well as a disadvantage. Informal networks are usually face-to-face, transmit information rapidly, and can provide vital feedback to the formal leaders within the organization. Researchers have reported that information transmitted through the informal network of an organization tends to be 75% to 90% accurate.

The organization’s external environment is fast changing and complex. The external environment includes the physical and social factors external to the organization that are taken into consideration when making decisions about the organization’s goals and objectives. There are three perspectives of the organization’s external environment. The *information perspective* assumes that the environment is a source of information to be used by the organization to make decisions; the *resource dependence approach* assumes that the resources needed to support the organization’s survival must come from the immediate external environment; and the third perspective, *institutional theory*, assumes that the external environment expects the organization to conform to rules and requirements imposed by legal, social, professional, and political organizations. Organizations build links with the external environment to collect and interpret information in order to forecast, plan, and adjust to meet the expectations of their external environment.

—Robin Dexter, William Berube, and Suzanne Young

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; chain of command; decentralization/centralization controversy; knowledge base, of the field; organizational theories; power; rational organizational theory; role conflict; role theory; span of control; working conditions, in schools

### Further Readings and References


### Communities, Types, Building Of

Community refers to the relationships and interactions of individuals who have a common or mutual interest, usually connected to a particular shared physical location. Education is a primary function of any community in order to assist its members in developing and maintaining skills that benefit and sustain the community. Schools are designed by the community to meet their educational needs. The establishment of formal schools creates a community that functions and interacts in collaboration within the community itself and within the larger geographic locality.
Appreciating schools as functioning communities within a given population is probably the most helpful perspective from which to understand the different types of communities within a school and what it takes to build such a community. For students, their community is defined as the classroom or their neighborhood. Stakeholders determine who and what constitutes a community and recognizing stakeholders’ influence can contribute to building, or gaining a shared vision, for the community.

There are many types of communities involved in schools, such as community in the classroom, or schools as learning communities, and community involvement in schools. In most cases, communities consist of members who have interests in a mutual area where the purpose of the community is also shared. Schools are central to any community. An effective school within a community can draw business and industry to a community, and an ineffective school may cause businesses to leave. This strengthens the importance of a community at large working together to assess, plan, and implement educational programming as part of long-range planning, community development, or redevelopment.

A school is a microcosm of its locale. Like the greater community in which the educational institution functions, the school community has clearly delineated memberships, roles, and interactions. For example, most schools serve a particular geographic locale that rarely crosses state or county lines. They usually have a principal or administrator who is responsible for the teachers, students, and everything that happens within the confines of the building. Interpersonal exchanges between administrators, teachers, students, and parents occur in a multitude of ways and forums.

Education is one of the most important aspects of a community and thus critical to building communities. Because of this fact, issues surrounding schools can quickly become controversial. Nothing is more divisive for a community than when citizens are deciding where to build new schools or whether to start magnet programming. There are many different constituents within each community. It is important to allow these groups opportunities to discuss issues that are important to the community. These groups are called stakeholders, meaning they have a “stake” in a decision. Stakeholders often represent diverse interest groups whose needs must be taken into consideration when making decisions about the community and naturally, the school.

It is also important to recognize stakeholders at the school level when trying to build a community. Stakeholders at the school level include the administration, teachers, workers, parents, as well as people within the neighborhood of the school. These are the individuals that comprise the community of a school.

Another important aspect of building community is recognizing that a school has its own culture, climate, and values. As the school leader, it is critical to ensure that the culture, climate, and values of the school are reflected in the school’s mission statement as well as in the business of the school or “the way we do things here.” School administrators must believe in their school and reflect that belief by ensuring all classrooms are positive places for students to learn. Administrators’ values and beliefs are conveyed through their actions to the school constituency and the greater community at large.

Being a part of a community means that individuals consider themselves part of something larger than they are. This sense of community is so important that schools are required to demonstrate community unity when seeking regional or program accreditation. The affirmation of the school as a community comes from alumni, parents, current students, and/or teachers. The notion of the school as a community is significant, as it can provide a sense of belonging and, in turn, increase the school’s value to its members.

Of utmost importance when building your school as a community is the individual experience for students. Students need to feel a sense of belonging. Social bonding, psychological support, academic challenge, and a sense of self-awareness all contribute to students who feel as if they are peers and belong.

The school leader must be able to utilize the talents of teachers, parents, members of the public, and any other individuals toward achieving the goal of building a sense of community. An effective leader is astute at using the abilities of others to do what is needed. The most effective school leaders surround themselves with individuals who have talents they may not have themselves. This enables them to delegate with accountability and develop the capacity of others as well. When building a community, remember that the purpose of the collaborative effort is also the basis of the collaboration, which means a common vision and goal are shared in the endeavor.

The principal is leader of the school. This means he or she is the chief administrator of the school as well as the instructional leader. The principal must be able to build and sustain relationships with a variety of
public constituencies while treating them all with respect and courtesy. Since these relationships are centered on a mutual goal, alliances are often built that may not be anticipated. Emotions can become intense when differences of opinion occur. The principal has to be skilled at resolving conflict, keeping in mind that conflict is a natural by product of individuals working together. A community will not likely be established without differences of opinions. This stresses the need for productive interpersonal relationships when the goal is achieving a sense of community.

A vital part of building a community within a school is appreciating its resources and liabilities. Every community has strengths and weaknesses, and a leader’s job is to identify, use, or diffuse them. Discovery data could come from knowing if students’ parents work and where, and whether parents’ employers are suitable education partners. If so, would they be willing and able to contribute in any form such as recycled paper, baked goods, or volunteering? Parents can be a tremendous resource for needed classroom and school items. However, if the community is primarily low income, it may be beneficial to provide resources for parents that they may not be able to receive through other channels. Seminars on parenting, exercise, health care, and working with your school may all help parents assist their children to be more successful learners at school.

Influence in the community takes into account individuals who may not have children in the school but do have a stake in decision making regarding the school. This includes individuals who talk to school board members, religious, and community leaders, as well as neighborhood activists. These individuals may be opinionated and have strong views about the function of a school; however, all voices should be heard when building communities.

Students, parents, and teachers may need to be encouraged to express what they are thinking in regard to decisions pertaining to the school. Sincerely cultivate a culture where everyone knows they will be heard and their voices will be respected. A culture of diversity encourages contrary points of view that can be heard openly and with courtesy. A cooperative atmosphere allows for the freedom of expressing personal thoughts. Permit the students and teachers to know that they have a voice in decisions.

The process of decision making and problem solving within a school must be shared so that everyone individually and collectively can strive toward a common decision. Collaborative decision making is considered an important aspect of building a community within a school because it ensures that everyone has a say in the decision, thus resulting in an investment in the outcome of the decision.

Building a school-based community requires sharing school activities with the public at large. Parents, grandparents, family, and friends like to gather at the physical location of the school to share in educational programming, which is also important to the well-being of children. As an administrator, facilitate a culture of openness. Keep the door open to others, so that you can be seen managing by walking around. Visible leaders indicate to the community that they are caring and are in control of everything going on in their schools. Teacher and administrators’ perceptions of the school often become reality. Instructional leaders can see the effort teachers put into their classrooms when they are walking around the school. The school becomes more efficient when the leadership is visible at all times.

There are many ways to build a sense of community within the student body. Putting an entire grade level on one wing of a school building is one way to increase the group cohesion among the class. Some elementary schools have used looping as a strategy to build close-knit relationships among the students and their teachers. Looping is a technique that allows a teacher to stay with the same group of students for more than 1 year of study, thus reducing the amount of time the teacher spends in the beginning of the year getting to know a new group of students.

Cooperative learning in the classroom is a commonly used strategy to encourage individual and group dependability. Students of different levels or interests are grouped with one another and invited to work together. Other ways to build community in the classroom include grouping students heterogeneously or homogeneously. These methods of grouping learners can also be used as strategies to group faculty for committee work. The purpose of building a sense of community in the school is to increase student learning.

The notion of school as a community encompasses all of the different relationships that can exist within an organization. This includes mentoring, whether it is teacher to teacher or administrator to teacher, and even older students when they are paired with younger students. Some systems are experimenting with pairing students of different levels together, such as a middle
school student mentoring an elementary school student.

Many schools today require participation in community service. Students are cleaning up their schools and local rivers, working with animal shelters, visiting the elderly—all of these service projects are designed to build self-confidence and a sense of empowerment and to teach children the value of giving back to their community.

The ever-changing political climate has put education in the center of the political arena. Educators have grown accustomed to adapting to the changes necessitated by federal and state mandates. At the heart of most of these mandates is an insistence that schools are community based and that oversight is provided by a local school council. These local school councils comprise the schools’ administrators, selected teachers, and a few parents who all are working together toward the betterment of the school. The school councils do not provide the same function as the Parent Teacher Student Association (PTSA).

PTSA is a national organization with local chapters where individuals typically pay dues to belong. PTSA helps schools to increase parental and community involvement and support for a particular school. Often, the PTSA coordinates fund-raising efforts on behalf of the school.

Schools by their very nature are communities of professionals who are engaged in the pursuit of knowledge. Teachers comprise the largest percentage of employees. They are generally members of at least one professional association, sometimes more. These organizations include associations for all educators, such as the National Educational Association, and organizations for specialized fields, like the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics or the American Association of School Administrators. Professional associations often have a state chapter in addition to their national memberships and offer specialized staff development opportunities through conferences, publications, and other means.

Popular ways to build a sense of community among the members of a school include one approach known as a learning community. A learning community is a term used to describe a particular approach to team building where the goal is to build a community of learners among students and teachers. Learning communities generally structure the curriculum so that everyone is actively engaged in a sustained academic relationship with other students and faculty over a period of time. Another approach used by educational institutions and businesses alike is a learning organization. A learning organization is created when an entity wants to quickly change how it operates through expansion of ideas and adaptation. While a school normally focuses on the learning of children, the purpose of a learning organization is to have everyone learning and trying new ways to create a better learning environment, resulting in a tightly knit group all working together toward a common goal.

Other entities that can influence the building of a community within a school include unions, such as the American Federation of Teachers, founded in 1916 to represent the economic, social, and professional interests of classroom teachers. It is an affiliated international union of the AFL-CIO. Colleges and universities can also affect a school. They are primary sources for new teachers, as well as providing a source for graduate study for administrators and teachers alike. In addition, they can locate resources to assist schools for most situations.

The educational community is goal centered. Learning outcomes are expected to be measured through standardized tests and teacher-made assessments. The individual experience of each student is important to the feeling of community. Students are counted upon to have a sense of belonging to their class and the school. It is believed that positive social bonding among students provides peer support for schoolwork.

Teachers are encouraged to help students find things in common as a strategy for developing the cohesiveness of the group. Interaction among peers and between students and teachers leads to a positive classroom community. Sustaining the communal atmosphere within each classroom and throughout the school requires continuous planning and attention. Commonsense approaches like giving students and teachers choices encourages everyone to feel a part of their school.

Schools are often structured in distinct ways to promote different types of communities. Historically, public schools in America have been neighborhood schools, where children attended the closest school to their home. Schools based on a unifying theme or for students of similar interests are called magnet schools. Another way to structure a school to create a smaller community is a school within a school. This structure establishes a smaller educational unit with a separate educational program, its own staff and students, and its own budget within a larger school building.

All of these structures, strategies, and techniques are designed to encourage the building of community within a school system. Schools that have a strong sense
of community also have strong academic programs. It makes sense to invest in our communities in such a way.

—Iris M. Saltiel

See also capacity building, of organizations; collaboration theory; culture, school; leadership, participatory; Parent Teacher Association; parental involvement; peer interaction/friendships; professional learning communities; social relations, dimensions of

Further Readings and References


COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Community colleges are an American phenomenon that has grown from a modest enrollment of less than 100 students in 1901 at Joliet Junior College, in Illinois, to over 10.4 million students enrolled in credit and noncredit programs and courses at over 1,200 colleges in the United States. Earlier community colleges were called “junior colleges,” and their primary purpose was to provide freshman and sophomore courses leading to university studies. Over the years, however, the programs and mission of community colleges have broadened to include remedial and developmental programs, workforce, and short-term skills training, student development services, career and technical education, community services and continuing education, and transfer programs for university studies. These colleges pride themselves in being “open-door” and egalitarian institutions that focus on community needs and ensuring that all citizens have opportunities for post-secondary education and training.

Almost half of the undergraduate students in American higher education attend a community college. As a sector, community colleges serve the most ethnically diverse student body of any sector of higher education. Community college students often select these colleges because they are close to home, courses are offered in formats so they can work and attend classes concurrently, and the tuition and fees are less than most universities.

Regional accrediting associations and scholars note that the highest degrees granted by community colleges are the associate degrees, although a controversial movement is emerging as some community colleges propose (and are approved) to offer baccalaureate degrees.

The American community college has served as a model for some countries in the development of post-secondary educational institutions (i.e., Canada, Great Britain).

Community college governing structures vary from state to state, but most colleges have some sort of local governing or advising boards, and most encourage local input into the leadership of the college. Opportunities for community leadership in these colleges include serving on local boards of advisors or trustees, local community and program committees, local foundation boards, and curriculum advisory committees. Community advocacy in terms of service on boards and committees is an important element for successful community college leadership. Locally, community colleges are generally organized internally with a CEO (president or chancellor), chief student affairs officer, chief instructional officer, chief financial officer, and chief fund-raising officer.

—Deborah L. Floyd
COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Community education is an educational philosophy and a process that expands traditional roles of K–12 education by linking them with community learning. In itself, it is a cooperative entity designed to enrich individuals and groups by engaging residents of particular respective regions that share common interests in developing a range of learning, action, and reflection opportunities. This development is determined by their personal, social, economic, religious, and political lifeworld needs. Subsequently, this educational philosophy underlies community schools, advocating the creation of opportunities for community members—individuals, schools, associations, businesses, and public and private organizations—by forming partnerships among and between those groups to address community needs.

The concept of community education is inherently related to the notion of community itself. Since the late nineteenth century, the use of the term community has been associated with the desire to revive the tighter and more harmonious relationships assumed to exist between people. The first clear sociological definition of community was created, in 1915, by rural sociologist C. J. Galpin, in relation to demarcating countryside communities from nearby trade areas surrounding regional population centers. Drawing from the concept of community, Michigan-based teacher Frank Manley, whose instruction centered on physical education, first promoted community education in the 1930s. He has been generally acknowledged as the founder of the modern community school movement.

In a community, group members share commonalities that distinguish them from members of other groups. This similarity and difference shows that the community is a relational concept: the opposition of one community to others (or social entities). Through community education, then, people enhance their lives and communities through learning and collaboration, and provide opportunities for families, community members, schools, businesses, and other organizations to create partnerships addressing educational and community concerns. The goal thus becomes to improve quality of life and build vitality, hence identifying a community through civic and neighborhood enhancement projects and the operation of community schools. These schools function as learning and meeting centers.

School quality bears a direct relationship to quality of life. Community schools provide more than intellectual training by constructing a potent social force and giving direction for community improvement. Community education is most easily recognized in community schools in their provision of academic, recreation, health, religious, social service, and work preparation programs. Schools in a community may also be a focal point for the provision of neighborhood services. In recent years, this idea has evolved, broadened, and intensified in community schools, in contrast to educative schools with after-hours recreation programs.

Community education has three basic components: lifelong learning, which suggests that gathering knowledge continues throughout life, and which can be provided for by educational opportunities, programs, and services for community members, typically in an intergenerational setting; community involvement, which promotes civic responsibility and provides leadership opportunities for community members; and efficient use of resources, which suggests using a school’s and a community’s physical, financial, and human resources to address the community’s needs, reduce duplication of services, and promote collaborative effort. There are seven basic tenets of community education, namely lifelong learning, self-determination, self-help, leadership development, institutional responsiveness, integrated delivery of services, and decentralization.

1. Lifelong learning: Here education is viewed as a birth-to-death process, and each member of a community shares responsibility for providing lifetime educational opportunities for all ages, backgrounds, and needs.
2. Self-determination: Here local people have a right and a responsibility to determine community needs.
and identify community resources required to address those needs.

3. Self-help: Here people are best served when their capacity to help themselves is acknowledged and developed. When people assume responsibility for their own well-being, they build independence and become an integral part of the solution.

4. Leadership development: Here the training of local leaders in skills such as problem solving, decision making, diplomacy, and promoting group collaboration is an essential component of successful self-help and improvement efforts.

5. Institutional responsiveness: Here public institutions exist to serve the community and are obliged to develop programs and services that address continuously changing public needs and interests.

6. Integrated delivery of services: Here organizations and agencies that operate for the good of the public can meet their own goals and can better serve the public by collaborating with other bodies that share similar goals.

7. Decentralization: Here services, programs, and other community involvement opportunities that are nearby people’s homes have the greatest potential for high levels of participation, so activities should be situated in publicly accessible locations.

Broadly, community education is education for the community within the community by the community. This irregular suggestion of education is in the vein of support, nourishment, vitalization, and acceptance of communality. Community education enables participants to engage in collective action and to emerge with critical thinking skills, which has considerable impact on the people and groups. Participants have the opportunity to share experiences, which leads to increased confidence, community involvement, and further education. Community education is thus based on interdependent relationships between homes, school, work, and the community interacting in human development and neighborhood improvement. Although each has a specific role, areas of influence overlap. The home’s influence does not cease when individuals go out the front door, nor does the school’s influence cease when individuals leave school grounds. Similarly, homes and schools exist in a community that is positively and negatively affected by the economics of workplaces.

In terms of arising issues in contemporary community education, local residents have few avenues for their individual voices to be heard in relation to education. In this way, the sentiment that the few often make decisions for the many is prevalent. For example, in the various states that mandate the consolidation of schools, professional associations may require that members obtain continuing education within a fixed period or the federal government dictates the amount of tax returned to local educational units. A mechanism is therefore required whereby educational organizations and citizens can work together for the betterment of the community.

—Eunyoung Kim

See also adult education; community, types, building of; community relations; continuing education; extracurricular activities; physical education; reform, of schools; rural education; school improvement models; social capital; year-round education

Further Readings and References


COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Community relations, also known as school-community relations, refers to a wide variety of outreach activities extended by school systems and school buildings to their communities. Among these activities, community relations efforts range from public relations tactics and promotional events to parent involvement activities to interagency collaboration to intergenerational education programs.

All schools—public, private, independent, charter, or nonpublic schools—share a reliance on diverse
stakeholder interests in the outcomes of education. These stakeholders encompass students, their parents, and guardians, plus residents of the homes and businesses physically surrounding school property, and in addition to educational funders from taxpayers to endowment or tuition scholarship donors and alumni. The diversity of interest in schools and schooling presents a challenge to school personnel in ascertaining the depth and breadth of concerns and then providing appropriate and timely information to each constituency.

For many schools, especially elementary schools, community relations began with building-level parent and teacher groups. The national Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and other parent-teacher organizations represent affiliations between parents and teachers formed to supplement resources for programs and events within a particular school. Other booster groups at the secondary school level provide support for extracurricular activities from sports to music or other clubs or activities.

In the 1960s and 1970s, school boards and central offices interpreted community relations as primarily a public relations matter. As teacher unions rose in strength and ability to communicate labor interests to tax payers, school systems scrambled to get a countermessage concerning budgets and other scarce resources to the general public. Litigation about schools’ alleged failures, such as misplacing students in special education programs, graduating students who failed literacy and other academic tests, as well as media attention to these lawsuits and sensational incidents of school violence, spawned school public relations campaigns in school districts across the United States. Today, most national professional organizations for teachers and school leaders include services devoted to public relations strategies, from print materials to professional development sessions.

Most of these strategies involve shaping relationships with local media outlets and meeting local legal requirements concerning open meetings and open records. School superintendents and governing boards promote school meetings and events by building relationships with the media. Many districts, large and small, employ a spokesperson with a background in some field of communications, including journalism, to publicize school system events and achievements. With a spokesperson managing official school system information, often building principals, teachers, and other employees receive instructions controlling their exchanges with media representatives and the public. Under such conditions, principals’ and teachers’ roles involve shoring up their regular communications with parents and community members and serving as the first line of system defense for rumor control. Most school personnel recognize that support staff members, such as school secretaries, bus drivers, and maintenance personnel, often learn of community concerns before school officials. School public relations plans depend on the cultivation of key informants within school communities.

For some schools and districts, school public relations efforts produce partnerships between businesses and schools. In such programs, local businesses provide schools with resources and services as part of businesses’ public relations or humanitarian efforts. Such partnerships range from donations of surplus, or cast-off, equipment and materials to installation of art and architecture in school buildings. A few business–school partnerships encourage donation of employee time in activities ranging from maintenance of school buildings and grounds to mentoring students or limited classroom instruction and speaking engagements in schools.

In the late twentieth century, community relations evolved into broader interpretations as school policies expanded to address social issues associated with academic achievement. Federal legislation requiring special education in public schools as well as funding for reading and math programs for low-income students (often referred to as Chapter 1 or Title 1) included requirements for parent involvement. These federal parent involvement requirements stemmed from civil rights issues as well as from research in sociology and psychology noting the critical importance of family and community support networks in student development and learning. Repeated studies on parent involvement and student achievement show strong positive relationships between both without revealing much detail concerning specific parent and school activities that lead to higher student performance. Sociologists speculate that the school and community connections that foster student achievement represent a form of human and social capital capacity building. Special Education and Chapter/Title 1 programs also promoted community relations in the form of interagency collaboration. Both programs revealed the futility of educational programming divorced from other social services. In the 1990s, several states and school districts required comprehensive school reforms, including social services delivered, or arranged, at the school building level. These programs served students’ multiple needs and included a recognition
that students’ academic problems in math or reading might stem from health or social issues such as physical disabilities, child abuse and neglect, or even a family member’s social needs due to disabilities, drug abuse, or other welfare matters. The interagency approach expanded community relations concepts by making schools a part of a student’s ecology, which includes multiple social institutions. In an ecological approach, schools belong to a community network of medical, welfare, and other local services surrounding children and their families.

Community relations practices span activities associated with general public relations to the more intimate facilitations of students’ and their families’ access to social services beyond schooling. The expanding function of community relations in education represents a deeper understanding of students’ learning and development as well as the interconnectedness of individual growth with community work force growth and development. For most schools and their communities, community relations practices, symbolically and pragmatically, enact that locale’s investment in social and human capital.

—Jane Clark Lindle

See also children and families in America; communities, types, building of; cultural capital; expectations, teacher and student cultures; human capital; mentoring; networking and network theory; Parent Teacher Association; parental involvement; social capital

Further Readings and References


COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

Compensatory education predominately refers to programs instituted by the federal government targeted at low-achieving, low-socioeconomic, or otherwise disadvantaged children for remediation education. Compensatory programs are based on two interrelated concepts: “cumulative deficit” and the “vicious cycle of poverty.” The idea is that if a child begins school behind her peers that this deficit will continue throughout her educational career, resulting in her securing a low-paying job, which will then place her children at a disadvantage, and the cycle continues. Through compensatory education, this cycle can be interrupted.

The premise underlying compensatory education is that disadvantaged children need remediation in core subjects (i.e., reading, mathematics, or languages arts) because of factors (i.e., poverty) that are beyond their control—the belief being that compensatory education will compensate for these disadvantages that many children have and put them on equal footing with their peers. The federal government has legislated two major compensatory education programs: Title I and Head Start. Title I will be the major compensatory education program discussed in this entry, giving a short history of the program and its major components. A brief description of Head Start will follow.

In 1981, under the Regan administration, Title I became known as “Chapter I,” as part of the Educational Consolidation and Improvement Act. As Chapter I, compensatory services remained relatively unchanged, but the legislation did allow and even encourage high-poverty areas to develop schoolwide programs. Schools were held accountable for outcomes of their students, they were encouraged to place emphasis on teaching higher-order thinking skills, and they were required to link services to the regular education curriculum. Because of dissatisfaction with results from Chapter 1, in 1994, it was once again renamed Title I under President Bill Clinton’s Improving America’s School Act (IASA) and continues to be known as Title I today. Under IASA, standards-based outcomes and authentic assessments were
mandated that were linked to general education curricula and practices, which basically required schoolwide reform for Title I programs.

The two major goals of Title I have been to improve education in low-income schools and to advance the equality of educational outcomes. Through Title I, state educational agencies (SEAs) are allocated monies based on census counts to be given to local education agencies (LEAs) in their states to assist public schools with the highest percentages of low socioeconomic children. Participating schools (unless a school is operating as a schoolwide program) must then target Title I services to those children who are either failing or at risk of failing to meet state standards. These monies are to be used to improve the quality of education in high-poverty schools and to ensure that all children meet rigorous state standards.

Title I services are primarily provided in the areas of reading, mathematics, and language arts instruction; however, other programs can be funded, such as preschools or counseling programs. Some nonacademic services are also provided, such as transportation, health, and nutrition. Funds may be used to serve children in preschool through high school and to serve eligible children in private schools. As of 2005, approximately 65% of the funds, however, are targeted for children in Grades 1 through 6, with approximately 12% going to services in preschool and kindergarten programs. Schools using Title I funds are required to allocate some monies for providing professional development for teachers and paraprofessionals and for providing activities that encourage parental involvement.

Compensatory programs under Title I were largely pullout, but more recently are schoolwide. Because early regulations required Title I programs not to supplement or supplant LEA’s regular education services, students receiving Title I services were typically in pullout programs. In the pullout model, students having difficulty in reading, language arts, and/or mathematics and meeting criteria for Title I services were removed from their regular classrooms for 30 to 40 minutes per day to receive more intense remedial instruction in the targeted academic area. Beginning in 1981, the Reagan administration encouraged schools in high-poverty areas to become schoolwide Title I schools. A school could become a schoolwide Title I school based on the number of students who received free and reduced lunches. In schoolwide programs, districts were allowed to spend Title I monies on increasing the educational outcomes for all children in the school.

With the passage of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, the reauthorization of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) received the largest funding increase since its inception and underwent major changes to support elementary and secondary education. According to the U.S. Department of Education, ESEA changes centered around four basic premises: accountability for results, an emphasis on doing what works based on scientific research, expanded parental options, and expanded local control and flexibility. Accountability mandates called for testing in Grades 3 through 8; furthermore, schools were to be held responsible for the achievement outcomes of low-income students, minority students, and students with limited English proficiency. Scientifically based research was to be the means by which school districts closed the achievement gap and ensured equality in student outcomes.

Head Start was the second major federally sponsored compensatory education program and focused on early childhood education. Head Start, a program legislated at about the same time as Title I, was one of the first major programs specifically targeted for early childhood disadvantaged students, and it continues today. Head Start focused on preparing disadvantaged children for entrance into school. Proponents, however, were determined that the curriculum for Head Start would not follow traditional programs, but would consider what was deemed to be a more developmentally appropriate program for young children. Head Start was not coordinated with the Title I program either. As a result, many criticized the program in that it did not adequately prepare children to enter kindergarten.

In a comprehensive summary of compensatory programs in 1999, Maris Vinovskis concluded that some compensatory education programs have helped some disadvantaged children to overcome obstacles and compete with their middle-class peers. She, however, criticized the federal government by pointing out that although over $150 billion has been spent on compensatory services, schools are still left without a clear picture of which practices are effective with at-risk students.

—Joan G. Henley

See also accountability; achievement tests; adolescence; affective education; Black education; coeducation; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; critical race theory;
cross-cultural studies; contextual teaching and learning; desegregation, of schools; determinism, sociocultural; discipline in schools; discrimination; dropouts; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; high schools; immigration, history and impact in education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning, theories of; literacy, theories of; mastery learning; metacognition; migrant students; motivation, theories of; multiculturalism; National Assessment of Educational Progress; productivity; promotion, social; school improvement models; special education; standardized testing; state departments of education; systemic reform; time-on-task; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


COMPETITION, FORMS OF, IN SCHOOLS

A competitive structure is one in which individuals have directly opposing goals. A “perfect competition” or a “zero-sum situation” is when one individual wins and the other loses. When competing, individuals struggle against each other in an effort to maximize their own success and minimize the success of others. Robert Greenleaf contends that it is difficult to determine if competitive interests are a natural part of being or if it is acquired. The difficulty in determining is due to a culture that encourages competition from infancy onward.

Individuals who lose a zero-sum competition perceive themselves as less competent and less intrinsically motivated than individuals who win the competition. Competition may also undermine intrinsic motivation when the competitive structure emphasizes an extrinsic approach such as “beat the opponent” or “win at all costs.” In such situations, the decrease in intrinsic motivation is not caused by changes in perceived competence, but rather by the perceived control of the competitive context.

Researchers have contrasted competition with noncompetitive controls, compared different kinds of competition, and examined the effects of winning versus losing in competition. Considered together, the results suggest that competition can have a negative effect on intrinsic motivation but that under certain circumstances (e.g., winning, less controlling competitions) and for some individuals (e.g., individuals high in achievement motivation), competition may actually increase intrinsic motivation.

When positioned in a situation where competitive contingencies govern the distribution of rewards, children’s evaluation of not only their own performance but also the performance of others is affected. Competitive reward structures have been found to increase social comparison, resulting in ego-enhancing motives at the expense of others following success, self-derogatory motives following failure, and a variety of negatively valued social behaviors.

Whether competing for grades, trophies, or financial rewards, individuals may view their behavior as externally controlled and experience pressure to win. On the other hand, competition can lead individuals to view activities as challenging and opportunities for feedback, making the competition attractive. In addition, individuals may receive positive feedback during the course of competition, which can promote perceived competence. Thus, competition can be a double-edged sword, with the potential to both undermine intrinsic motivation by being perceived as controlling and enhance intrinsic motivation by providing challenge and positive feedback.

Individual differences might moderate the effects of competition. Individuals high in achievement motivation are those who seek challenge, desire to attain competence, and strive to outdo others. Those low in achievement motivation dislike evaluation and avoid achievement situations. In 1992, J. A. Epstein and Judith Harackiewicz compared competitive and noncompetitive conditions in which all participants outperformed another participant and found that competition undermined task enjoyment for individuals low in achievement motivation but enhanced enjoyment for individuals high in achievement motivation.

COMPETITIONS

Competitions can increase motivation. Selecting competitions that best match perceived student strengths and interests and allowing for student choice ensure
positive outcomes for participants. Science and mathematics are two subject areas well suited for competitions. The competitions provide students with opportunities for studying the content and the processes of science while also debating real problems and issues. Mathematical competitions develop and enhance mathematical skills and abilities by focusing on techniques used by mathematicians and by allowing students the opportunity to apply their skills.

Competitions also offer teachers an opportunity for a shift in roles. It places teachers in the position to coach and facilitate learning in an atmosphere that is different from the traditional classroom setting.

—Jean M. Haar

See also achievement tests; athletics in schools; behaviorism; constructivism; creativity, theories of; cultural capital; extracurricular activities; giftedness, gifted education; grades, of students; measurement, theories of; problem solving; psychometrics; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References

### Table 1: Compliance Relationships

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<tr>
<th>Kinds of Power</th>
<th>Alienative</th>
<th>Calculative</th>
<th>Moral</th>
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<tr>
<td>Coercive</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Remunerative</td>
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<td>Normative</td>
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SOURCE: Author.

—Compliance Theory

Compliance theory provides a vehicle for the examination of the relationship between those who hold power and those who are subject to that power in various organizations. In other words, the power used by superiors to control subordinates and the reaction of the subordinates to that power compose the compliance relationship. Amitai Etzioni has posited a typology of organizational compliance based on three types of power and three degrees of member involvement. Organizational control, for Etzioni, represents the power an actor has to induce or influence another actor to carry out his or her directives or any other norms he or she supports. According to Etzioni, power can take three forms: coercive, remunerative, or normative. Coercive power is physical force. It rests on the application or the threat of application of physical sanctions, such as infliction of pain. Remunerative power is based on control over material resources and rewards through allocation of salaries and wages, commissions and contributions.

Normative power is defined as symbolic means used as means of control. It rests on the allocation and manipulation of symbolic rewards and deprivations.

Individual responses to power or control, the intensity of individual involvement, take three forms: alien, calculative, and moral. Each form comprises both intensity (high to low) and direction (either positive or negative). Alien member involvement is typically intensely low and negative, as in prison inmates. The orientation of members experiencing calculative involvement is materialistic, as in pay for additional services. It is low in intensity and can be either negative or positive. Moral member involvement is characterized as idealistic, of high intensity, and positive. These individuals are idealistically committed to the organization.

When presented as a grid or typology, there are nine possible compliance types (see Table 1). Numbers 1, 5, and 9 are considered congruent or stable; they reflect congruent organizational member involvement for the type of power used.

Number 1, the coercive-alienative relationship, is referred to as “coercive compliance”; physical or
coercive power results in involuntary or hostile involvement. Number 5, the remunerative-calculative relationship, is referred to as “utilitarian compliance”; remunerative or material power results in neutral or materialistic involvement. Number 9, the normative-moral relationship, is referred to as “normative compliance”; symbolic power results in moral or idealistic committee involvement.

According to Etzioni, noncongruent compliance relationships were less effective and less stable than congruent ones. Organizations possessing congruent relationships tend to make every effort to remain congruent, while organizations with noncongruent relationships will naturally shift from incongruence to congruence.

—Adrienne E. Hyle

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; goals, goal setting; governance; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, discretionary (and power); leadership, situational; leadership, theories of; management by objectives; management information systems; management theories; organizational theories; organizations, types of, typologies; power; power, remunerative; productivity; resource management; role conflict; school improvement models; strategic planning; systemic reform; work task measurement

Further Readings and References

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Compulsory attendance has a long history in the United States. Horace Mann maintained that there was a connection between education and democracy, and mandatory attendance laws emerged from that belief. The Massachusetts School Attendance Act of 1852 was the first general compulsory attendance statute. Legislation in colonial Massachusetts became the model of the state’s responsibility for the education and training of all children. Sixteen compulsory attendance laws were enacted in the 1870s, 22 in the 1880s, and 83 in the 1900s. There were 45 laws enacted between 1910 and 1915.

Attendance laws were also a response to immigration—education is a means of assimilation into American culture—and to the perceived relationship between illiteracy and crime. Industrialization led to greater acceptance of compulsory attendance. Preserving jobs for adult men and child labor laws increased support for compulsory attendance. The need for skill development and literacy to promote a more productive society gave further impetus to compulsory attendance laws.

The place of compulsory attendance laws in U.S. society is generally understood. The Constitution of the United States does not mention education, and the Supreme Court has held—in San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez (1973)—that education is not a fundamental constitutional right. The Tenth Amendment to the Constitution provides that the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it, are reserved to the states. Thus, the responsibility for education is left to the individual states.

Education may be the most important function of state and local governments. Compulsory school attendance laws and the great expenditures for education demonstrate the importance of education to democratic society. It is doubtful that any child may reasonably be expected to succeed in life if denied the opportunity of an education. Such an opportunity, where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right that must be made available to all on equal terms, as in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas, in 1954.

One form of such state legislation is represented by compulsory education statutes. The general power of a state to enact such legislation has never been successfully challenged, and three U.S. Supreme Court cases are often cited in support of the principle that most state regulation of education, including compulsory attendance laws, is constitutionally permissible.

In Meyer v. Nebraska (1923), the Court noted that the state has the authority to both compel school attendance and regulate schools. Pierce v. Society of Sisters (1925) struck down an Oregon compulsory education statute that required attendance at public school, holding that this enactment interfered unreasonably with both parental liberty interests and private school property rights and thus violated the Due Process Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Wisconsin v. Yoder (1972) stands for the proposition that a state has authority to impose reasonable regulations pertaining to education, including compulsory attendance requirements.
Each state has statutes providing for compulsory education. Each state has some statutory exemptions from the compulsory attendance requirement. Among the more common are: physical, mental, and emotional disabilities; completion of minimum education; lawful employment; suspension and expulsion; distance from school; discretion of school officials; and religious reasons.

Based on the United States Department of Education’s Digest of Educational Statistics, one trend that occurred from 1978 to 1992 was the lengthening of the span of years during which attendance was required. Fourteen states extended the age span, 5 states lowered the minimum age, 4 states raised the maximum age, and 5 states did both; however, 36 states began and ended this period with the same age span requirements. The age ranges for compulsory attendance reported for 49 of the 50 states in the 2002 Digest of Education Statistics were 6 to 16 (13 states), 7 to 16 (12 states), 6 to 18 (7 states), 5 to 16 (3 states), 5 to 18 (3 states), 7 to 18 (3 states), 7 to 17 (3 states), 6 to 17 (2 states), 5 to 17 (1 state), 8 to 17 (1 state), and 8 to 18 (1 state).

Legal challenges to compulsory attendance are typically from individuals who refuse to send their children to school or individuals who have placed their children in unauthorized educational programs. Opponents of compulsory attendance suggest that mandatory attendance is an infringement of parental rights or that mandatory attendance is an infringement of religious beliefs and convictions. Most of the research and literature that relates to compulsory education is focused on truancy, dropouts, homeschooling, and at-risk students.

—Marilyn L. Grady

See also accountability; at-risk students; dropouts; expulsion; of students; state departments of education; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law

Further Readings and References


The phenomenal changes in computer technology have revolutionized the way schools utilize information. The Internet, e-mail, laptop computers, DVDs and CD-ROMs, PDAs (personal digital assistant), digital cameras, scanners, cell phones, copiers, fax machines, and an array of other technologies now make it possible for teachers and students to instantaneously access, store, manipulate, and disseminate information. No longer are students confined to the resources of a single classroom or school; teachers are not the sole disseminators of information; and face-to-face interaction is no longer essential for teaching and learning to take place.

The phenomenal technology growth in schools is primarily due to funds provided through the federal government’s Education Rate Program (E-rate) that was established in 1996. Under this program, schools and libraries apply for financial support to enhance their Internet access, telecommunication services, and internal connectivity. The amount of support is primarily based on the poverty level and location of the community the school or library serves. The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) has indicated that 98% of the schools in the nation have access to the Internet. The data indicated that in 2000, the overall ratio of students to instructional computers declined to an all-time low of 5 to 1; the ratio of students to instructional computers with Internet access is currently 7 to 1; and the ratio of students to computers in schools with a high poverty rate with Internet access is currently 9 to 1.

Although the E-rate program has helped increase the amount of technology in schools, administrators (47%) in a recent survey by the National School Boards Association stated that funding technology is still one of the greatest challenges they have to face. With shrinking budgets, schools and districts are soliciting funds to purchase hardware and software through state and federal government programs, foundation grants, private donations, and by developing partnerships with local businesses. In an effort to cut costs, some school districts are adopting “open source” software. Developed and distributed under a general public license that allows anyone to modify or resell it, advocates predict that open source will be a financial saving for school districts and lessen exposure to computer viruses and copyright violations, as noted by Andrew Trotter in 2004.
With the increased availability and use of technology in schools, principals have assumed the role of technology leader. Besides having the ultimate responsibility for technology planning, financing, decision making, staff development, and policy development and implementation, they must be able to develop, articulate, and take the necessary steps to realize the technology vision for their schools. Finally, according to Gerald Bailey in 1996, principals must also surround themselves with individuals who have the technology expertise to support their leadership.

The media specialist and technology specialist are two key technology support individuals. Besides continuing to carry out many of their traditional library responsibilities, the media specialist provides support to teachers in their efforts to integrate technology into their teaching. The media center, the “technology hub” of the school, is the place where most multimedia equipment is stored and distributed. The technology specialist, on the other hand, is an individual who, depending on the size of the district, could be assigned to the central office to provide services to all schools. This individual advises the administrative staff and the school board on technology-related issues, oversees the installation of new technology, trains teachers on how to use hardware and software, and assists them with the integration of technology into the curriculum.

Although making technology available for teaching and learning should be a priority, if teachers are not utilizing the technology, it has no benefit to students. Therefore, technology integration must be at the heart of any technology initiative. In the National School Boards Association technology survey, respondents (46%) indicated that integrating technology into the classroom was the second-biggest challenge that they were facing in their school district. According to the NSBA, 67% of the respondents also indicated that new teachers were better prepared than in the past to effectively integrate technology into the classroom. In the final analysis, technology integration depends on the level of teacher access to hardware and software, building infrastructure, teacher comfort level, and the level of support available to teachers.

Staff development is essential for effective technology integration, and the amount of technology training a teacher receives depends on the teacher’s interest, comfort level, and background. Bailey and Dan Lumley wrote in 1997 that staff development programs must help overcome and prevent teacher and student phobias regarding technology.

In many schools, planning technology staff development activities is the responsibility of a faculty committee, the technology specialist, and/or the media specialist. The principal has the ultimate decision-making authority and plays a major role in disseminating information and providing time and money for staff development opportunities.

Schools and school districts use different types of staff development delivery formats. One-to-one, small-group, and large-group formats are used at different times. The one-to-one format is viewed most positively because one can address the specific needs of the teacher. Another method utilized is the train the trainer model. This is when a team of teachers determines that they want to learn certain new skills and one teacher is selected to attend a workshop. The teacher is expected to train the other members of the team.

—John S. Gooden

See also differentiation of stimuli; feedback; globalism; instructional technology; instrumentation; learning, online; motivation, theories of; resource management; Skinner, B. F.; technology and the law; television, impact on students; workplace trends; Web-based teaching and learning

Further Readings and References

Conceptual systems theory integrates developmental, cognitive, and social-psychological elements into a generalized model in which individuals are described as advancing from simple, concrete, and self-centered cognition to complex, abstract, and multiperspective cognition.

Conceptual systems theory was originally presented by O. J. Harvey, David Hunt, and Harold Schroeder in
their 1961 book, *Conceptual Systems and Personality Organization*. Accordingly, they defined a conceptual system as a design that provided the bridge by which a person related to the environment the events he or she had experienced. They assumed that an individual responds to and interacts with his or her environment by analyzing and organizing it into meaningful patterns according to his or her own physical and psychological needs. As a result of this interaction, an individual develops perceptual and behavioral constancies, which stem from the individual’s standardized evaluative predilections toward differentiation of his or her external world. They refer to such evaluative tendencies as “concepts.”

Personal lifetime experiences are comprised of a four-stage conceptual development: (a) unilateral dependence, (b) negative independence, (c) conditional dependence and mutuality, and (d) interdependence. The progressive social development, though cyclical and saccadic, is described in directional terms as proceeding from the concrete to the abstract. That is, one’s conceptual systems in the first stage—*unilateral dependence*—are characterized by authority and external control. In a novel or relatively unstructured situation, an individual will maximally accept the externally derived concepts and seek external criteria for evaluating his or her behavior. In the second stage, as the importance of external control is lessened and internal control initially emerges, an individual develops a secure sense of self, *negative independence*. The second stage concepts emerge as the self-differentiation, thus making the dependency at a different level of abstraction possible. The third stage, *conditional dependence and mutuality*, involves viewing the social environment in a more objective way and making mutual relationship possible. The individual in this stage views others less subjectively and more in terms of others’ standards and past experiences. One of the most significant aspects of the transition from the second to the third stage is the change in the conception of causality. That is, at the third stage, an individual’s behavior becomes more independent of rather than dependent upon the external variables. In the fourth stage, *interdependence*, the integration of mutuality and autonomy becomes positive and interreliant, with subject-object linkages being abstract and informational. This is the most complex stage, variously called “integrative complexity,” “conceptual complexity,” “conceptual level,” and “abstractness.”

Conceptual systems theory has been described as a personality theory that focuses on individual differences in social cognition within a developmental framework, and it has been proposed that the theory characterizes individuals in terms of the structure and content of their conceptual systems. Conceptual systems theory postulates a developmental sequence in which each stage is characterized by progressively higher levels of differentiation and integration. In most accounts, conceptual system complexity is identified as the key element, where high levels of complexity imply high levels of both cognitive differentiation and cognitive integration.

Conceptual systems theory has been utilized in a series of empirical studies and also has been applied to human problem areas, such as education, alcoholism, family violence, and youth delinquency. In addition, conceptual systems theory may be applied to leadership.

The application of conceptual systems theory in leadership holds implications for developing effective leadership. Conceptual systems theory focuses on the levels of leaders’ cognitive complexity (i.e., cognitive differentiation and integration). The important thing to consider is the conceptual level of leaders in relation to the conceptual level of individuals surrounding them. Furthermore, the application of conceptual systems theory is concerned with how leaders develop strategies to induce conceptual change among the followers.

The level of a leader’s cognitive complexity may directly affect the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of that leader. As leaders encounter multiple contests and realities, it is important that they are able to operate at the highest stage of conceptual systems theory (i.e., interdependence). In this stage, leaders take into account the divergent perspectives of the various members of the organization. Less effective leaders are likely to operate with less conceptual complexity (i.e., at the unilateral dependence stage of conceptual systems theory).

In their *Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Profile*, developed in 1989, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard analyzed the followers’ maturity or readiness, which is related to the developmental stages identified in conceptual systems theory. In relation to conceptual systems theory, the matrix of leadership behavior options and the followers’ maturity employed by Hersey and Blanchard may oversimplify the leader-follower relationship, because the stages of conceptual systems theory overlap throughout an individual’s lifetime.

However, research has suggested that as leaders become more experienced, they may become more cognitively and psychologically complex. When they reach the highest stage of conceptual system theory, *interdependence*, leaders will have developed complex behavioral repertoires and expertise, from which they can draw for dealing with the complex
environments of organizations filled with a variety of social exchanges between subordinates and supervisors. If the complex leader-follower relationship is appropriately managed, it not only contributes to the cognitive complexity of both the leader and the followers but also facilitates the conceptual change among followers, which enables them to reach higher levels of differentiation and integration. Consequently, the idea here is that the development of followers’ conceptual systems will empower them and thus result in greater effectiveness of the leader, the organization, and its members.

—Beverly Irby, Genevieve Brown, and Ling Ling Yang

See also cognition, theories of; collaboration theory; hierarchy, in organizations; leadership, theories of; management theories; organizational theories; personality; principal-agent theory; problem solving; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References


CONDITIONING THEORY

Conditioning theory involves both respondent conditioning and operant conditioning. In essence, conditioning theory holds that the chance of specific, observable responses can be increased by pairing positive consequences with appropriate antecedents and/or desired behaviors.

Respondent or classical conditioning involves the pairing of a specific antecedent (stimulus) with a given consequence that will produce a reflexive response. Pavlov’s experiments in classical conditioning involved pairing a bell with the presentation of food to induce salivation in a dog. Eventually, the bell alone was sufficient to elicit the salivation response. An example of classical conditioning in the educational profession would be a teacher who is verbally demeaning, intimidating, and abusive to students to the extent that the students become anxious and hypersensitive. Eventually, the students might respond with anxiety prior to the teacher’s class or simply to hearing the teacher’s name.

Operant or instrumental conditioning involves following a given response with a specific consequence. Following a response with a desirable consequence increases the chance that the response will be repeated. Following the response with an aversive or neutral consequence reduces the chance that the behavior will be repeated. Basically, in operant conditioning, an organism (rat, pigeon, human) “operates” in the environment and produces a response that will likely bring about a desired consequence. An example of operant conditioning in the educational profession would be a student who consistently misbehaves and is eventually suspended for 3 days. As there are few positive consequences and many aversive consequences for him in the school environment, he finds the suspension a rewarding experience (i.e., he can escape from an unpleasant environment). The student will likely increase the frequency and intensity of his misbehaviors to bring about additional suspensions and further escape the unpleasant school environment.

When a consequence is paired with a specific antecedent, the strength of that antecedent is increased. Therefore, each time the antecedent occurs, an individual becomes more likely to produce the desired response in order to gain the positive consequence or avoid the aversive consequence. Once an antecedent consistently elicits a specific response, it is termed a discriminative stimulus. That is, it identifies the range of behaviors likely to produce a given consequence. Intentionally programming or including these discriminative stimuli into various environments facilitates the generalization of the associated responses to new settings. For example, an adolescent with mental
retardation might be taught to wash dishes by having a specific antecedent (i.e., the command "wash the dishes") paired with a positive consequence (praise and a Coke) in their special education classroom. Parents could use the same antecedent and consequence at home to elicit the dishwashing response, as could an employer in the job setting.

Extinction, or the elimination of a behavior, involves weakening the effect of the discriminative stimulus by providing a neutral consequence. It is essentially the opposite of generalization. An example of extinction in the educational profession would be ignoring a student’s spontaneous outbursts when answering questions and attending to him only if he first raised his hand and was called on before speaking.

The application of conditioning theory to educational settings is designed to reduce the number and intensity of inappropriate, undesirable behaviors in students and increase the frequency and intensity of desirable, appropriate classroom behaviors. Conditioning theory forms the foundation for most classroom management programs, intervention programs for students with disabilities, and many approaches to administration and leadership.

Operant conditioning is employed (on a deliberate basis) more frequently in school settings as a means to develop specific skills, facilitate generalization of responses to new environments, and manage problem behaviors. Respondent conditioning does, however, occur in the school environment, but is most often an unintentional result of ongoing human interactions.

—J. M. Blackbourn and Debbie Chessin

See also Baer, Donald; behaviorism; Binet, Alfred; Cattell, Raymond; cognition, theories of; constructivism; discipline in schools; early childhood education; expulsion, of students; feedback; giftedness, gifted education; Havighurst, Robert; individual differences, in children; intelligence; instructional interventions; mastery learning; measurement, theories of; metacognition; Piaget, Jean; problem solving; psychology, types of; psychometrics; Skinner, B. F.; Spearman, Charles; special education; standardized testing; Thorndike, Edward; Wolf, Montrose

Further Readings and References


Conflict Management

Power and organizational politics by their very nature create differing levels of conflict. Generally, conflict is influenced by places, issues, and the people involved. However, too often, school leaders are not equipped to resolve conflicts. Consequently, effective school administrators spend a substantial amount of time and energy mediating circumstances where individual needs and expectations of the organization conflict. This has become even more pronounced considering all of the stakeholders with whom administrators must be involved.

There are two basic dimensions of behavior that produce conflict:

1. Attempting to satisfy organizational demands
2. Attempting to meet needs of individual members

The dimension of satisfying organizational needs is considered along an assertive-unassertive continuum, while the dimension attempting to satisfy individual member needs is considered from an uncooperative to cooperative continuum.

Within this framework, one can see five styles of conflict management: avoiding (low cooperation, low assertiveness), compromising (in the center), competing (low cooperation, high assertiveness), accommodating (high cooperation, low assertiveness), and collaborating (high assertiveness, high cooperation). Each of the styles has a level of effectiveness when it is used in the appropriate situation. For example, an avoiding style on the continuum is unassertive and uncooperative. In this case, the leader would ignore conflicts, and in minor issues or when things just need time to “cool down,” this can be an effective strategy. However, if the principal discovers that he or she has made a mistake or wants to build goodwill toward other more important issues, the appropriate style would be accommodating, which is low assertive and high cooperation.

In addition to understanding the levels of conflict, there are other skills and knowledge that can strengthen a leader’s ability to successfully bring about
resolution. For example, critical skills in conflict management are represented in human relations behaviors that communicate a positive attitude toward others. This includes fostering a spirit of collegiality and goodwill among all stakeholders. To do this, leaders must be aware of the importance of communicating in actions, not just words, and be sensitive to perceptions of staff members in the decision-making process. This type of conflict management not only fosters unity among staff but also decreases conflict through shared decision making, defining instructional issues, pooling resources, identifying appropriate goals, and collaborating on objectives.

One strategy for reducing conflict is to implement the concept of quality circles. This process involves six steps: problem identification, problem selection, problem analysis, recommended solutions, management review, and recommendations for implementation. Better communications result in an increased sense of belonging, providing quick feedback, focusing clearly on primary purposes, and improving positive communication to all stakeholders within the school community.

Other strategies for managing conflict include:

- Expanding needed resources
- Having an appeals system in place so that all parties can be heard
- Being open to changing interaction patterns between conflicting individuals or groups
- Modifying the reward system when an actual or perceived inequity exists
- Clarifying ambiguous roles
- Consulting with a third party
- Accepting responsibility for the conflict in the system by the leader

—Sandra Harris

See also  administration, theories of; capacity building, of organizations; chain of command; communications, theories in organizations; decision making; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; group dynamics; hierarchy, in organizations; human resource development; infrastructure, of organizations; involvement, in organizations; line and staff concept; management theories; organizational theories; personnel management; power; problem solving; role conflict

Further Readings and References


CONSIDERATION, CARING

To care and be cared for are fundamental needs of humans. When someone cares for and shows consideration toward another, the other’s point of view and needs are addressed. Caring requires different behaviors from situation to situation and person to person.

Nel Nodding contends education would be best organized around centers of care: caring for self, intimate others, global others, plants, animals, and the environment, the human-made world, and ideas. Caring for self involves understanding the self in the following areas: physical, spiritual, occupational, and recreations. Nodding insists that caring for intimate others includes happy, healthy children; cooperative and considerate behavior; competence in the ordinary affairs of life; intellectual curiosity; openness and willingness to share; a confessed interest in existential questions; and a growing capacity to contribute to and thrive in intimate relationships. With relations of trust and care established, children may be prepared to care for global others in the wider world of casual acquaintances and strangers. Caring for animals, plants, and the environment addresses the need for children to understand that the quality of human life cannot be completely separated from the conditions that nurture other living things. Caring for the human-made world is not the same as caring for living things; however, how people choose to treat things has an impact on both human and nonhuman life. Caring for ideas focuses on the perspective that teaching should begin with the purposes, interests, and capacities of students.

Based on this ethic of caring, a moral education is established from four components: modeling, dialogue, practice, and confirmation. Modeling allows educators to show students how to care through their own relations with caring for others; and modeling
allows students to experience the impact being cared for can have on an individual’s life. Dialogue involves open-ended, genuine conversation where neither has preconceived ideas at the outset what the outcome or decision will be. Dialogue permits talking about what everyone is trying to show; it connects individuals and helps maintain caring relations. Practice helps shape attitudes and mentalities by experience. If the desire is to have people approach life prepared to care, they need opportunities to gain caregiving skills and attitudes. **Confirmation** is the act of affirming and encouraging the best in others. Confirmation can encourage development in an individual and improve self-esteem.

In a caring school community, students can experience a developmentally appropriate version of the type of social justice and caring that is depicted in a democratic society. Caring implies a relationship; appropriate caring in teacher-student relationships is demonstrated differently from caring in other types of relationships. Teacher-student relationships are formed to promote learning and academic growth within students. The relationships can be considered influential relationships. Key characteristics identify the caring, influential relationships between teachers and students. First, the central concern is planned change or growth (e.g., teachers intentionally plan learning activities to increase student academic growth). Second, the successful conclusion of the relationship involves termination (e.g., students pass from grade to grade). Third, the power between the individuals is asymmetrical. The teacher holds most of the power and is expected to know and give more than the student. A teacher’s respect and ethical use of power are key to students’ perceptions of caring. Such respectful treatment is critical for creating a caring learning environment, promoting academic growth of students, and enhancing a teacher’s ability to make a difference in students’ lives.

Nodding has provided the following suggestions about nurturing and caring for students:

- Be clear and unapologetic about our goal. The main aim of education should be to produce competent, caring, loving, and loveable people.
- Take care of affiliative needs. We must keep students and teachers together (by mutual consent) for several years, and we must keep students together when possible.
- Relax the impulse to control. We need to give teachers and students more responsibility to exercise judgment.
- Get rid of program hierarchies. We must begin to provide excellent programs for all our children.
- Give at least part of the day to themes of care. We should discuss existential questions—including spiritual matters—freely.
- Teach students that caring in every domain implies competence. When we care, we accept the responsibility to work continuously on our competence so that the recipient of our care—person, animal, object, or idea—is enhanced.

>—Jean M. Haar

**See also** at-risk students; behaviorism; children and families in America; cognition, theories of; dropouts; egocentrism, theories of; esteem needs; ethics; ethos, of organizations; feminism and theories of leadership; flow theory; hierarchical developmental models; Maslow, Abraham; mentoring; metacognition; morale; morality, moral leadership; motivation, theories of; personality; self-actualization; violence in schools

**Further Readings and References**


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**CONSOLIDATION, OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS**

Consolidation is the merging or reorganizing of two or more schools or districts into one larger unit. Although much consolidation of districts and schools has occurred over the past 150 years, the topic remains a subject of controversy.

Statistics on numbers of schools and school districts show that since 1869 to 1870, both the number of schools and the number of districts have declined drastically, while student enrollment has grown. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reports that 116,312 public schools existed in 1869 to 1870; by 2000 to 2001, there were 92,273 schools. The
fewest schools, reported at 83,165, existed in 1988 to 1989. These data may reflect the patterns of consolidation and declining enrollments during the 1970s and 1980s and the recent enrollment boom (see Table 1).

The number of school districts has also declined. NCES reports that in 1939 to 1940, there were 117,108 school districts. By 1979 to 1980, the number of school districts had declined to 15,929. NCES estimates that there were 14,928 school districts in 1999 to 2000. In 2000 to 2001, 71.3% of the school districts in the United States had fewer than 2,500 students enrolled. Only 18% of 46.9 million students enrolled in U.S. schools attended these schools. Districts with 25,000 and more students comprised 1.6% of total U.S. school districts and enrolled 32.4% of the student population. Placing highly qualified teachers in the various sciences and advanced courses in math, English, and social science classrooms is a challenge.

Efforts to provide high school students with more curricular opportunities have resulted in the construction of regional high schools. While this is laudable, there are the costs of construction and increased transportation. Moving students from small, local schools to distant locations increases the time students must spend on the bus.

In addition to the efficiency and curricular arguments, school finance experts posit that consolidation may provide greater funding equity as tax bases are combined.

Counter arguments exist in defense of small schools and districts. First, research shows that the savings from consolidation fall far short of expectations. Research also shows that combining tax bases to improve equity works only if the effort results in less state funding to the newly combined district. Combining two poor districts into a larger but still poor district will not improve equity without continued state funding, thereby negating possible savings.

Opponents of consolidation argue that small schools are safer, friendlier, better tied to community values, and better for student learning. Research shows that students in smaller schools perform better on standardized tests and have more opportunities to participate in cocurricular and extracurricular activities. However, these reports also indicate that a high school should service at least 400 students.

Education is replete with paradoxes, and the discussion of consolidation is not exempt. While there are many proponents of consolidation, there are also many proponents of charter schools. Charter school rhetoric extols the virtues of small schools but ignores the arguments about efficiency. In some states, such as

### Table 1

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<th>Year</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
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<td>1999–2000</td>
<td>46,857,000</td>
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Michigan, charter schools are treated as school districts. Michigan school district data show a sharp increase in the number of school districts from 624 in 1994 (just prior to charter school legislation) to 734 in 2001. Charter schools may also account for the number of one-teacher schools still in existence.

—Catherine C. Sielke

See also accountability; community relations; efficacy theory; elementary schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; extracurricular activities; finance, of public schools; high schools; junior high schools; middle schools; property tax; restructuring, of schools; rural education; school districts, history and development; school size; staffing, concepts of; taxes, to support education

Further Readings and References


**CONSTRUCTIVISM**

Constructivism is a contemporary epistemology that holds that human beings construct knowledge by giving meaning to current experiences in light of prior knowledge, mental structures, experiences, and beliefs. It is based on the assumption that the source of a person’s understanding of external phenomena is in the person’s mind. The grid of the mind shapes the individual’s responses. Some constructivists believe that there is no objective world independent of human mental activity. They claim that each individual creates his or her personal world, and any one world is no more real than the other. Other constructivists believe the mind is instrumental in interpreting events, objects, and perspectives in the real world and those interpretations produce a knowledge base that is idiosyncratic.

Applied to education, constructivist theory acknowledges the impact of unobservable events on human behavior. The mind is viewed as an active

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participant in helping people make sense of reality. Using the scientific metaphor of the “black box,” a constructivist orientation attempts to make sense of what comes between instruction (input) and achievement (output), connecting students’ achievements to the knowledge, skills, and strategies they bring to a learning situation.

The behaviorist tradition has dominated formal schooling for the past 100 years and is still a major determinant in how schools are managed and how students are taught. To a behaviorist, all events are clearly observable, and since the activities of the mind are not observable, mind as a concept, is not useful. The behaviorists reason that while the mind may exist, it is an unnecessary construct in understanding the learning process.

For the behaviorist, learning results when students are taught to respond uniformly to an objective interpretation of reality. While reality may change in light of new discoveries, learning about reality is a matter of reinforcing correct responses and extinguishing incorrect ones. This orientation has led to a legion of school practices, such as textbook teaching, one-size-fits-all instructional methodology, ability grouping, norm-referenced testing, normal distribution curves, and rewards-and-punishment discipline programs.

The constructivist views learning as an individual matter. No two learners are identical even though they may have similar needs and share common experiences. Learners construct reality in terms of their prior experiences, their conceptual knowledge, their procedural schemas, their values, their attitudes, and their preferred ways of knowing. Mind serves as the mediator between the learner and external reality.

In a school setting, information presented to students in lecture or text may not be the information that is ultimately received. No matter how clearly a teacher or a text presents information, no two learners receive it in exactly the same way. The fidelity of the reception depends on several preexisting variables within each learner. No matter how logically the curriculum is presented, the individual learner determines the outcome.

**HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES**

Jerome Bruner claimed that constructivism began with Immanuel Kant, who in his *Critique of Pure Reason* argued that the human mind is an originator of experience rather than a passive recipient of perception. Kant believed that the external physical world is known only through individual sensations. The representation makes the object possible rather than the object making the representation possible. Humans are interpreters who construct their own reality through engaging in mental activities.

John Dewey’s laboratory school at the University of Chicago is arguably the first formal attempt to institute some form of constructivism in an educational setting. He believed in the centrality of the individual student and organized the laboratory school accordingly. To Dewey, all learning experiences are integrated from the vantage point of the individual student. The laboratory school program began and ended with the individual student. The project method was the school’s mainstay.

The focus for the younger children was on familiar occupations. Teachers led children from their initial understandings of the occupations to more detailed investigations. As the children explored the community directly, the teachers skillfully drew their attention to various aspects of the environment, which they often overlooked spontaneously. The children expressed newly found understandings through oral expression, dictation to teachers, writing, replicas, models, and artwork. As students progressed through the school, they moved from group inquiry to group-and-individual inquiry, culminating at the secondary level with experimental research and formal projects. For Dewey, life itself was the context for present and future learning.

Jean Piaget, the Swiss genetic epistemologist, was perhaps the most influential proponent of educational constructivism. He postulated that at different periods, children use different mental structures to think about and make sense of the world. The structures available to children are determined by their biological readiness and their life experiences.

Piaget claimed that children go through invariant stages of development, which influence their levels of learning. The particular stage of development—preoperational, operational, concrete, and abstract—determines how a child responds to new situations. He believed that learning tasks could be designed so that students stretched their cognitive structures, but within the limits of their particular stages of development.

Bruner, in his book, *The Process of Education*, went beyond Piaget to suggest that language and experience affect when a child advances from one stage to the next and can be directly influenced by appropriate
instruction. He argued that anything could be taught to anyone if it is presented in an intellectually honest fashion. His rejoinder appeared to foreshadow a new agenda for constructivist research.

CONTEMPORARY CONSTRUCTIVISM

Contemporary proponents of constructivism include Howard Gardner, of Harvard. He posits three levels of understanding—the naive learner, the traditional student, and the expert—and contends that if naive learner’s misconceptions are not challenged by instruction, they remain with them, even through university study.

The idea of comparing a naive learner with an expert or master is found in much of today’s constructivist research. Researchers carefully examine how experts approach a problem and compare this approach with the approach of a less informed and less experienced person. Experts see problems differently and initiate more sophisticated protocols. Their strategies become the ultimate target behaviors for novitiates. For example, six functions that are considered essential to expert reading comprehension have been identified. The expert reader understands that the goal of reading is to construct meaning, activates relevant background information, allocates attention to concentrate on major content ideas, evaluates the constructed meaning for internal consistency and compatibility with prior knowledge, draws and tests inferences, and monitors all of the above to determine if comprehension is occurring.

To achieve expertise in reading comprehension, for example, there appear to be four simple strategies: summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. This includes reciprocal teaching, an instructional approach incorporating these strategies, to help students construct meaning from written symbols. Teachers are counseled to model expert performance for students, with the goal of having all students invoke the strategies spontaneously. As student performance becomes more expert, less and less help from teachers is required.

It seems difficult to discuss constructivism separate from an understanding of how individual learners process information. All learners construct meaning from external information by comparing and contrasting the new information with information held in long-term memory. How that information is stored in long-term memory contributes significantly to the quality and depth of the meaning constructed.

Information processing begins with external information being accepted or rejected by an individual. If accepted, it proceeds through working memory to long-term memory and back again. Expert learners approach learning tasks differently because they are more in control of their learning than are naive learners. They know how to learn, represent problems more realistically, derive more meaningful constructs from external information, utilize working memory more efficiently, and organize knowledge in long-term memory so that it is readily and appropriately available. In essence, they are in control of their own learning.

Earlier constructivism focused on general statements such as:

- Individual learners construct knowledge by giving meaning to current experiences in light of the prior knowledge;
- Each person makes sense of his or her world by synthesizing new experiences into what he or she has previously come to understand.

Today, researchers are more interested in determining the specifics to which these generalizations refer so that strategies can be prescribed to enable novice learners to advance to more sophisticated levels.

SOME BASIC PRINCIPLES CONSTRUCTIVISM APPLIED TO EDUCATION

- Knowledge is generated by both the external world and the subjective internal world of the learner.
- A learner’s general and domain-specific knowledge determines the meaning that he or she derives from any experience.
- Each learner is an active participant in constructing meaning from external reality.
- Multiple interpretations of reality exist in any given instructional setting.
- Learning involves understanding concepts and procedures at ever-increasing levels of complexity.
- As learners advance in their learning, they form more accurate pictures of content and process

IMPLICATIONS OF CONSTRUCTIVISM FOR SCHOOL PRACTICE

Is the mind merely a tool for reproducing the real world, or does the mind produce its own, unique conception of events and objects? The answer to these two questions may pique the interest of current constructivist research, but it does little to guide the
educational practitioner searching for ways to ensure that all students reach their potential. For most educators, the answer lies somewhere between the two extremes. Western culture generally accepts the existence of a real world outside the apperceptions of the individual. Current efforts at school accountability assume there is a body of knowledge external to individual students that all should be expected to achieve. It is the achievement of knowledge and skills associated with that knowledge that guides the work of educators.

Constructivism, buttressed by research in cognitive science, is changing the way instruction is designed and delivered in the public schools. Constructivist ideas are beginning to find their way into educational practice.

Learning Is an Active Process

Students act on information based on their current knowledge and level of functioning. The activity may be hands-on or it may be mental, but some form of activity is occurring. Teachers grounded in cognitive research develop learning environments supportive of where students are and fashion interventions to strengthen students’ abilities to make sense of what they perceive. These interventions include diagnosing and accommodating learning style differences, augmenting the skills that control a student’s information processing system, and offering challenges to individual students within their zone of proximal development.

How Students Are Taught Is Equally Important to What They Are Taught

Presenting information and skills to students in relevant contexts increases the likelihood they will be able to transfer the knowledge and skills to real-world situations. Learning occurs most effectively in context, and the context becomes an important part of the knowledge associated with the learning. Thorndike’s theory of “identical elements” supports the notion that what is learned in context can be more easily transferred to situations beyond formal schooling. Researchers at the Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools (CORS) at the University of Wisconsin characterize authentic human achievement in terms of three criteria: (a) construction of knowledge, (b) disciplined inquiry, and value beyond school. In this context, teachers offer multiple opportunities for students to express what they know in various forms and serve as facilitators, coaches, guides, and mentors, in a type of cognitive apprenticeship.

Collaborative Learning Arrangements Are Fundamental to Achieving Multiple Representations of School Content

Because individual students bring a variety of experiences to any learning task, placing them in collaborative groups facilitates the sharing of ideas, perspectives, and concepts and provides an opportunity for them to view things from a different perspective. Considerable evidence exists that students learn better in cooperative groups than they do individually. Constructivist teaching involves students in collaborative groups, such as cooperative learning, reciprocal teaching, and long-term projects.

Assessment of Student Learning Is Integrated Into Daily Instructional Routines

From a constructivist perspective, when a student answers a test question incorrectly, it is the teacher’s responsibility to discover what question he or she answered correctly. How would the student see the world in order to answer the question the way he or she did? If the teacher successfully reconstructs the student’s mental state, then he or she is in a position to intervene and help the student improve. Students’ inaccurate responses often represent the state of their current thinking about topics. Their responses can give teachers clues as to what to do next. Offering a learning environment free of failure can invite students to exhibit what they have internalized. Making assessment a part of instruction allows teachers and students to make midterm corrections.

Constructivism is more closely aligned with the Eastern philosophic belief of nonduality. As the world has been brought closer together by electronics, the unity of the knower and the known has begun to filter into Western thought and challenge the validity of an objective reality independent of individual perceptions. This convergence of Eastern and Western thought causes both positions to question what has remained unquestioned for centuries. The behaviorist tradition, once the guiding force in education, is being challenged by a constructivist view, which places the individual at the center of knowing.

Individuals assign meaning to events, objects, and information based on their prior experiences, depth of knowledge, and their ability to control the human information-processing system effectively. In this
sense, each person’s interpretation of reality is different because each person’s background and resulting apperceptions are different.

Constructivist teaching practices are designed to help students to internalize new information in an endeavor to create new understandings. To a constructivist, learning is more than memorizing material to pass a standardized test. It involves challenging students to develop new cognitive structures leading to more sophisticated meanings. The ability to solve difficult problems depends on the knowledge, skills, and strategies an individual owns generally and in a specific domain. Instruction is a developmental process that begins with a student’s current level of functioning and moves him or her along a continuum toward expert performance.

—Jack Jenkins

See also behaviorism; child development theories; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; curriculum, theories of; Dewey, John; early childhood education; egocentrism, theories of; giftedness, gifted education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning, theories of; metacognition; motivation, theories of; philosophies of education; Piaget, Jean; psychology, types of; psychometrics; special education

Further Readings and References

CONSTRUCTIVISM, SOCIAL

In looking for constructivism in 1990 in education, you would find hardly a mention, although in science and mathematics, the “science wars” about constructivism started earlier. Jacqueline G. Brooks and Martin G. Brooks introduced the construct/theory/philosophy into education in In Search of Understanding: The Case for Constructivist Classrooms, in 1993.

The fathers of contemporary constructivism start with eighteenth-century philosopher Immanuel Kant.

Philosopher Denis C. Phillips noted that Kant argued that certain aspects of knowledge of the physical universe (time and space, for example) were products of our own cognitive apparatus—we construct the universe to have certain properties, or, rather, our faculty of understanding imposes those temporal and spatial properties on our experience.

René Descartes asserted that he had examined all of his beliefs and dropped those that did not meet his “light of reason” test. While this does not make him a constructivist, he was questioning beliefs unless they could be proven. Jean-Jacques Rousseau and Johann H. Pestalozzi are next, the former believing that students learn through their senses, their experience, and their activities. Pestalozzi believed that the student’s mind received impressions through observation and experience and that these impressions produced ideas and an organized mental structure that a person used to compare, separate, sort, or conclude.

The next major contributor to constructivism was Jean Piaget, who studied how children formed their basic concepts. His The Construction of Reality in the Child, in 1954, concluded that the child constructed his or her own reality. Obviously, Piaget embraced constructivist viewpoints, as did Jerome Bruner, for whom discovery was the core of thinking.

MODERATE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

There are two major approaches to constructivist thinking, psychological and social constructivism. The former referred to viewpoints about how persons learned, constructing their own sets of meanings. Social constructivism relates to the construction of fields of knowledge. Such fields are not “objective” reflections of some “external world.”

Moderate social constructivism holds that the social world is socially constructed, a generalization supported by Peter L. Berger and Thomas Luckmann’s The Social Construction of Reality. Obviously, we construct the entire social world, including daily norms, concepts, cultures, and subcultures. For example, English is read left to right; Hebrew is read right to left. Chinese is read up and down. Hieroglyphics is read in the direction to which a foot points. English starts every sentence with a capital letter, but Hebrew capitalizes selected letters at the sentence’s end. Children’s worlds are significantly different than many adults over 40 realize. They hop onto the Internet before they can read, are adept at video and electronic games at
3 or 4, and are heavily impacted by television. Thus, the social worlds of these children are significantly different from ours. Some basic concepts that we believe have existed for centuries are recent. For example, Paul Revere crammed 14 into a tiny home. Obviously, colonialists had little sense of privacy, which presently has become a constitutional right.

Other fundamental ideas and concepts we take for granted have been integrated into Western culture recently, such as discovery learning (credit Piaget) or multiple intelligences. IQ was formulated early in the last century, yet these constructs are treated as eternal. Potential (the construct underlying IQ and capacities), now entering leadership literature, stems from Aristotle. Even the atom was constructed by the Greeks, as were science, philosophy, theater (including drama and comedy), logic, democracy, and art.

George Herbert Mead wrote his seminal *Mind, Self, and Society*, focusing on the interrelationships of processes that form the human mind, the self, and society, in the process founding contemporary social psychology. The process by which objects become significant or social is through interaction. Objects become important (significant) if they have meaning attached to them. A sheet of paper can become a ball if crumpled and treated as a ball, or it can be perceived as a paper airplane if folded and treated as an airplane. To Mead, objects become significant once they are treated with meaning—and meaning is social meaning. Thus, constructs, concepts, are social in nature, and they develop through language.

Mead, who founded symbolic interaction in sociology, focused on the processes by which a person’s “self” is created. It is formed through social interaction, the self being that part of ourselves that permits us to interact with ourselves, by treating the self as an object. Note that we carry on conversations with ourselves, such as deciding what to make for dinner or playing tennis (where we find fault in ourselves for faulting).

**RADICAL SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM—A MAJOR THREAT TO THE ASSUMED OBJECTIVITY OF SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS**

Radical social constructivists tend to be sociologists who follow the Strong Program in the sociology of knowledge, believing that the form that knowledge takes in a discipline can be fully explained, or entirely accounted for, in sociological terms and is in no way a reflection of the “real world.” This form of social constructivism states that the hard sciences are socially constructed and are unable to claim objectivity free of social influences. The structure and knowledge of sciences and mathematics are determined by social forces. The claim of objectivity and of certainty that Western culture ascribes to science and mathematics is a delusion, undermining these fields, making it difficult to differentiate science from nonsense. If science has neither objectivity nor validity, there is no certainty. The Strong Program led to the “science wars,” begun in the 1980s, before general education awoke to constructivism.

Thus, the nature of reality and the concept of existence are meaningless, not because of the nature of the world, but because of the construction of the human being. People find it simply impossible to transcend their own human reference point. The deeper issue is whether the objects that are known are given independently of the knower or are in some way made or constituted by the knower’s activities. Put in another way, the contentious issue is not whether knowledge is made or found, but whether “reality” is made or found.

**RECOGNIZING CONSTRUCTIVIST LEADERSHIP**

It has been noted that administrator preparation programs were lagging behind those for teachers, pointing to the gap between knowledge and skills learned by teachers and behavioral categories evaluating teacher performance. Administrators lacked understanding criteria teachers were using to assess students. Further contradictions appear when states impose high-stakes testing approaches on schools in lower-socioeconomic areas by using a carrot-and-stick model of motivation (students are threatened by retention, teachers and principals by removal or by financial threats). While some tests have some higher-order thinking, real threats forced many educators into discredited instructional practices antithetical to constructivism (direct instruction, prescriptive programs, behavioral approaches).

Constructivism decentralizes, the small group being the fundamental instructional vehicle. That decentralizes to individuals, because individuals have to make numerous decisions and choices to carry out roles to achieve goals the social systems and individuals develop. To date, there has not been a lot on the development of constructivist leadership practices. Samuel S. Krug noted that what distinguished effective instructional leaders from others was that they
developed proactive approaches guided by distinctive beliefs about the possible. Krug reported that qualitative differences in principals’ performances were explained by differences in meanings they attributed to their activities, not by differences in their activities. Lynn H. Doyle analyzed four ethnographic studies of schools, finding that the most successful schools developed shared visions with the community. The dearth of literature is paralleled by lack of constructivist graduate programs.

—Arthur Shapiro

See also administration, theories of; human resource development; management theories; metacognition; organizational theories; Piaget, Jean

Further Readings and References


CONTEXTUAL KNOWLEDGE

Contextual knowledge is a set of features intertwined with an environment, within which a person makes connections, comparisons, and analogies. The existence and use of contextual knowledge enable people to make their decisions and perform different organizational tasks; thus, organizations focus much of their attention on this area.

Knowledge can be broadly defined as congeries of information, the objectivity of which humans implicitly and explicitly argue for and value, a view that is based on the usefulness of meaningfully organized information accumulated through experience, communication, and inference. It can be viewed both as objects pending storage and manipulation, and as a sequential process of knowing and acting (i.e., the application of expertise). Knowledge has several types and functions. Comprehension about something is known as declarative knowledge, a shared, explicit understanding of concepts, categories, and descriptors that lays the foundation for effective communication. Comprehension about how something occurs or is performed is known as procedural knowledge. Shared procedural knowledge provides for the efficient coordination of actions in organizations. Comprehension about why something occurs is known as causal knowledge, which, often in the form of a story, enables organizations to coordinate strategies for achieving goals and outcomes.

Knowledge ranges from general to specific in organizations. General knowledge is broad, often publicly available, independent of particular events, and can be easily codified and meaningfully exchanged, in particular between different organizations. In contrast, specific knowledge is context dependent. Codifying this specific knowledge, so as to be meaningful across organizations, requires its context to be described in conjunction with its focus. This requires intercommunal, explicitly defined contextual categories and relationships.

Often knowledge is highly contextual, categories of which are first developed in local contexts, their names and their meanings socially negotiated. Even in the event that two processes are identical at a higher level of abstraction, they are likely to differ in the minutiae embedded in the meaning systems of their implementers. Some of these differences stem from the context of a process, others from coincidental circumstances. In general, this dependency is termed contextuality.

Contextual knowledge development is a cognitively complex process, which requires a great deal of information processing from people, mostly through implicit and explicit efforts to form schemas while
interpreting associated information. This necessitates having both declarative and procedural knowledge to subsequently arrive at an understanding of the pedagogical environment. Contextual knowledge is more or less people’s connotation for the term context; it contains general information about the situation or environment associated with a problem, which implicitly delimits the resolution space. It is evoked by a task or an event but does not focus on that task or the achievement of a goal. The proceduralized context is a part of contextual knowledge that is invoked, structured, and situated according to a given focus. This proceduralization is somewhat an instantiation.

Contextual knowledge can be seen as known information with an affiliation to an associated subject and developed consequential to predisposed ideas, or formerly substantiated schematic routes leading to the relevant subject. This affiliation can effectively be emotional, instinctive, habitual, or intellectual. It is strengthened by awareness, predisposition, or affiliation toward the subject and suggests the level of attraction people have for new knowledge.

Decision making is a dynamic process. From one step to the next, each snippet of contextual knowledge either enters the proceduralized context or becomes external knowledge. Conversely, a piece of the proceduralized context may develop into contextual or external knowledge. Thus, contextual content evolves continuously throughout the decision-making process. The proceduralized context may also evolve to integrate other knowledge that up to that point has neither been proceduralized nor is contextual (i.e., external knowledge).

As the knowledge of a person refers to certain life-worldly phenomena, which, in turn, relate to the person’s experiences of being and acting, thoughts and knowledge can be expressed by using variant linguistic expressions, respective to their lifeworlds. Therefore, when discussing knowledge, people need to involve the individual’s articulated and codified understanding, the words used to express the understanding, and the referents that have given rise to the understanding. In this way, all knowledge is contextual and intentional, meaning that it is related to things surrounding the respective knower.

Context is created through the observation and identification of declarative knowledge, the identification and recognition of objects, terms, definitions, facts, ideas, and comparison of any element with any other. Acquiring contextual knowledge (i.e., relating new knowledge to old) is necessarily influenced by the person’s point of view. Thus, the individual recognizes new knowledge by association. This may happen in a series of events, as when individuals are introduced to concepts in any order. As the individual recognizes multiple concepts or declarative element prompts, contextual processing occurs, and the intellect begins to calculate, compare, and process respective components. Contextual standards are also established by contextual knowledge, which determines the level at which information or skills have particular meaning. These, in turn, are dependant on the conditions that form their description.

To fully understand contextual knowledge, different organizational situations, in which knowledge is created, transferred, and utilized, require exploration. Assuming a particular action possibly will happen in an organizational situation, in order to act, a person must have contained respective and relative situational declarative information. The situational knowledge must also include knowledge about circumstance and objects existing within the situation. Also, the actor requires procedural knowledge concerning “how to perform” the action. Furthermore, and sufficient to this, to be rational, the actor must have knowledge about organizational goals and values (i.e., motivational knowledge). This knowledge about “why” concerns both the “what” and the “how”; values and norms concern both the action itself and the intended result and effects. This contextualized understanding encompasses a process view of knowledge, one that it is no doubt created, transferred, and utilized.

—Eunyoung Kim

See also decision making; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, theories of; management information systems; management theories; metacognition; organizational memory; organizational theories; qualitative research, history, theories, issues; research methods

Further Readings and References

CONTEXTUAL TEACHING AND LEARNING

Contextual teaching and learning (CTL) is a conception of pedagogy whereby educators use instructional approaches to relate subject matter content to real-world situations that, presumably, will help students relate this knowledge to their current and future roles as students, citizens, family members, and workers. Drawing on studies and development work in the late 1990s, various researchers employed an operational definition that stated that contextual teaching enabled learning in which students employ their academic understandings and abilities in a variety of in- and out-of-school contexts to solve simulated or real-world problems, both alone and with others. CTL emphasizes higher-level thinking, collecting and analyzing information and data from a variety of sources, and transfer of knowledge from school to out-of-school contexts.

Contextual teaching and learning is a response to a continuing challenge that so many students find school irrelevant to their lives and seem to have difficulty using knowledge they are required to learn to solve diverse, complex problems in other settings, inside and outside of school. For far too many students, especially those in high school, academic subjects seem to be taught through abstract, didactic, “chalk and talk” methods and textbook reading and memorization—all of which culminate in end-of-course or end-of-year test taking based on recall from class notes and the textbook.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

CTL is described as including at least seven strategies or instructional approaches that help students make meaning out of their school subjects. The methods of teaching that are used are based on the professional judgment of the teacher, the age and developmental level of the students, and the subject being taught. Among the approaches typically cited include:

- **Problem-based learning**—An instructional approach that uses real-world problems as a context for students to learn critical thinking and problem-solving skills and to acquire knowledge of essential concepts of a course. Learners draw on prior knowledge to understand and structure the problem, encode specificity (the context) into problem solving to make transfer of learning more likely, and elaborate on solutions through discussion, answering questions, peer teaching, and critiquing.
- **Project-based learning**—A comprehensive approach to classroom learning designed to engage student investigation of authentic problems, including an in-depth study of a topic worth learning. Typically, students are engaged in a relatively extensive project that involves considerable time and effort, is grounded in complex, real-world contexts, and is developed to require students to apply academic skills and knowledge. Learning further requires students to draw from many subjects and information sources to complete the project and manage and allocate resources such as time, materials, and technology appropriately.
- **Inquiry-based learning**—This approach is used concomitantly with reflective teaching and engages students in “what if” scenarios and investigations to construct mental frameworks that adequately explain their research and experiences. This instructional strategy is based on the theory of the inquiring mind, which seeks an answer, solution, explanation, or decision to some sort of query. Teachers and students read about, share, observe, critically analyze, and reflect upon that which is being studied to improve it, change, it, and or predict results.
- **Work-based learning**—An educational approach that uses work places to structure learning experiences that contribute to the intellectual, social, academic, and career development of students and supplements these with school activities that apply, reinforce, refine, or extend the learning that occurs at a work site. By so doing, students develop attitudes, knowledge, skills, insights, habits, and associations from both work and school experiences and are able to connect learning with real-life work activities.
- **Service learning**—An instructional method that combines community service with a structured school-based opportunity for reflection about that service, emphasizing the connection between service
experiences and academic learning. Service learning is integrated into students’ academic curriculum and provides structured time for students to think, talk, and write about the learning taking place. Service learning enhances what is learned in school by extending students’ learning beyond the classroom and into the community and helps to foster a sense of caring for others.

- **Collaborative/Cooperative learning**—Sometimes defined separately, but both are instructional strategies that emphasize small groups in which students work together to maximize their own and each other’s learning, accomplish a specific goal, or develop an end product. Ideally, learners engaging in cooperative or collaborative learning highlight individual group members’ abilities and contributions. They share authority and acceptance of responsibility among group members for the group’s actions. In general, collaborative learning focuses more on the process or working together, and cooperative learning (to complete or get the work done) stresses the product of such work but often includes some assessment of the process as well.

- **Authentic assessment**—Assessment is authentic when student performance is measured on achievement that represents accomplishments that are significant, worthwhile, and meaningful. Authentic assessments attend to whether the student can craft polished, thorough, and justifiable answers, performances, or products. It requires use of higher-order thinking skills, mastery of disciplinary context, elaborated communications, consideration of alternative solutions, and performance for authentic audiences. Authentic assessments typically include demonstrations of accomplishment, oral and written project reports, detail and descriptions of problems solved, evidence of work-based activities completed, critiques of literacy and technical work, criteria-referenced assessment (often aided with the use of rubrics) by teachers and others, case study analyses, and so forth. Typically, assessments are put forth in a portfolio of accomplishments that represents a history over time of learning, organized progress of accomplishments, direct and valid outgrowths of standards and objectives set for the curriculum or learning event, and input from multiple human resources.

Other terms, related descriptions, and strategies often used to illustrate contextual teaching and learning include hands-on learning, real-world learning, case-based learning, simulation, active learning, role-playing, applied learning, interdependent learning groups, and internships and externships.

**THEORETICAL GROUNDING**

The grounding of the contemporary work on contextual teaching and learning is based in the writings of John Dewey, in the early 1900s, who believed that schools must create communities of learners emphasizing experience, scientific methods of investigation, and democracy in the learning environment. John Dewey advocated a curriculum and teaching methodology tied to a child’s interests and experiences, blending mind and body, and linking academics to application. He believed that the most powerful learning would come from combining the intellectual and the practical and in situating learning in the vocations of adult life, whether in professions or trades, academics, or the arts.

Other theoretical strands over the years that have contributed to theory and practice of contextual teaching and learning include experiential learning, cognitive apprenticeship, transformative learning, critical theory, constructivism, reflective practice, adaptive teaching, action theories associated with situated cognition, social learning theory, communities of practice, and the work on multiple intelligences and different learning styles. An important basis for CTL is the brain-based research that shows that learning occurs faster and more thoroughly when what is being learned is presented in meaningful contexts, rather than fragmented facts, and that skills are developed more easily if learned in the context in which they will be used. Retention of new information (learning) requires cognitive restructuring and the connection of new information to what is already known.

Some theoretical strands have grounded contextual teaching and learning with research on student engagement, motivation, and the use of authentic intellectual work. Based on an analysis of many studies on academic engagement and motivation, particularly in high schools, the National Research Council Institute of Medicine concluded in 2004 that schools will become meaningful to students only when instruction draws on their preexisting understandings, interests, culture, and real-world experiences. Motivational researchers reach much the same conclusion and base their various theories on the idea that students will succeed if they see value in the subject either for themselves or their various communities, time and resources are provided to learn, their expectations for learning are met, and they have confidence that the effort expended will achieve positive results.

F. N. Newman and colleagues found in 1995 and 2001 that use of authentic pedagogy to produce
authentic, intellectual work by students resulted in improved student performance on standardized tests throughout schools in the United States regardless of gender, race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, grade level, or subject. Newman’s concept of authentic pedagogy includes active learning, intellectually worthy tasks, teaching strategies that engage students in constructing knowledge, authentic performance, value beyond school, and adherence to quality standards. Newman cites the studies of numerous researchers in the teaching of mathematics, reading, social studies, science, and other subjects who all conclude that complex intellectual academic work, combined with solid pedagogy that engages and challenges students with meaning beyond schools, results in students performing as well as or better than those who are exposed to basic skills only (i.e., “back to the basics”) and didactic teaching strategies. Newman’s conclusions were supported by other work that correlated various aspects of teacher quality to student test scores from the National Assessment of Educational Progress and concluded that hands-on learning is linked to higher scores in both math and science; higher-order thinking skill development (through contextualized strategies) improves math scores; and professional development linked to CTL-type teaching strategies helped special populations outperform their peers by more than a full grade level.

ASSUMPTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In effect, CTL provides a unifying base for a constellation of educational theories and practices and tests several assumptions and hypotheses. CTL is based on the hypothesis that students tend to retain higher-level knowledge and skills longer when their experiences occur in multiple contexts that are as close to real-life situations as possible. When teachers provide opportunities for students to learn in multiple contexts, they are drawing upon the theories of cognition and learning that suggest the acquisition of knowledge is situated in particular physical and social contexts and that learning is inseparable from the contexts and activities within which it develops. CTL accepts the principle that learning naturally occurs by all learners in a variety of contexts inside and outside of school, cyberspace, and even in one’s imagination. These multiple contexts offer valuable, engaging, and meaningful learning sites that extend beyond the school’s classroom, bring reality and illustration to the subjects being taught in school, and facilitate transfer of knowledge to contexts and situations with which the student may not currently be familiar. Effective use of context does necessitate complex interaction of teaching methods, content and standards, situation, and timing to enhance the use of workplaces and non-school contexts to enhance learning outcomes for students.

Contextual teaching involves a commitment to the learning of all students, regardless of age, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, family background, or disability. It also extends the concept of diversity to students with varying learning styles, values, personality characteristics, educational experiences, language, culture, and other life experiences that represent the many ways in which students are diverse. CTL implies a belief that all students can learn and that they usually learn more profoundly and deeply in classrooms that reflect diversity. Contextual teaching involves planning lessons and instruction in relation to the diverse beliefs, values, skills, and experiences that students from diverse backgrounds bring into classrooms. Because different students learn in different ways, CTL offers students a variety of ways to learn and to demonstrate that they have learned.

Another assumption underpinning CTL is that ultimately, students must take responsibility for their own learning and that they do aspire and can be motivated to become independent, self-regulated, lifelong learners. Self-regulated learners acquire the requisite academic knowledge and skills in self-control and planning that help them learn easier, and they are motivated to learn more. Self-regulated learners are assumed to be well equipped to acquire knowledge about the subject and the task at hand, and strategies to learn about the subject, themselves as learners, and contexts in which they will apply the learning. Furthermore, they are motivated to learn and find schoolwork and research in the real world interesting because they value learning and coming to know how knowledge is used and applied in context.

Thus, a common denominator of the varied theories and research on CTL-related components is that education should build actively on experience and contexts—such as workplaces, communities, and cultures—that are familiar to learners. CTL affects several aspects of schooling. For example, as a curriculum strategy, CTL emphasizes concrete applications of abstract ideas using contexts that have meaning, engage students in their learning, create opportunities for
students to experience applications of knowledge first hand, and may even organize an entire program of studies around a profession or theme (e.g., the arts, science, careers). CTL, as an instructional reform, affects how a curriculum is delivered and supplements traditional teaching methods by allowing students to design and carry out projects, engage in hands-on learning, and learn from complex problem solving involving cross-disciplinary knowledge and skills. Nearly all theory and research point to the result of CTL as students’ ability to apply knowledge in real-world contexts, engage in problem solving and higher levels of learning by drawing on various disciplines and sources of knowledge, and retain knowledge and its applications over the long term.

—Richard L. Lynch

See also child development theories; cognition, theories of; constructivism; critical thinking; cross-cultural studies; Dewey, John; early childhood education; expectations, teacher and student cultures; individual differences, in children; instructional interventions; intelligence; knowledge, practical; learning; theories of

Further Readings and References

Contingency theories refer to effective leadership behavior that is dependent on the interaction of the leader’s personal traits, the leader’s behavior, and factors in the leadership situation. Contingency theories are associated with leadership, management, and practice. Contingency theories are also known as situational theories. Path-goal theory is a contingency theory. Leadership varies with the situation. Contingency theories are associated with the scholarship of Fred Fiedler, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, and Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton. More currently, the work of James Spillane has been associated with contingency theory.

Contingency theory is governed by context, organizational structure, environment, and the interaction of the leader’s personal traits and situational aspects. It is based on context or situation line of scholarship focusing on relations between the situation of leaders’ work and their actions, goals, and behaviors. Contingency theory contends that there is no one best way to organize. Organizational structure matters when it comes to performance and the influences of group and team dynamics, political issues, culture, ethic, spirit, and change. The most effective method to organize depends on the organization’s environment, including group and team dynamics, political issues, culture, ethic, spirit, and change. Contingency theories are grounded on the relations between leaders and followers and the extent to which the leadership task is structured. Effective leadership depends on the interaction of the leader’s personal traits, the leaders’ behavior, and factors in the leadership situation. Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal assert that most contingency
theories fail to distinguish between leadership and management; however, they acknowledge that widely varying circumstances require different forms of leadership.

Fred Fiedler has asserted that the effectiveness of a leader in achieving high group performance is contingent on the leader’s motivational system and ability to influence the situation. He identifies three situational favorableness factors: leader/member relations, task structure, and the leader’s power position.

Hersey and Blanchard used a situational leadership model that identified task behaviors and relationship behavior. Task behavior is defined as one-way communication to explain what, how, when, and where tasks are to be performed or spell out duties and responsibilities of individuals and groups. Relationship behavior is defined as two-way communication to provide socioemotional support, psychological strokes, and facilitating behaviors. Two-way communication includes listening, encouraging, facilitating, providing clarification, and giving sociocultural support. Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership model combines task and people into a two-by-two process, which demonstrates four possible leadership styles, including telling, selling, participating, and delegating.

Bolman and Deal argue that Hersey and Blanchard’s model focuses primarily on the relationship between managers and subordinates and fails to meaningfully incorporate structure (organizational structure), politics, or symbols (culture). While contingency theory is criticized, it has made a major contribution to leadership research by focusing on context or the situation—the people, the task, and the organization. Leadership style may be more realistically realized as effective in one set of circumstances and ineffective in another. Leadership style should match the situation.

—Augustina Reyes

See also climate, school; collaboration theory; communications, theories in organizations; decision making; leadership, distributed; leadership, theories of; leadership effectiveness; management theories; motivation, theories of; organizational theories; path-goal leadership theory

Further Readings and References


Continuing education may be defined at the most basic level as education provided for adults after they have exited the formal education system. One learning network has extended this definition by describing continuing education as those courses, programs, or organized learning experiences that are usually taken after a degree is obtained to enhance one’s personal or professional goals. As such, continuing education, an overarching term which covers a wide range of subtopics, includes but is not limited to adult literacy, workplace learning, and lifelong learning. An expansive concept, continuing education addresses the continuum of educational needs of adult learners from basic literacy, to vocational and technical training and certification, to professional development and certification in numerous fields of study.

In addition, the term continuing education is often linked with adult and continuing education, signifying an acknowledgment of the significance of changing social patterns in education and the evolution and ultimate importance of adult learning theory. It was likely coined in the 1970s, with the emergence of interest in how adults learn, thanks to the work of theorists like Malcolm Knowles, often referred to as the “Father of Adult Education.” Frequently equated to workplace learning, continuing education encompasses certain basic tenets. These include the concept of building learning organizations; the presumption that workers are completely capable of being self-directed learners; and the constant focus on enabling informal learning by nurturing what Chris Lee refers to as “communities of practice.” Essentially, the core of continuing education presupposes that adults are motivated to learn and to learn from each other, that they want to master necessary skills and tasks they deem important and relevant to their circumstances, and finally, that they choose to seek control of their own learning.
ADULT EDUCATION

A major component of continuing education, adult education, by definition, addresses the basic skills adults must possess to be productive citizens. These skills include reading, writing, math, English language competency, and problem solving. Available on the Internet are numerous links to a variety of resources, ranging from Adult Basic Education to GED. Some of the foremost organizations associated with adult education include American Association of Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), Commission on Adult Basic Education, Community Partnerships for Adult Learning, Employment and Training Administration (U.S. Department of Labor), GED (General Educational Development) Testing Service, and the National Institute for Literacy, to name a few.

WORKPLACE LEARNING

Another component of continuing education is workplace learning. With the ultimate focus on worker productivity, workplace learning is aimed at increasing both the generic and technical skills of employees. However, it does not necessarily involve formal educational institutions. Typically, workplace learning is thought of as training undertaken in the workplace that can be both formal and informal in its approach. While it can be remedial in nature, it often provides additional new skill training.

LIFELONG LEARNING

Yet another dimension of continuing education is the concept of lifelong learning. Self-evident in the phrase, lifelong learning focuses on the continual growth and development of the individual. This can be achieved both formally, through educational programs and institutions, and informally, through personal life experiences and training. In addition, lifelong learning is often associated with leisure or recreational learning.

RESOURCES

Understandably, there is a plethora of information available on the topic of continuing education and the corresponding number of organizations associated with it. Most predominately is the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE), recognized as the nation’s premiere adult education organization. The AAACE is dedicated to being the leading resource in the field of adult learning and continuing education. Evidenced in its mission statement are its goals that summarize the fundamental nature of continuing education. These include providing leadership by expanding opportunities for adult growth and development; addressing adult educators as a unit and promoting both the identity and standards for the profession; nurturing the development and distribution of theory, research, and best practices; and being an advocate for pertinent public policy and social change initiatives. The International Association for Continuing Education and Training also addresses research and development of effective practices in this field.

Another resource, specific to adult literacy, which is inextricably linked to continuing education, is The National Institute for Literacy, noted for its reliable and practical information pertaining to adult literacy development. The National Institute for Literacy provides links to the AskERIC virtual library, the NCAL and OTAN Internet servers, the Library of Congress online catalog, and other literacy-related sites.

Despite the quantity of sites on the Internet addressing the concept of continuing education, the most notable research reference site is the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education (ACVE). This comprehensive site provides information, including publications and services in adult and continuing education; aspects of career education; and vocational and technical education including workforce preparation. The ERIC/ACVE site has extensive resources, including online, full-text versions of digests addressing the latest trends and issues.

While conceptually, continuing education is a general term, specifically it is frequently associated with the preponderance of postsecondary programming available at a variety of institutions from community colleges to 4-year universities. The National Institute on Postsecondary Education, Libraries, and Lifelong Learning supports a complete program of research, development, and distribution of resources pertaining to higher education, adult learning, and workplace and technical education. Specifically, it focuses on how adults learn most effectively, both in formal educational and work environments and in informal surroundings, like community-based locations, libraries, and museums.

Continuing education has become an even more expansive term with the emergence and popularity of
distance education, which affords plentiful opportunities for the adult learner in the virtual environment. Since distance education enables instructional delivery that does not limit the student to be physically present in the same location as the instructor, it is varied in its approach and typically refers to delivery modes that are audio, video, and computer based. As such, the flexibility, availability, and convenience of distance education afford even more access to continuing education.

—Cynthia A. Loeffler

See also adult education; attitudes toward work; career stages; goals, goal setting; higher education; learning, online; learning, theories of; learning environments; life span development; mentoring; motivation, theories of; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References


CONTRACTS, WITH TEACHER UNIONS

Unionization of teachers began during the 1940s. Spurred by litigation, the means of dealing with unions was explored by governing boards across the United States, until, in the 1960s, collective bargaining for public employees, including teachers, became a reality in most regions. By this time, many teacher associations had agency shops, where the exclusive collective-bargaining agent for the teachers was the union. Individuals who did not join the union were charged an agency fee.

Contracts initially were developed between the parties at the district site, but increasingly, today’s contracts are articulated documents based on information shared statewide and even nationally by the respective parties. From state to state, there is a general pattern of local union/association representation, with a union/association staff member who is a seasoned negotiator participating in the collective bargaining with the board or the board’s representatives. Frequently, the board members or their representatives are supported by a professional negotiator.

The scope of bargaining varies from state to state. Common elements to most states include salary, benefits, school calendar and hours of employment, class size, evaluation of teachers, grievance procedures, teaching assignments, transfers, reduction in force, position advertisement, and cocurricular and extracurricular assignments.

As pressure increases for schools and districts to show improvement on specified indices, some level of criticism at unions and teacher associations, suggesting that they and the contracts they negotiated are major blocks to improving student performance. Encouraging collaboration is more productive than placing blame. There is a move toward professional unionism that embraces reform and restructuring, but the process is not a speedy one. Union roots, even the professional unions, are in an industrial model, albeit without the intense scrutiny of quality control and management at every level seen in industry. At both the local level and even at the national level, the unions are changing, and these changes are slowly being reflected in contract language.

Peer review, for example, is increasingly part of association contracts. In some states, peer review was initially imposed by the legislatures, while in others, the individual districts and associations negotiated to have peer review as part of their contracts. Of course, the peer review process agreed to through collective bargaining has a major role for teachers. Peer review, at its best, encourages a higher level of professionalism in teaching and engenders intense conversation about what constitutes good teaching. As teachers become part of the active improvement process, the bar regarding acceptable teaching quality is raised. In addition, there is an expectation that teacher evaluation will be more than a mere check-off process.
Evaluation seems to be the province of the administrator, yet associations seek to have significant input into all aspects of the evaluation. Timelines, conferences, and what will be reviewed are part of the teacher contract. Contracts also usually specify who the evaluator is, number and length of classroom visits, the form used, and teacher right of response. Administrators must pay strict heed to these details, since they constitute what is or can be the centerpiece of school climate and school improvement. Often the first piece of advice given to a new principal is to evaluate teachers by the contract in all aspects. Strict adherence to the timelines and formats of evaluation are necessary if any action regarding promotion, tenure, transfer, dismissal, or referral to a peer review process is to occur.

Grievance procedures are outlined in the contract. Under many contracts, the potentially aggrieved individual is not the only person who may file a grievance. Grievants are represented in a manner specified in the contract. Binding arbitration often is at the final level in a grievance procedure. While it is difficult to imagine grievances being positive occurrences, occasionally a grievance clears up confusing language and practices and even settles an issue.

Workplace condition issues usually include hours of employment, teaching minutes, length of the school year, preparation periods or times, campus duties or nonteaching general assignments, and, often, provisions for staff and parent meetings. In K–12 districts, the differences of assignment make the move toward standardizing teacher conditions difficult. For example, the number of instructional minutes from grade level to grade level may be set by the state, yet in collective bargaining, negotiators may seek a standard calendar and day for the teachers. Similarly, the need for daily elementary recess duty may be supplanted by a need for a teacher event coverage schedule at high school.

Numbers of students in a classroom may be set by the contract. Many districts have maintained a recommended cap for classes at various grade levels, while others have contracts that specify a particular number and not one more. Flexibility is an issue within some schools, but the contract must be the guide.

Transfer policy is enumerated within the contract. There are involuntary transfers, sometimes with very specific reasons noted, and voluntary transfers. Process is very important, and adhering to the contract language is essential. When districts have changes due to declining or shifting enrollment, these policies govern the moves. The process for reduction in force also is employed in declining enrollment districts.

The primacy of seniority has been a major factor in teacher retention and in teacher transfers and promotions. It often also impacts teacher assignments, whether at grade-level or specific subjects. On the basis of their contracts, some districts must post all potential assignments as if there are openings. If the placement is seniority based according to contract, the most senior qualified teacher who requests the position will be granted it. Similarly, transfers and promotions may be entirely driven by seniority. As districts seek to staff struggling schools with highly qualified teachers, the rule of seniority may present barriers to making assignments unless the districts negotiate carefully.

Extra-duty assignments, such as coaching academic and athletic teams or serving as accreditation committee chair, often are covered in teacher contracts. Stipend or salary schedules for these duties are subject to negotiation in most districts, although, occasionally, grant-funded extra assignments are not included in the contract.

Teacher contract negotiations usually begin with pay and benefits. Although many teachers deeply enjoy what they do, many also have the conviction that they are not paid well. Pay for teachers varies across the regions of the nation, yet this sense of being undercompensated pervades. As health care costs rise, teachers also are concerned about a declining benefit package.

Most frequently, contracts provide for salary increases based on years of service and numbers of academic or professional development credits beyond the base requirement. While there is research indicating a correlation between student achievement and qualified teachers, years of service and accrual of units is not a demonstrated indicator of teaching expertise. Traditionally, plans for merit pay or other incentive systems were greeted by union bargaining teams with suspicion and fear of favoritism. Pay for improved performance, often by site, not individual, is finding favor more frequently.

Issues of growing concern within contracting with teachers include staffing the hard-to-staff schools, providing professional support for struggling teachers, meeting state and federal mandates, and ensuring or establishing the rights of teachers in charter schools. Contracts are living documents. Both parties to them have the opportunity to change the document from time to time. Working with the unions to implement
change has been effective in many districts. At the local level, criticizing and blaming usually are met with failure. Educational leaders are wise to understand their contracts and use them to benefit students, teachers, and their schools and districts.

—Penelope Walters Swenson

See also American Federation of Teachers; attitudes toward work; climate, school; collective bargaining; human resource development; job security; just cause; morale; National Education Association; reduction in force; seniority, rule of; unions, of teacher; working conditions, in schools; workplace trends

Further Readings and References


CONTROL, MANAGERIAL

Notions of managerial control have a long if occasionally dubious pedigree in educational administration, a practical discipline that has borrowed much, sometimes indiscriminately, from cognate fields and practices concerned with organizational management. Two of the most formative borrowings, each of which underscores the significance of managerial control, consist in appropriations of Frederick Winslow Taylor’s (1856–1915) scientific management and Max Weber’s (1864–1920) depiction of bureaucratic organizations. An American mechanical engineer credited with founding systems engineering, Taylor sought to redesign workplace practices in order to maximize industrial efficiency. Weber, a German sociologist and a discerning student of cultural development, presented bureaucracy as the rational organizational form optimally suited for complex social settings.

The tightly interwoven principles and directives for ensuring workplace productivity that constituted Taylor’s (1911/1967) scientific management found ready application in the large, industrial factories that emerged in the latter half of the nineteenth century. As the promise of employment swelled populations in North America’s industrializing centers, institutions that would serve and regulate the new urban populations proliferated. With rapid growth, schools and factories faced the common problem of how to establish orderliness and productivity given their increasingly diverse, abundant, and at times tumultuous populations. It is not surprising, then, that school leaders in their quest for regularity and control would look to the factory for both models and ideologies of organization. What they would find in the early years of the twentieth century was the persuasive and practical set of managerial precepts that Taylor assembled under the heading of “scientific management.”

Scientific management was empirically secured by the time-and-motion studies, which are captured in the caricature of the efficiency expert who times task performance with a stopwatch in order to maximize output by minimizing superfluous motions and behaviors. Such systematic empirical observations allowed Taylor to distill what he would call the “one best method” for executing specific tasks. By ensuring compliance with empirically determined best methods through meticulous managerial control and by implementing a system of individual rewards for productivity, Taylor created a seemingly objective method for regulating work and for ensuring the prosperity of owners, managers, and laborers alike. In the process, an omnipresent system of managerial control would be endowed with the integrity of science and the authority of fact.

Educational administrators hard-pressed to deal with the organizational and financial tensions engendered by a dramatic increase in the number, complexity, and cost of public schools would find the promise of scientific management irresistible. Needing to rationalize the organization, operations, and expenditures of the public schools and to strengthen both the perception and the reality of their managerial control over them, school administrators began to adopt and
to adapt Taylor’s language and methods. In the second
decade of the twentieth century, Frank Spaulding, a
New Jersey school superintendent, Franklin Bobbitt,
who taught educational administration at the University
of Chicago, and Ellwood Cubberley, a Stanford
professor, would unabashedly draw upon Taylor’s sci-
entific management in seeking the efficiencies and the
controls that had made businesses predictable, profit-
able, and orderly. The emulation of business models
resulted not only in the adoption of businesslike prac-
tices and industrial patterns of organization in schools
and school systems, it also resulted in administrators
taking on the persona, the interests, and the behaviors
of the industrial manager.

As Taylorist methods of organizing work took hold
in educational settings, many administrators found that
the managerial model provided internal and external
leverage and a robust practical rationale for establishing
institutional control. This attitude toward admini-
stration as a managerial enterprise was buoyed and
extended by Max Weber’s outline of the characteristics
and virtues of bureaucracy. Disregarding his critical
remarks about the inevitable and damning excesses of
the rationalizing forces released with what he called the
“disenchantment of the world,” the first appropriations
of Weber’s thinking just before the midpoint of the
 twentieth century optimistically equated the emergence
of rational forms of organization and administration
with progress.

By emphasizing a rational division of labor, the
generation of expertise through training, a hierarchical
arrangement of authority, an unequivocal set of rules
that would guide practice, the clear articulation of goals,
and the keeping of exact written records, Weber outlined
an impersonal organizational system that would rein-
force and amplify Taylor’s notions of managerial con-
trol, while giving them greater subtlety. Weber provided
the organizational design that would structurally aug-
ment managerial control and that would endow it not
only with Taylor’s mantle of value-free empirical
science but also the inexorable force of reason. We need
only look at the features of the contemporary school—
the hierarchical differentiation of expertise and author-
ity, the ubiquitous rules, the emphasis upon written
records (i.e., personnel and personal files), the resources
devoted to supervision, and the attention given to mis-
mission statements—to see how lasting is Weber’s impact
upon the organization of education.

Today, then, educators continue to make extensive
use of Weber’s bureaucratic design, which unobtrusively
incorporates managerial control into taken-for-
granted organizational structures and practices.
Similarly, contemporary administrators, especially in
the exercise of supervisory functions, often continue
to act as Tayloristic managers who establish control
through ensuring conformity with standards or prede-
termined best practices—what Taylor called the “one
best way.” Although educational administrators may
d not dwell upon the practical legacy of Taylor and
Weber, the establishment of managerial control within
well-ordered educational organizations continues to
be widely regarded as the sine qua non of administra-
tive competency. In addition to being what Christopher
Hodgkinson calls an organizational “metavalue,” an
axiomatic assumption beyond dispute and debate, the
wish to control institutional circumstance may be
 thought of more broadly as being central to the mod-
ernist enterprise.

The equation, however, of what is worth doing in
educational administration with the ability to establish
mastery over organizational circumstance tests the
sufficiency of managerial control as an orienting pur-
pose. To many scholars and practitioners, it would
seem implausible and shortsighted to reduce the pur-
pose of educational administration to the establish-
ment of organizational control. Alasdair MacIntyre,
for example, sharply questions the feasibility and
 desirability of pursuing managerial effectiveness
defined exclusively as the control of social reality,
saying managerial effectiveness is fiction, that such
manipulation is not successful, and that social order is
not controllable.

MacIntyre’s disputation of managerial control
as a worthy or a possible goal is supported by many
organizational and educational theorists who present
images of organizations and novel forms of adminis-
trative leadership that supersede both Taylor’s man-
gerial rhetoric and Weber’s bureaucratic principles.
In suggesting that at least some aspects of the rhetoric
of managerial control may be interpreted as mythic
would give perspective and proportion to scientific
explanations of management as a rational social prac-
tice aimed at establishing efficiency, order, and con-
trol. Researchers and practitioners in educational
administration should neither overestimate the sci-
tific and rational justifications of managerial control
nor underestimate the force of organizational mastery
as a compelling and formative social myth.

—Martin Barlosky
See also administration, theories of; authority; Barnard, Chester I.; bureaucracy; Burns, James MacGregor; chain of command; Cubberley, Ellwood; Follett, Mary Parker; Greenfield, Thomas Barr; Halpin, Andrew William; hierarchy, in organizations; leadership, theories of; management theories; McGregor, Douglas; personnel management; productivity; scientific management; span of control; stratification, in organizations; supervision; Taylor, Frederick; Theory X, Theory Y; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


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**CONTROL OF EDUCATION, STATE**

In the U.S. federal system of government, the states have constitutional authority over education. Historically, states have left the provision of education up to local school districts. However, in recent decades, for both political and financial reasons, the power of states has increased, while autonomy of school districts has shrunk. Most experts believe this trend will continue, although choice schools may signal a movement toward greater autonomy at the building level, and the No Child Left Behind Act has increased federal authority over state school policy.

**HISTORY OF STATE VERSUS LOCAL CONTROL**

From colonial times, public education has been locally governed, even though state constitutions make education a function of state government. The U.S. Constitution does not mention education, so our country, unlike most others, does not have a tradition of centralized control of schools from the national government. Americans’ traditional dislike of big government may be one reason for our history of local control of education.

Almost all funds for schools were local, up until the twentieth century. However, as early as the 1820s and 1830s, states created some school funds with revenues from the sale of public land. State legislators began tying distribution of common school funds to state goals, such as requiring certified teachers. In the 1850s, many northern states passed laws requiring, not merely permitting, local districts to tax themselves for schools. Some of these funds were redistributed based on population, but only or mostly to White schools.

Early state laws were permissive, allowing rather than requiring local school districts to organize themselves and levy taxes. Often local practice preceded state laws. For example, most localities taxed themselves for schools before the states required it. For much of our history, government at the state level has been weak, lacking the means of monitoring or coordinating schools, so local communities ran their schools as they saw fit.

**EQUITY, EFFICIENCY, LIBERTY**

The reform of local governance of schools began in the late nineteenth century. By 1900, most cities had replaced their ward-elected school committees with small, centralized boards elected at large. The effect was to further the cause of professional management and decrease the power of non-WASP ethnic groups. Later in the twentieth century, a number of urban decentralization schemes were tried. The rural counterpart to urban governance reform was school district consolidation. States began passing consolidation laws in the 1910s, and the movement continued throughout the rest of the twentieth century. There were 89,000 school districts in the United States in 1948 and 14,000 by 2001.

Philosophically, the bases for state intervention in local schools were equity and efficiency in the provision of education. Over time, all of the states adopted standards regarding curriculum, teacher qualifications, finances, and local school operations. Early in the twentieth century, state standards were aimed at
rural school districts, because large city districts were better financed and enjoyed higher quality without state intervention. In the late twentieth century, urban districts performed poorly, and they became the target of state intervention, including in some cases state takeover of districts that were extremely academically deficient or financially bankrupt. Pushed by the courts and by the federal government, states facilitated desegregation, improved financial equity, and mandated services for students with disabilities or disadvantages to ensure that all students had access to quality education. States standardized curriculum and assessment for greater efficiency and accountability.

States varied in the amount of local autonomy they permitted. Frederick M. Wirt and the Lawyer's Committee for Civil Rights Under Law conducted a content analysis study of the education provisions in state constitutions, laws, court decisions, and administrative rules in the early 1970s. Using a political culture typology developed by Daniel J. Elazar, Wirt found that states with an individualistic culture had education systems with more local control, while states with a traditionalistic culture were the most centralized, and those states with a moralistic culture clustered around the mean centralization score. Regionally, the states of the old Confederacy had high centralization scores, and the New England states had low centralization scores. Wirt argued that educational improvements at the school level must be considered in the context of both the state role and the state political culture.

By the end of the twentieth century, confidence in local educational leaders had declined, as expectations for improving student achievement exceeded school performance. Growth in expectations for what schools should produce also outpaced the growth in public resources for education. Schools had to increase their productivity. Americans seemed to place more value on equity and efficiency than on local control.

As the twenty-first century began, Joel Spring noted the dual trends of increased state centralization and increased autonomy at the school building level. He reconciled these apparently contradictory trends by explaining that the move toward state centralization represented attempts to control what students are taught, while the move toward local autonomy was based on improving efficiency of the organization and management of educational services. In the pursuit of efficiency at the beginning of the twentieth century, bureaucratic district organization was the solution. By the end of the century, bureaucracy had become the problem; school choice and school building autonomy were favored remedies.

### REASONS FOR THE GROWTH IN STATE CONTROL

#### Funding

Funding of schools has been an important reason behind the trend of increasing state control. There was a big increase in the state share relative to the local share of school funding during the Depression, because many local communities were unable to keep their schools running without state funds. In the 1970s and 1980s, local governments went through fiscal hard times because of property tax revolts, economic slow down, and reduced federal aid. Increased state requirements placed on local districts brought pressure on legislatures not to impose unfunded mandates. Again, the states’ portion of school support grew relative to the local portion. Since the 1970s, inequities in school funding have been successfully challenged in several state courts, resulting in orders for states to assume more of the responsibility for funding schools to even out disparities.

Catherine Marshall, Douglas E. Mitchell, and Frederick M. Wirt studied education policy making in six sample states in the 1980s. In addition to the overall level of funding for education in the state, equalization of resources across districts was the top priority for state policymakers in the area of school finance. Other school finance mechanisms included targeting funds toward (a) programs for particular populations of students, (b) districts with special circumstances, such as high cost of living or high transportation costs in sparsely populated districts, and (c) specific school functions, such as facilities or textbooks.

States have used incentive funding to entice school districts to offer certain services. Districts have the option to comply with the incentive, or not. Payment follows compliance. Thus, districts have more freedom than they would under a state mandate or under a categorical program grant with regulations for how the money must be spent. Lawrence O. Picus described California’s use of incentives to increase the number of days in the school year and to increase beginning teachers’ salaries. He found that the incentive programs were effective in producing local district compliance with state goals, without the onus of state mandates. In a comparison
across several states, Picus found that state incentives offered to individual schools to raise student achievement must be designed carefully with respect to the performance measure, the size of the reward, and the timing of the awards. Some schools may lack the up-front funds that would enable them to reach the achievement level that would qualify them for the award.

**Federal Impetus**

In recent decades, the federal government has provided impetus for states to take more control of schooling. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 brought a great deal of federal money into states and local districts, while giving states a large role in implementing and monitoring the programs. State education departments grew, thanks to federal dollars. Subsequent federal laws and programs for education also increased the state role and the size of the state bureaucracy. The Presidency of Ronald Reagan (1981–1989) began the trend of “new federalism” or “devolution” of power, in which the federal government took away many of its programmatic restrictions and made block grants to the states for governmental services, including education. This movement gave states more authority over the uses of federal funds.

The Reagan administration’s *A Nation at Risk* report was an impetus for change that prompted state leaders to develop school reform plans. President George H. W. Bush’s 1989 Education Summit with the governors resulted in the adoption of national goals for education that all states pursued. The reauthorization of ESEA during the administration of President George W. Bush, the No Child Left Behind Act, increased federal involvement in schooling, but it also increased the state role relative to the local one.

**State Capacity and Competition**

Institutional capacity at the state level increased in the twentieth century, thanks in part to state constitutional reforms that increased the terms of governors and legislatures and gave governors more authority over the budget and the state agencies. The state legislative, judicial, and executive branches all became more professional and less corrupt. A more professional state government was better able to lead, monitor, and assist local school districts.

Competition among states for economic advantage was an impetus for the reform efforts that began in the 1970s. Southern state leaders, especially, began justifying state reform of and investment in schools as necessary for economic competitiveness. However, in nearly all the states, governors, business executives, and legislators pushed for increased educational policy activity at the state level in the 1970s through 1990s, arguing that improved schools would lead to stronger economies. Their national associations, such as the National Governors Association, the National Conference of State Legislatures, the Education Commission of the States, the National Alliance of Business, the Business Roundtable, and the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, issued reports and provided assistance to states in fashioning educational reforms. The national meetings of these associations showcased state education reform initiatives and gave credit to state business and political leaders.

**The Reform Movement**

Many local school districts fashioned their own improvement efforts and served as examples of excellence throughout the twentieth century. However, by the end of the century, control of the reform agenda moved to the national and state levels. Publication of the 1983 *A Nation at Risk* report stimulated reform activity that resulted in a rapid shift of power from the local districts to the states in the 1980s. Authors such as Tim L. Mazzoni have described the reform movement as occurring in waves. According to Mazzoni, the first wave, the “excellence wave,” brought higher state standards for what students should know in order to graduate and for what teachers need to demonstrate in order to be credentialed. The second wave, the “restructuring wave,” began around 1986. As director of educational programs for the National Governors Association, Michael Cohen argued that state policymakers should find ways to “restructure” schools. By this, he meant altering authority and accountability systems by trading off increased decision-making authority for educators in exchange for both significant improvements in and accountability for student performance.

The third wave, which Mazzoni called “systemic redesign,” began around 1990. Cohen was one of the authors who articulated the rationale for more state involvement in schooling as essential to economic and human resource development. He argued that for the United States to compete globally, students needed to develop higher-order thinking skills and a strong base...
of knowledge, beyond the current performance levels. He noted that expenditures for education were unlikely to increase, so the problem was to increase schools’ productivity. He recommended that states implement systemic reforms by (a) setting higher standards for educational outcomes; (b) developing assessment systems linked to state goals and standards; (c) encouraging, rewarding, and showcasing local innovation; and (d) considering alternative accountability mechanisms, such as school choice.

STATE ROLE IN NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 moved the states toward national uniformity in reform efforts. The act required states annually to test all students in Grades 3 through 8 in reading and mathematics. The tests were to be aligned with state standards of proficiency. Schools and districts were required to make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), meaning that a certain percentage of all students would perform at the proficient level. Each subgroup of English language learners, students with disabilities, economically disadvantaged students, and students from major racial or ethnic groups was expected to meet the AYP goal, as well. One hundred percent of all students would perform at the proficient level by 2014. The act required states to issue annual report cards on district and school performance. Teachers were to be highly qualified, that is, certified and proficient in the subjects they taught. Schools that did not achieve AYP would receive assistance from the state. Their students would be given opportunities to transfer to other schools or receive tutoring. A school that failed to make AYP 3 years in a row would be subject to additional consequences. States had much work to do to set the AYP targets and the standards for both students and teachers, to design assessments aligned with curriculum, as well as to provide interventions and options for students in failing schools. NCLB was a huge increase in federal influence over state policy for education and over schools themselves, and it represented a federal policy gone far from the historical tradition of local and state control of schools.

—Carla Edlefon

See also accountability; achievement tests; alignment, of curriculum; Bell, Ted; boards of education; bureaucracy; capacity building, of organizations; choice, of schools; consolidation, of school districts; Council of Chief State School Officers; decentralization/centralization controversy, Education Commission of the States; finance, of public schools; governance; Kentucky Education Reform Act; A Nation at Risk; No Child Left Behind; reform, of schools; restructuring, of schools; school districts, history and development; standard setting; state departments of education; systemic reform

Further Readings and References


COOPER, ANNA JULIA

Born to a slave woman, Hannah Stanley, and her master, George Washington Haywood, in Raleigh, North Carolina, on August 10, 1858, Anna Julia Cooper (1858–1964), educator, social activist, and public speaker, grew up in a time when newly freed African
American people were deeply involved in national debates about the best forms of education that would serve the needs of Black northern and southern communities. She graduated from St. Augustine Normal School and Collegiate Institute, in Raleigh, North Carolina, in 1869 and began teaching. She married Reverend George A. C. Cooper, 14 years her senior, in 1877. He passed away after 2 years. She continued her education at Oberlin, Ohio, received an MA in 1887, and taught at Wilberforce, also in Ohio.

Cooper produced her book *A Voice From the South by a Black Woman of the South*, a collection of speeches and essays, written in 1892. *A Voice from the South* was the first book length, feminist analysis of the conditions of African Americans in the United States. Cooper addressed the unique status of Black women at the intersections of race, gender, and class, arguing that Black women were central in the struggle for racial uplift and must have equitable educational opportunities, including higher education.

Cooper believed that the most useful education for Black children helped them to take their proper place in society. Following that premise, on January 2, 1902, Cooper began serving as the principal of the well-established M Street High School, in Washington, D.C., one of the few high schools in the United States to offer a curriculum that prepared Black students for either industry or college. Under her administration, the school expanded its influence, became a national model for academic preparation, and increased the number of Black students sent to Ivy League colleges.

Cooper strengthened the curriculum in classical subjects and challenged the dominant thinking of the time. Her initiatives dramatically increased the number of students who were accepted to Harvard, Yale, and Brown. Educating Black children, for Cooper, required training the mind and empowering the spirit. She condemned schools that ignored spiritual purposes. For Cooper, education means and ends were justified only when there was meaningful purpose, fostering in students the ability to think, analyze, and act. Following a significant controversy at the M Street School that personally implicated her, she stepped down as head of the school and began teaching at Lincoln University, in Missouri.

In her later years, Cooper was one of a few African Americans to complete a doctorate at the Sorbonne, in Paris. A contemporary of fighters for social justice Mary Church Terrell, Ida Wells-Barnett, and W. E. B. DuBois, Cooper wrote that education was inextricably linked to social justice, asserting that Black people had been forsaken by the federal government. She also became an outspoken leader of social programs and causes for the poor, regularly contributing critical letters and columns to newspapers. In her seventies, Cooper took over the presidency of Frelinghuysen University, a school providing educational opportunities to the working poor in Washington, D.C. Frelinghuysen was eventually closed for lack of funding and programmatic support from the Washington, D.C., School Board.

Cooper worked to establish a branch of the YWCA in Washington, D.C., and provided leadership in the social settlement movement and the National Women’s Club movement. She was the only woman member of the American Negro Academy, a think tank founded in 1897 by Episcopal priest and abolitionist Alexander Crumwell, with a membership including historian and educational leader Carter G. Woodson, sociologist Kelly Miller, and W. E. B. DuBois.

African American women’s ideas and strengths, according to Cooper, could provide both means and insights necessary to improve the management of school systems, labor relations, political organizations, and other aspects of U.S. society. Moreover, to be a Black woman was to act with responsibility, obligation, and moral courage; to do whatever was necessary to resist racism and patriarchy; and to protect children too often vulnerable in a racist society. On February 27, 1964, Anna Julia Cooper died in Washington, D.C., at the age of 105.

—Khaula Murtadha

**See also** affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Bethune, Mary McLeod; Black education; Clark, Septima; Coppin, Fanny Jackson; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; desegregation, of schools; discrimination; diversity; DuBois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding; feminism and theories of leadership; gender studies, in educational leadership; King, Martin Luther Jr.; Lawrence-Lightfoot, Sara; leadership, theories of; Malcolm X; Marshall, Thurgood; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; resiliency; sexism (glass ceiling); Sizemore, Barbara A.; Washington, Booker T.; Woodson, Carter G.

**Further Readings and References**


COPPIN, FANNY JACKSON

Fanny Jackson Coppin (1837–1913) was the first Black woman to head an institution of higher learning in the nation. Fanny Jackson Coppin held the post of principal of Philadelphia’s Institute for Colored Youth (ICY) from 1869 to 1901—at the time, the highest educational appointment of a Black woman in the United States.

Fanny Jackson was born into slavery in Washington, D.C., in 1837. Later in childhood, an aunt, Sarah Orr, purchased Jackson’s freedom. She lived with relatives in New Bedford, Massachusetts, then moved to Newport, Rhode Island, where she worked as a domestic, paid for tutors, studied in the segregated public schools, and attended the Rhode Island State Normal School in 1859. Coppin gained admission to the Ladies Department of Oberlin College, in Ohio, in 1860. Recognized by the administration as an exceptional student by the time she progressed to the junior/senior collegiate department, she was asked to teach lower-level preparatory classes, an honor given to few students and of particular note because she was one of the few Blacks at Oberlin. To the surprise of many, not only was Jackson viewed as an excellent teacher, her class sizes doubled with students anxious to attend her sections.

Jackson undertook the completion of a 4-year “Gentleman’s Course” of studies rooted in Greek, Latin, and mathematics, where she managed to be the second Black woman in Oberlin’s history to complete the BA. She later gained national recognition for her volunteerism and work beyond college courses, establishing evening schools for former slaves migrating from the South.

Before her graduation from Oberlin in 1865, Jackson was recruited to teach at the Philadelphia-based ICY, established by the Quakers. Under her leadership, the Philadelphia institute grew to attract a national and international student body and maintained a long waiting list of applicants interested in the school’s high academic standards, rigorous science curriculum, and classical college preparatory curriculum. However, Jackson Coppin did not forget her roots and the dire need of the community to have industrial and vocational programs that would prepare students for the occupational market. She advocated for women’s career choices in traditional and nontraditional fields and independent business ownership. At the request of school commissioners seeking teachers in Delaware, Maryland, and New Jersey, Fanny Jackson Coppin developed a division within ICY for school management and methods of teaching. Far ahead of its time, the curriculum fostered child-centered educational practices, a deep belief in reciprocal teacher/learner respect, and opposition to corporal punishment.

Fanny Jackson Coppin was committed to community development and launched what she called an “industrial crusade,” with a twofold mission: (a) to impress upon Blacks the need for cooperation in business and (b) to emphasize to the community the critical importance of industrial and technical training as an immediate solution to the employment problem. She also wrote columns and spoke locally and nationally, while also introducing cooperative fund-rais ing efforts for charitable organizations to the ICY’s students.

In the last years of her life, Fanny Jackson Coppin wrote Reminiscences of School Life and Hints on Teaching (1913), a text predating today’s professional development models, offering practical hints on teaching and learning, reflections on her travels to South Africa and England, and biographical sketches of the staff at ICY as well as its noted graduates. Through her writings, Jackson Coppin advocated her deeply held beliefs that Black children should have a choice between the European classical academic or vocational educational curricula. On respecting the child, she simply stated that children are human beings with needs, just like adults. For 40 years, she remained actively involved in the leadership of the ICY, impacting the educational outcomes of Black people across the country.

Socially and politically active throughout her life, Fanny Jackson Coppin was noted as a captivating speaker. She was a leader in the National Association of Colored Women, and in collaboration with other Black women leaders, she worked to establish the National Council of Negro Women. In 1881, Fanny Jackson married Reverend Levi Coppin. In 1901, upon promotion of her husband to bishop in the African Methodist Episcopal church, she went on a missionary assignment to South Africa. She furthered her educational initiatives, broadening the scope of her...
work to women in South Africa. Her health declined after her European travels and a return to the states. Fanny Jackson Coppin died in her Philadelphia home on January 21, 1913. Coppin State College in Baltimore, Maryland, is named in her honor.

—Khaula Murtadha

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Bethune, Mary McLeod; Black education; Clark, Septima; Cooper, Anna Julia; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; desegregation, of schools; discrimination; diversity; DuBois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding; feminism and theories of leadership; gender studies, in educational leadership; King, Martin Luther Jr.; Lawrence-Lightfoot, Sara; leadership, theories of; Malcolm X; Marshall, Thurgood; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; resiliency; sexism (glass ceiling); Sizemore, Barbara A.; Washington, Booker T.; Woodson, Carter G.

Further Readings and References


CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

Corporal punishment is most often equated with paddling or the striking of a student’s buttocks with a wooden paddle by a school authority to maintain discipline or to enforce school rules. However, corporal punishment is more broadly defined as reasonable physical force used by school authorities to restrain disruptive students, to correct unacceptable behavior, and to maintain the order necessary to provide a proper educational program. The long history of corporal punishment has biblical roots, marked by the Old Testament notion of “Spare the rod and spoil the child.” The use of corporal punishment can be traced to precolonial England, and it has been a conventional method of disciplining children in the United States since colonial times.

Corporal punishment has been a common disciplinary tool within school systems in the United States. Legal and popular opinion sanction parental authority to use corporal punishment to discipline children, and similarly, under the concept of in loco parentis, permit the use of reasonable corporal punishment by school personnel. Maintaining order in the classroom is fundamental to schools’ compelling interest in providing a proper education for children. Under common law, disciplinary sanctions for misbehavior, such as corporal punishment, may be necessary for schools to maintain order and conduct their services in a manner that promote learning.

The courts have upheld the constitutionality of corporal punishment as an acceptable means of controlling student behavior in school. In the landmark case, Ingraham v. Wright (1972), the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the Eighth Amendment’s prohibition of cruel and unusual punishment did not apply to disciplinary corporal punishment in schools. The Court indicated that corporal punishment had been an accepted method of promoting good behavior since before the American Revolution. According to the Court, decisions to use corporal punishment are policy questions best left to local school officials. The openness of public schools, supervision of schools by the community, and traditional legal remedies are sufficient safeguards against abuses of corporal punishment.

At the same time, this Court recognized that extensive due process protections, requiring notice and a hearing prior to imposing corporal punishment, would interfere with the efficiency of the school discipline process. However, federal appeals courts have subsequently held that excessive corporal punishment violates substantive due process rights afforded by the Fourteenth Amendment and have advanced standards governing corporal punishment of students. School officials may administer corporal punishment within reasonable limits when it is related to a legitimate state interest and is not motivated by malice or anger.

Currently, the practice of corporal punishment in schools is prohibited in every industrialized country in the world except the United States, Canada, and one state in Australia. In the United States, more than half of the states ban its use in schools. The highest incidents of corporal punishment tend to be in southern states, while the lowest are in the northeastern states, where a number of states have outlawed its use. However, during the last 20 years, the overall number of students exposed to corporal punishment has decreased.

In states that do permit corporal punishment, many local school districts may pass policies prohibiting this practice or have guidelines seriously limiting its use. The most common restrictions are that it can be
meted out only by an administrator and only in the presence of another school official. Some districts provide for prior written parental approval before administering corporal punishment. Furthermore, corporal punishment is more commonly used on poor children, Black children, and children with disabilities. However, increasing litigation and a growing body of case law has discouraged the use of corporal punishment in many school districts.

Advocates for corporal punishment in schools contend that it promotes changes in student behavior, teaches self-discipline, improves moral character, and increases respect for authority. Proponents argue that it is a very clear and obvious consequence that students perceive as unpleasant, thus providing for more immediate behavioral compliance. In addition, corporal punishment, as an alternative to more severe punishments like suspension, can be administered quickly and is over with quickly. Of course, corporal punishment continues to find support in religion and the notion that it is a biblically sanctioned response to overt challenges to authority.

Critics argue, however, that corporal punishment is a practice that is ineffective, counterproductive, and sometimes dangerous. Research indicates that corporal punishment is associated with higher levels of violence and aggression in children, increases antisocial behavior, causes low self-esteem, and in some cases causes physical and psychological damage. There is evidence that children who are paddled are more likely to be disobedient in school, bully others, and show less remorse for wrongdoing. Furthermore, corporal punishment may adversely affect children’s cognitive development. Studies suggest that corporal punishment is related to poorer performance on school tasks.

In the United States, schools are the only public institutions in which corporal punishment is still permitted. Irrespective of the views supporting or opposing corporal punishment, the recent dramatic decline in the frequency of corporal punishment suggests that educators are seeking alternative methods of disciplining students in public schools. There is evidence that in almost all cases in schools where the use of corporal punishment is stopped, there is not a concomitant increase in violence. In fact, misbehavior in those schools decreased when disciplinary training was implemented for the staff. Nevertheless, thousands of children are still exposed to corporal punishment in public schools.

—Bobbie J. Greenlee

**See also** at-risk students; behaviorism; child development theories; children and families in America; discipline in schools; emotional disturbance; individual differences, in children; learning, theories of; learning environments; mental illness, in adults and children; motivation, theories of; negligence; parental involvement; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; violence in schools

**Further Readings and References**


**COST-BENEFIT ANALYSES**

Cost-benefit analyses (CBA) are processes where the costs and benefits of an action are identified and measured in monetary terms to predict the financial impact and other consequences of decisions. Approaches to CBA provide a practical understanding of program costs and quantifiable values of program outcomes.

CBA originated in an economic context. The tools for CBA first were developed within the disciplines of systems analyses, operations research, and mathematics and offered ways to understand and analyze complex issues in a seemingly rational and straightforward manner. CBA tools are used frequently in business to plan and support decision making, while educators employ these methods less often.

The use of CBA in education enables school officials, policymakers, and the general public to know when the cost of educational services, programs, projects, and policy outcomes are equal to, less than, or exceed their benefits. The results of CBA help inform
decisions about major expenditure and ongoing resource allocations. CBA tools can be useful to educators because making the best possible monetary decisions is critical to the efficient operation and accountability of educational institutions. Although techniques associated with CBA have their limitations, these tools help school officials and policymakers in K–12, higher education, and government agencies understand the full (net) impact of their decisions.

Meaningful CBA require a comprehensive identification of program costs and benefits. Costs are usually straightforward and easy to determine. They can be defined as the total monetary value of the resources that must be used to develop, implement, and operate the services being analyzed. Direct costs include the resources budgeted for or assigned to a program. Examples are personnel, facilities, equipment and materials, travel expenses, and costs of training. Indirect costs are resources not actually budgeted or assigned but representing a withdrawal of resources, such as time lost from work. Benefits are complex and can be difficult to precisely convert into monetary terms. Benefits include all outcomes or consequences that result from decisions about a program or policy, either positive or negative. Direct benefits are the primary consequences or outcomes that accrue to participants and others who are directly involved in the program. These outcomes are typically derived from program objectives. Indirect benefits are the secondary outcomes or consequences of the program, such as attitude and behavior changes, that may benefit program participants, nonparticipants, or society in general.

There are a number of ways to measure costs and benefits. Some scholars have suggested three approaches to the cost-benefit questions in the context of education: net present-value index (NPV), internal rate of return (IROR), and benefit-cost ratio. The NPV is the sum of the benefits less the sum of the costs, with both sums discounted at an appropriate rate. If the benefits exceed the costs, the NPV is positive. An advantage of the NPV techniques is that alternative projects can be ranked in order of the greatest net benefit. NVP often is favored for project evaluations.

The IROR, if graphed, would be the place where the curves for costs and for benefits intersect. The IROR does not consider the total value of costs or benefits of education. The IROR is incalculable when cash flows are all positive, all negative, or equal to zero, because under these conditions there is no internal return.

The benefit-cost ratio uses the mathematical principle of unity. If the value of benefits divided by the value of costs exceeds 1 (unity), a program can be considered worthwhile. Taking time into consideration when estimating costs, benefits, and values associated with an education project or service is essential because

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### Table 1 Additional Cost-Benefit Analysis Techniques

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>CBA Technique</th>
<th>Definition and Use</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cost-effectiveness analysis</td>
<td>A comparison of the relative expenditures (cost) and outcomes (effects) associated with two or more sources of action. Used to compare programs with similar goals. Provides data to choose between alternatives when resources are limited. If the sum of the total benefits outweighs the sum of the total costs, it is cost-effective. If vice versa, it is not cost-effective. Was first developed in the military and then applied to health care in the mid-1960s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cost-utility analysis</td>
<td>A method used to consider many different types of outcomes. Used to compare programs with different goals. Required data are collected from subjective assessments and therefore considered by some to be less stringent and less reliable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cost-feasibility analysis</td>
<td>A verification that an idea is viable before spending time and effort on its full-blown implementation. Used to assess whether or not to implement a program, service, or policy. Basic questions are (1) Is there sufficient demand for this service? (2) Can the service be provided on a cost-effective basis?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk-benefit analysis</td>
<td>An assignment of cost (in monetary units) to each anticipated risk. Used to predict the level of risk when implementing a program, service, or policy. Compares the (discounted) sum of the costs with the predicted (discounted) sum of benefits. Risks are events whose probability of occurrence is low but whose adverse consequences would be important, such as earthquakes.</td>
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SOURCE: Author.
time influences how the value of money is perceived and provides long-term perspectives on benefits.

An important part of the CBA process is to determine which analytic tool or technique is appropriate to address the decisions at hand. Some additional techniques associated with CBA are listed in Table 1.

The economic perspective of CBA has limitations and issues when applied in the context of education. Specifically, some educational outcomes are intangible and their values are difficult to quantify, such as students’ critical thinking development or education’s benefits to society. Time also is an issue. Some of the costs and most of the benefits of education will occur in the future, and it is difficult to accurately predict the monetary results of individuals’ attitudes, skills, and behaviors that were developed while in school. Another issue focuses on budgetary practices. Traditional line-item budgets commonly found in K–12 and higher education are not amenable to relating costs to results. Even when educational goals are clear, the resources spent and the benefits they bring to the system are not easily determined. As a result, analyses tend to be more global when assessing the economic and social benefits of education.

—Jane McDonald

See also accountability; budgeting; cost-benefit analyses; economics, theories of; equity and adequacy of funding schools; finance, of public schools; Planning, Programming, Budgeting System; productivity; property tax; taxes, to support education

Further Readings and References


COUNCIL OF CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICERS

Founded in 1927, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) is a membership organization representing chief executive officers of state departments of education (state superintendents of schools). Thought of by many as a liberal think tank, the council is exceptionally influential with members of the U.S. Congress, the White House, state legislatures, and like-minded professional education associations. Indeed, through its executive director and state superintendents as spokespersons, it is a leading voice for education issues on Capitol Hill.

This nonprofit entity presently represents state education agencies in 49 states, the District of Columbia, the Department of Defense Education Activity, and five extraterritorial jurisdictions. It is this constituency of so many chief education officers that allows CCSSO access to the major players in education policy. Popularly referred to as “chiefs” in their education and political environments, these state education leaders use CCSSO as a bully pulpit from which to advocate for positions favorable to improving education efforts in their respective states.

In addition to a power base among most of the state departments of education in the United States, the CCSSO also builds coalitions with many other powerful education associations and uses those coalitions to provide leadership for national and state education policy issues. With a self-perception of bipartisanship, the CCSSO seeks member consensus on major issues prior to expressing opinions publicly to governmental and professional organizations.

Upon retirement of longtime executive director Gordon M. Ambach in 2001, the CCSSO headed in a new direction. Strongly opinionated, very bright, and politically astute, Mr. Ambach was a leading voice in education policy issues inside the Beltway. Having been associated with the council for 30 years as state commissioner in New York and then as executive director of CCSSO, Ambach was highly respected by foes and friends, including the executive directors of the other major national education leadership organizations. During his tenure, the council expanded from a $2.5 million operational budget employing 18 to a budget of over $14 million with 65 employees. As the dean of these association leaders, Ambach saw himself as the leading education advocate for the states.

Upon the appointment of G. Thomas Houlihan, a former county schools superintendent in North Carolina and chief education aide to former Governor James Hunt, CCSSO is attempting to move in a new, more consensus-building, client-friendly direction. Under Houlihan’s leadership, council staff now operate
through total quality management principles (TQM). The council’s mission states that it assists officers and organizations in enabling children to succeed in school, work, and life.

With this mission statement as guidance, Houlihan has led the members of CCSSO to articulate four focused goals (“aims,” in TQM jargon):

Aim 1: Strategic Partnerships and Advocacy
Aim 2: Professional Development and Capacity
Aim 3: School Performance and Student Achievement
Aim 4: Data Collection, Research, and Technical Assistance

CCSSO attempts to accomplish its mission through development and implementation of projects that help state education leaders understand, devise, and execute policy, adopt initiatives to promote education reform efforts, and engage in collaborative exchanges to share best practices and model solutions. Thus, the organization is now directing over 30 education-related research and technical assistance projects for the states, the council is striving to improve the quantity and quality of professional development for state superintendents, provide them with multiple opportunities for networking through meetings and the use of technology, expand training opportunities to state departments of education staff, and expand policy development influence with federal agencies. An expanded budget of over $17.5 million funded by at least 18 foundations, federal government departments, and business interests enables multiple projects to be undertaken by the “new” council.

CCSSO’s strong record of success in influencing policy development and school reform includes several nationally recognized initiatives.

The Interstate New Teachers Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) has developed multiple sets of teacher standards linked to school level and content that are used for licensing, assessment, and professional development by state education agencies (SEAs) as well as the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS).

Similar to INTASC, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) has developed national standards, licensure assessments, and professional development recommendations for school leaders (principals, superintendents, and other administrators). The ISLLC Standards are used in 43 states for licensure.

The National Council for Accreditation of Colleges of Teacher Education (NCATE) uses the ISLLC Standards as part of the accreditation process for colleges that prepare aspiring school leaders.

The Arts Education partnership, comprising over 100 partners, encourages use of the arts to reform K-12 education. Active in some form in all states, this arts partnership conducts research, identifies policies, provides professional development, and coordinates issue-oriented task forces to enhance the impact of the arts on student achievement.

Cosponsored by Scholastic, Inc., CCSSO manages the National Teacher of the Year program that for more than 50 years has brought attention throughout the nation on the importance of highly effective teachers.

Beginning in 1970, and every year since, CCSSO has organized the National Conference on Large-Scale Assessment, during which assessment experts from national, state, and local entities share information on student assessment development, implementation, and impact. This influential group of over 800 assessment leaders continues to affect test development and accountability practices and policies.

The State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS) projects brought state attention to content standards and student achievement a decade before the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation. State consortia formed among 46 states focus on assessment design and/or development projects to improve current assessments, design new and innovative assessments, and develop prototype assessment items.

Through more than $10 million in grant support from the Wallace-Reader’s Digest Funds, the State Action for Education Leadership Project (SAELP) is designed to form effective school leadership groups in each state with a focus on school reform in high-poverty schools. Now beginning its second iteration (SAELP II), states compete for grants that, if awarded, will enable policy review and subsequent revisions to support and maintain effective principals and superintendents.

CCSSO produces over 100 publications each year as a method of widely disseminating information about its research projects and reports.

—Neil J. Shipman

See also accountability; Education Commission of the States; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; No Child Left Behind; politics, of education; state departments of education; total quality management
Further Readings and References


COUNCIL OF THE GREAT CITY SCHOOLS

The Council of the Great City Schools originated as a result of educators having concerns regarding the lack of an existing national organization that directly focuses attention on or solves the problems of large urban school systems. The council derived its beginning from the Research Council for the Great City Schools Improvement in 1956 at a meeting in Chicago of the superintendents of the 10 largest school districts in the United States. The superintendents joined together at that meeting to create an organization that would focus on urban education. The council was incorporated in 1961 and is headquartered in Washington, D.C. It has grown into a national education policy and research organization that influences urban education at the national, state, and local levels.

The Council of the Great City Schools is governed by a board of directors that is composed of representatives from the various urban school districts that are members. It also has an executive director and staff that coordinate the work of the council by arranging conferences, conducting studies, and collaborating with other national organizations, government agencies, and corporations to improve the quality of urban education.

School districts are eligible for membership in the Council of the Great City Schools if they are located in cities with populations over 250,000 or have student enrollments over 35,000. School districts, with general urban characteristics, located in the largest city of any state are also eligible for membership regardless of size. Presently, the 65 largest school districts in the United States are members. In 2002–2003, these school districts enrolled more than 7 million students, of which 38.4% are African American, 31.4% are Hispanic, 23.2% are White, 6.4% are Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.7% are Alaskan/Native American. These school districts employed 411,117 teachers in 9,927 schools. The school districts had combined revenues in excess of $40 billion.

The vision of the Council of the Great City Schools is based on the belief that urban public schools exist to teach students to the highest standards of educational excellence. The council’s mission is based on the belief that it is the special mission of America’s urban public schools to educate the nation’s most diverse student body to the highest academic standards. It is through this vision and mission that society achieves cohesion and students are prepared to contribute to the American democracy and the global community. The council has one primary goal and two secondary goals. The primary goal is to educate all urban school students to the highest academic standards, and the two secondary goals are (a) to lead, govern, and manage urban public schools in ways that advance the education of children and inspire the public’s confidence and (b) to engage parents and build a confident, committed, and supportive urban community for raising the achievement of urban public school children.

To promote and improve the quality of urban education, the Council of the Great City Schools is involved in legislation, research, media relations, instruction, management, technology, and other special projects. It sponsors many fact-finding, research, and technical assistance programs that have focused the attention of the U.S. Congress, U.S. Department of Education, and U.S. presidents as well as the nation on issues vital to urban education. The council also facilitates the sharing of promising educational practices, evolving out of the experiences of urban educators, that address educational concerns common to large urban school systems. This is accomplished through studying, developing, implementing, and evaluating programs designed to secure and ensure a quality education and equality of educational opportunity for all urban children.

The Council of the Great City Schools has several task forces that study promising educational practices as well as the concerns of urban educators. The Achievement Gaps Task Force assists urban public school systems in teaching all students to the highest academic standards and in closing identifiable gaps in
the achievement of students by race. The Bilingual, Immigrant, and Refugee Education Task Force assists in improving the quality of instruction for English Language Learners and immigrant children in public urban schools. The School Finance Task Force assists in challenging the inequities in state funding of urban public schools; increasing federal funding and support of urban public schools; passing new federal school infrastructure legislation to help repair, renovate, and build urban public school buildings; and enhancing the ability of urban schools to use Medicare for health. The Leadership, Governance, and Management Task Force assists in improving the quality of leadership in urban public education, improving the effectiveness of urban school boards, lengthening the tenure of urban school superintendents, and enhancing the accountability, management, and operations of the nation’s urban public school systems. The Professional Development Task Force assists in improving the quality of professional development for teachers and principals in urban public schools.

The Council of the Great City Schools has produced numerous reports, studies, and videos about urban education with topics ranging from accountability and achievement, educating English language learners, professional development for urban teachers and administrators, school improvement, and the promotion of excellence in urban schools. It also publishes The Urban Educator, a journal that focuses on sharing promising educational practices as well as the concerns of urban educators. The efforts of the task forces and the numerous reports, studies, and videos assist educators in improving the quality of education in urban areas.

The Council of the Great City Schools hosts annual conferences in members’ cities. The conferences are a cooperative effort between the hosting city school district and the council. Conference attendees include school board members; superintendents; central office personnel; building administrators; teachers; college of education deans and faculty; educational policymakers from national, state, and local governments; policy and research center personnel; and other stakeholders who are interested in urban education. Featured speakers and events revolve around a designated theme and are interwoven with the unique characteristics of the local school district. Each conference provides an opportunity for information exchange and networking as well as for the various council committees and subcommittees to meet to determine objectives and strategies for the upcoming year.

The Council of the Great City Schools also sponsors conferences and meetings for certain constituent groups such as chief financial officers, chief operating officers, curriculum directors, human resource development/personnel directors, legislative/policymakers, public relations officers, and research/assessment personnel. These groups meet and address issues that impact urban education. The outcomes of these conferences and meetings also serve to improve the quality of urban education. An affiliated group to the council is the Great City Colleges of Education. This group consists of the deans of colleges of education in 80 urban areas in the United States. The deans and faculty of the colleges of education are engaged in efforts with urban school educators to improve the quality of education in urban areas.

—Larry McNeal and Marie Byrd-Blake

See also accountability; achievement gap, of students; achievement tests; Black education; Department of Education; governance; immigration, history and impact in education; Latinos; A Nation at Risk; National Assessment of Educational Progress; No Child Left Behind; politics, of education; state departments of education

Further Readings and References


COUNSELING

School counseling is a profession founded in both mental health and education that centers on promoting the academic, career, and personal/social development of students in K–12 schools. Practice varies considerably based on training and particular school needs, although current national models have expanded upon
traditional roles of remediation and individual counseling to include systemic functions such as leadership and advocacy to affect the school system. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) indicates that professional school counselors, as members of the educational team, consult and collaborate with teachers, administrators, and families to assist students to be successful. They work on behalf of students and their families to ensure that all school programs facilitate the educational process and offer the opportunity for school success for each student.

School counselors provide direct services to students through individual and group interventions. Individual counseling consists of working with a student in a one-on-one relationship where the school counselor facilitates mutually determined goals. In group counseling, school counselors work with approximately three to eight students at a time to allow students to work together to resolve difficulties or develop skills. Psychoeducational and counseling groups typically focus on a specific topic (e.g., new student orientation, anger management, grief and loss, study skills) and last from six to eight sessions. Large-group guidance, often called classroom guidance, is planned developmental curriculum delivered in classrooms to teach skills and discuss important topics such as study skills or decision making. Classroom guidance is often delivered in collaboration with teachers. Another collaborative process is consultation, where the school counselor serves as a consultant (e.g., behavioral management) to parents, teachers, or administrators in order to benefit a third party (student/child).

Several systemic functions have gained importance in recent years. Coordination and leadership of programs (e.g., peer mentoring, school improvement committees) and advocacy are used by school counselors to affect and promote student development by influencing and/or manipulating the environment. Advocacy refers to the important role that counselors play in ensuring a voice for the disenfranchised or in breaking down barriers to open access for all students.

In addition to direct services and systemic functions, school counselors often perform a wide range of additional duties. They may include advising students, educational planning and career development, referring students to community-based services, leading or contributing to individual education plan meetings, coordinating course scheduling, collecting and evaluating data about counseling programming, and planning orientation programs or group meetings that promote student adjustment in school transitions. This list is not exhaustive, as school counselors tend to contribute to the school in a variety of ways depending on student and teacher needs, administrator philosophy, case-loads, and environmental circumstances. ASCA advocates a school-counselor-to-student ratio of 1:250, although most states are much higher, and school counselors at times are regulated to noncounseling and administrative duties.

A school counselor is typically trained at the master’s level and is licensed or certified by the state (only a few states still require previous teaching experience). Training programs include coursework in professional identity, social and cultural diversity, human growth and development, career development, helping relationships, group work, assessment, and research and program evaluation. In addition, many programs require supervised practicum and internship experiences that total 700 hours of service, 280 of which must be direct service to students, teachers, and/or parents.

HISTORY

Early School Counseling

School counseling historically has been responsive to meeting societal needs. There is evidence of guidance-related programs dating back to the early 1900s, and as early as 1905, standardized intelligence and military tests were used to evaluate students’ academic abilities and personal interests as a means of categorizing students and exploring career options. In 1907, Jesse B. Davis, a principal in Grand Rapids, Michigan, established a program where 1 hour a week during English classes was dedicated to vocational and moral guidance. In 1908, Frank Parsons, who emphasized the importance of receiving vocational guidance from trained professionals, first published the term vocational guidance in a report.

Teachers who were appointed to the position of vocational counselor filled early guidance positions. The number of guidance specialists in educational settings increased in the 1920s and 1930s. There were, however, no widely accepted standards for training or practice. The philosophies and practices were widely guided by school administrators and beliefs of the guidance specialists.

In the 1930s, directive guidance emerged as the new trend in school counseling. One of the most influential
figures in this movement was E. G. Williamson, who promoted enhancing normal adjustment, goal setting and overcoming obstacles, and assisting in the individual’s quest for a satisfying lifestyle. Williamson also encouraged a slightly more scientific and medical approach to counseling that included analysis, synthesis, diagnosis, prognosis, counseling, and follow-up. With the work of Carl Rogers in the early 1940s came the shift from “problem focus” to “person focus,” with an emphasis on the counseling relationship and climate. Rogers was a pioneer in the field of counseling in that he believed clients have the capacity to solve their own problems while in a therapeutic relationship with a counselor. His work led to the growth of individual counseling as a dominant function for school counselors.

The passage of the George-Barden Act in 1946 resulted in funds being allocated to school guidance activities in a variety of settings and situations. These funds were to be used toward the maintenance of the counseling program, reimbursement of salaries to counselor trainers, research related to guidance, and salaries of counselors and counselor supervisors. This act marked the first official instance of support in the form of money, leadership, and guidance-related materials.

The 1950s–1970s

School counseling became more standardized because of the creation of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) in 1952, the passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958, and an increase in school enrollment caused by the baby boomers born after World War II. The ASCA and the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES), two divisions of APGA, aided in the development and promotion of standards regarding the training of school counselors, with a strong emphasis in counseling theory and clinical training.

After the Soviet satellite Sputnik was launched in 1957, the NDEA was created in response to the perceived threat of Soviet superiority and thus drove the decision makers to identify and appropriately guide academically talented students into careers in profitable and strategic fields. Thus, this act provided federal funds to states in order to improve school counseling programs, as well as to colleges and universities with the aim of improving training programs for school counselors.

Several important steps in the early 1960s also helped shape the practice of school counseling. In 1959, James B. Conant suggested that a ratio of one high school counselor for every 200 or 300 students would be most appropriate. This focus on the importance of guidance helped pave the way for the belief that all high school students should have access to school counselors. In 1960, the White House Conference on Children and Youth thought it best to extend counseling services to preadolescents as well. Thus, in an amendment to the NDEA in 1964, funds were provided to elementary school counseling programs. Finally, in 1962, C. Gilbert Wrenn published a book titled *The Counselor in a Changing World*. This publication emphasized the importance of student development rather than remediation, resulting in a focus on prevention.

Declining school enrollment and economic problems across the country resulted in a great decrease in the number of personnel in many school districts in the 1970s and early 1980s. As a result, many school counseling positions were eliminated, and fewer jobs were available for newly trained school counselors. In addition, the need for elementary school guidance programs that had been established in the 1960s was put on hold.

Even with fewer counselors in schools, school counselors who had jobs continued to emphasize a developmental approach to counseling. In addition, a psychological-based curriculum was introduced, which allowed counselors to focus more on personal development. For example, in 1974, D. B. Keat began to advocate for a more eclectic model of counseling. His model consisted of group and individual counseling, collaboration and consultation with teachers, coordination with school district and community resources, communication with children and adults, offering an affective curriculum, fostering child growth and development, and teaching coping mechanisms.

The 1980s

In the 1980s, APGA changed its name to the American Association for Counseling and Development (AACD) and then was renamed again in the 1990s as the American Counseling Association (ACA). Redefining the professional organization so that counseling was a major descriptive factor helped to represent the goals of the profession more accurately and also helped to define the field of school counseling.
CONTEMPORARY TRENDS

Comprehensive Developmental Guidance Programs

The dominant standard in school counseling currently is a programmatic approach. Norman Gysbers and Patricia Henderson created Comprehensive Developmental Guidance Programs (CDGP), which specifies four phased components: planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating. The planning phase refers to deciding what needs to be changed, understanding the necessary conditions for change to be effective, planning for resistance to change, developing a trusting relationship between counselors and administrators, establishing leadership, committing to the action plan, forming both steering and school community advisory committees, establishing work groups, and meeting with the administration to gain support and authorization for change. Once the planning phase has been completed, the design phase begins. This phase consists of defining the basic structure of the comprehensive guidance program, identifying student competencies by content areas for all grade levels, reaffirming policy support, establishing priorities for the delivery of the program, establishing the parameters for allocating resources, and creating a written description of the desired program. The implementation phase is characterized by developing the human, financial, and political resources that are needed for the program to be fully implemented, focusing on special projects, facilitating changes within the individual school, and implementing public relations activities. The final phase of developing a Comprehensive Developmental Guidance Program is the evaluation phase. This phase consists of evaluating school counselors’ performance, evaluating and collecting data in reference to the program and the results of the program, analyzing the data, reporting the results and conclusions, and using the data in further implementations of the program.

American School Counselor Association’s National Standards

As a method of dealing with the historic question regarding the role of school counselors, Chari Campbell and Carol Dahir developed a set of national standards for ASCA. These standards are designed to focus the areas in which counselors work with students, and they are intended to illustrate the areas in which students’ development is positively affected as a result of school counselors.

There are three main areas of development addressed by ASCA’s national standards: academic development, career development, and personal/social development. Under each of these main areas are three overarching standards, each with specific competencies.

1. Academic Development
   a. Students will acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and skills contributing to effective learning in school and across the life span.
   b. Students will complete school with the academic preparation essential to choose from a wide range of substantial postsecondary options, including college.
   c. Students will understand the relationship of academics to the world of work and to life at home and in the community.

2. Career Development
   a. Students will acquire the skills to investigate the world of work in relation to knowledge of self and to make informed career decisions.
   b. Students will employ strategies to achieve future career success and satisfaction.
   c. Students will understand the relationship between personal qualities, education and training, and the world of work.

3. Personal/Social Development
   a. Students will acquire the attitudes, knowledge, and interpersonal skills to help them understand and respect self and others.
   b. Students will make decisions, set goals, and take necessary action to achieve goals.
   c. Students will understand safety and survival skills.

The ASCA National Model

While CDGP and ASCA national standards have provided impetus for many school counseling programs, the ASCA National Model is an attempt to create “one vision and one voice” by ASCA for the profession. It is aimed at solving two important questions: What do school counselors do? How are students different because of what school counselors do?

The ASCA National Model incorporates CDGP and the ASCA national standards and has three overarching themes of advocacy, leadership, and collaboration. Articulation of the model is done in four
interrelated components: foundation, delivery system, management system, and accountability. The foundation of the program is created by the school district and should be designed to target the knowledge and abilities that each student should possess. A program philosophy and mission statement should be created in order to describe the purpose of the school counseling program, as well as relate the school counseling program’s goals to those of the school district’s. Finally, the foundation promotes a focus on ASCA’s national standards.

Once the foundation has been built, the next step is to consider the delivery system outlining the services that the school counseling program intends to deliver. Subcategories in this component include guidance curriculum (e.g., classroom guidance), individual student planning (e.g., career planning, scheduling), responsive services (e.g., counseling and remediation), and system support (e.g., leadership and program coordination).

The next important consideration is the management system, which refers to how well the school counseling program is organized and how concrete, clearly delineated, and reflective of the school’s needs it is. Subcategories under this component address organization, advisory groups, the use of data, action plans, and distribution of school counselor time.

The last component of the national model is accountability. This refers to putting school counselors in charge of designing measurable methods of demonstrating that the school counseling program is indeed effective. Data to support program effectiveness come from results reports, which include process, perception, and results data that are shared with stakeholders as a means of advocating for students and the counseling program; school counselor performance standards, which include basic standards of practice expected of the school counselors involved; and the program audit, which refers to collecting information to guide future action and improve future results for students.

THE FUTURE OF SCHOOL COUNSELING

The field of school counseling has come a long way since its development in the early 1900s. It has become more clearly defined within the profession, although the diverse and evolving needs of students and multiple perceptions of school leaders continue to shape practice. Although many can cite case examples of the impact of school counseling, the school counselor’s role and the effectiveness of school counselors in the academic community are still unclear to many. Future progress in school counseling will undoubtedly revolve around fortifying a strong and consistent professional identity based on accountability and concrete data.

—Patrick Akos and Amy Milsom

Further Readings and References


Covey, Stephen

An internationally respected authority on leadership and organization, Stephen R. Covey (1932–) has dedicated his life to principle-centered living and principle-centered leadership. As founder of the Institute for
Principle-Centered Leadership, a nonprofit research group dedicated to improving the quality of community life, Covey has transformed the power of principles and natural laws that guide human and organizational effectiveness. With more than 200 members, his international firm, The Covey Leadership Center, empowers professionals and organizations to implement principle-centered leadership to increase productivity, sales, and communications. Covey is also the cofounder and the vice chairman of the FranklinCovey Company, a leading professional services firm. His collective body of work has greatly influenced a generation of educational leaders and scholars.

Covey did his undergraduate work at the University of Utah and received an MBA from Harvard. Subsequently, he earned a doctorate at Brigham Young University, where he served as professor of business management and organization, assistant to the president, and director of university relations. Throughout his career, he has received multiple honorary doctoral degrees and has been the recipient of the Thomas More College Medallion for continuing service to humanity. In 1994, he was named the International Entrepreneur of the Year, and in 1996, he received the National Entrepreneur of the Year Lifetime Achievement Award. He was awarded the International Man of Peace Award in 1998, and Time magazine named Covey one of the 25 most influential Americans.

Covey’s first two books, Spiritual Roots of Human Relations (1975) and Daily Reflections for Highly Effective People (1984), are geared more toward self-improvement than corporate management and espouse a religious perspective of human effectiveness and interaction. His most popular book, The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People (1989), was a New York Times number-one best seller. In 2002, Forbes rated this book as one of the top-10 most influential management books, and Chief Executive Magazine rated the book as one of the two most influential business books of the twentieth century. While The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People was designed for self-improvement, the book looks at ways people and organizations use personality-based solutions, “social Band-Aids,” to solve problems.Acknowledging the importance of the personality ethic, Covey encourages people to look deeper and to emphasize the character ethic. The seven habits espoused in the book are as follows: Be proactive; begin with the end in mind; put first things first; think win-win; seek first to understand, then to be understood; synergize; and sharpen the saw. Covey encourages readers to understand that the seven habits are not quick fixes and that the habits may take time to acquire and institutionalize in a meaningful manner. Several of Covey’s later publications, The 7 Habits of Highly Effective Families (1997), Quotes and Quips: Insights on Living the 7 Habits (1998), and Living the 7 Habits: Stories of Courage and Inspiration (1999), were built on the framework contained in The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People. Other Covey publications include The Divine Center (1988), Principle-Centered Leadership (1991), First Things First (1994), and The Nature of Leadership (1998).

Covey’s writings have been criticized for being a thin veil for his lifetime work in the Mormon Church, lacking an empirical research base, and the overuse of pop management terms such as paradigm, correct principles, emotional bank account, and the P/PC balance. His work has also been reproached for being patriarchal and sexist.

—Brenda R. Kallio

See also authority; critical theory; fundamentalism; empiricism; gender studies, in educational leadership; great man theory; Kuhn, Thomas; leadership, spiritual; religion, in the schools; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; sexism (glass ceiling)

Further Readings and References


**CREATIONISM**

Creationism is based on the literalist tenets of fundamentalist Christianity. This views the Protestant Christian rendition of the Bible as the literal word of
God. According to fundamentalist belief, each event described in the Bible actually happened or will happen. The Bible is viewed by fundamentalist Christians as the repository for all truth: religious, historical, and scientific. Although there are actually two creation stories in Genesis and they differ, fundamentalists claim that the story of creation found in the book of Genesis is scientifically accurate. Other stories of creation, including those stories rooted in science, are dismissed by adherents as ungodly and un-Christian.

Creationism arose during the early twentieth century in response to evolutionary biology and its place within the science curricula of U.S. public schools. Perhaps the most famous and early legal battle between evolution and creationism occurred in the 1920s, in a Dayton, Tennessee, courthouse. Here, John Scopes, a local high school science teacher, was convicted of violating Tennessee’s ban on the teaching of evolution in its public schools. The trial pitted two of the era’s most colorful American lawyers against each other. Clarence Darrow, working for the American Civil Liberties Union, represented Scopes. William Jennings Bryan, a former presidential candidate and adherent to the Biblical account of creation, represented the state. Adding to the drama was the presence of numerous reporters and columnists representing national newspapers and radio stations, who mostly lampooned Bryan in their reporting. Bryan did not help matters when he took the stand to testify in defense of the Tennessee statute. Under Darrow’s merciless cross-examination, Bryan admitted that the earth was far older than 6,000 years. Between Darrow’s pointed questioning and the savage reporting, Bryan won the case, but he lost the cultural battle. In response, Christian fundamentalists retreated from the larger U.S. political culture for the next 50 years.

Bans on evolution, while infrequent, remained constitutional until 1968. That year, the U.S. Supreme Court in Epperson v. Arkansas ruled that the justification of that state’s ban on teaching evolution in the Arkansas public schools was rooted in religion. The Court noted that Arkansas had banned evolution because it conflicted with the tenets of one specific religion: fundamentalist Christianity. Since the state was reshaping educational policy to conform to narrow religious doctrine, such a legislative approach violated the U.S. Constitution’s separation of church and state. From 1968 forward, policies that banned evolution from U.S. public schools could not survive a legal challenge.

During the early 1970s, supporters of a literalist interpretation of the Bible reached out with other like-minded conservatives to form a nascent Christian Right. This alliance helped strengthen their political power, particularly with vulnerable local school boards. Since evolution could not be legally banned outright in public schools, the new strategy was to insist that “creation science” or creationism be given equal time in the science curricula if evolutionary biology was covered. This approach is also known as “balanced treatment.” By the late 1970s, creationism enjoyed its political heyday as a growing Christian Right focused part of its energies in reshaping public school curricula. Instead of trying to get evolution out of public schools, the goal was to include creationism as part of the regular science curriculum into as many public schools as possible.

Creationism was dealt a seemingly crippling blow in 1982 in the court case McLean et al. v. Arkansas Board of Education. In his decision, Judge William R. Overton established a legal definition for science based on what he called essential characteristics of science. They included:

- It is guided by natural law.
- It has to be explanatory by reference to natural law.
- It is testable against the empirical world.
- Its conclusions are tentative (i.e., are not necessarily the final word).
- It is falsifiable.

Since creation science or creationism failed each of these tests, it could not qualify as science. Five years later, creationism suffered a final blow when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Edwards vs. Aguillard (1987) that Louisiana’s Act for Balanced Treatment of Creation-Science and Evolution was state-supported religion, because public schools that taught evolution were also required to teach creationism.

At a legal dead end with promoting creationism and creation science as science in public schools, advocates of biblical literalism have changed tactics again and have developed a new strand of creationism: “intelligent design,” or ID. Instead of explicitly embracing fundamentalist doctrine as the basis for scientific belief like the early creationists did, proponents of ID take a more generic approach. Accordingly, the key elements of ID are a (a) personal creator who (b) is supernatural and who (c) initiated and (d) continues to control the process of creation (e) in furtherance of some end or purpose. While the fundamentalist
Christian theology is still present in ID, it has been embedded into a more general approach. Perhaps the most well-known organization for promoting ID in public schools is the Institute for Creation Research. This group clearly states its creationist theology on its Web site (www.icr.org). As such, public schools that use ICR materials, research, and advocates as science will fail legal scrutiny because of their ultimate theological foundations. Furthermore, such approaches ignore other religious traditions (like Judaism and Islam) and even conflict with the doctrine of other branches of Christianity. For example, the Catholic Church and many mainline Protestant denominations have issued statements noting that scientific understandings and religious understandings are compatible because there are multiple forms of truth. In other words, science is not religious truth, and religious truth cannot function as scientific fact.

Nevertheless, creationism has played a long and contested role in debates over science education in the United States. Given the political longevity of the Christian Right and political power fundamentalists can wield over some local school boards and states, it will remain a controversial fixture in the politics of U.S. education.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also Bible, as history; Christian Coalition; church-state issues; Darwin, Charles; fundamentalism; religion, in schools; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law

Further Readings and References


CREATIVITY, IN MANAGEMENT

Creativity in management is based on the ability of the educational leader to generate ideas that are innovative and lead to change in the educational organization. In a socially and technologically changing environment, creativity is becoming an obvious requirement for leadership effectiveness in regard to nonroutine school-related decisions. Foremost, demands have been placed on school and district leaders to create and achieve an educational vision that moves the school organization toward educational excellence and continuous quality each year. Generating creativity should involve representatives from all of a school’s participants and stakeholders so that new ideas and projects are formulated. These representatives should be drawn from the school community of students, teachers, staff, business, governmental, and community groups. Creating a vision of educational excellence is part of the planning function of management and should be linked to the goals and goal-setting process when school departments or divisions develop their strategy, mission, and objectives for schools.

Theorists posit that creativity can be developed through innovative training methods and direct application. Teresa M. Amabile maintains that managers have to rethink how they motivate, reward, and match people to their work positions. The more creative manager tends to be open, personable, supportive, flexible, adaptive, informal, participative, and collaborative. A creative manager’s mind-set is to be an informed risk taker and encourage the development of new ideas. Some experienced managers report taking informed risks and claim to rely on intuition, hunches, and creative techniques to move organizations forward into new, different, and changing directions. When managers emphasize creativity, they tend to create the conditions in which innovation occurs as well as oversee the practical aspects of creative development. There is a willingness to expand resources for innovative activities. Applying an analogy, one may consider the creative manager an informational gatekeeper or energetic change agent; he or she collects and dispenses information and then inspires others to make changes that will move organizations forward in unique and different ways.

Creative managers adopt strategies that energize the organization and consistently communicate with all participants within the school community. They may involve setting up different school projects, using the school’s social network to get different stakeholders to participate in school activities, developing entrepreneurial ventures and partnerships, tapping the expertise of parents and families, utilizing site-based
management teams, and collaborating with business leaders, parents, and community members who can generate increased participation. Within the school, new methods can be adopted that redesign the work environment and the work flow, rotate people into different positions, or even develop unique reward systems that make people know their work is appreciated. Creative managers direct individuals to achieve and do the work, but they do not tell individuals how to carry out the work or develop the steps to accomplish the work.

School leaders can help recapture creativity by adopting several creative techniques that can help the school population become more innovative in their approach and processes, such as utilizing groups and teams in the school organization that will add to a variety of viewpoints. Increasing a group’s diversity with multiple representatives from community, business, social, economic, and age-related groups helps the group become more creative. Theorists like Peter Senge, Lee G. Bolman, and Terence E. Deal posit that it is easier to change individuals when they work with other individuals who will influence them than to try to change one person’s thinking. The goal is to change the lateral thinking of individuals and help them adopt new thinking techniques that will get them to think out of a self-imposed box. Thinking becomes freer flowing, spontaneous, and intuitive. Too often, individuals have developed self-imposed blocks to their creativity that are the result of repeated influences of the media, society, and culture. It is important for a manager to think of people from a group perspective primarily and not from an individual perspective. Every person with whom a creative manager interacts is considered a member of multiple groups or teams.

Innovative techniques run the gamut from arranging warm-up sessions that stimulate creativity to scheduling focused seminars and workshops that enhance creative problem solving and decision making. According to J. Daniel Couger, these techniques involve multiple methods, among them developing analogies and metaphors (associating or comparing a problem or process with a different area or field of thought), brainstorming (generating new and innovative ideas without evaluating or discounting any idea that is introduced), attribute association technique (ideas originate from previous ideas that have been modified), boundary examination (restructuring assumptions and suspending them), decomposable matrices (utilizing quantitative analysis to prioritize ideas), devil’s advocate (pointing out weaknesses), force field analysis (identifying vision, strengths, and weaknesses), goal/wish (unusual ideas and alternatives), interrogatories (who, what, when, where, why and how), left/right brain alternations (using a holistic brain approach), nominal group (combining brainstorming with brain writing or writing down ideas in round-robin sessions), problem reversal (examining a problem from multiple angles, including turning it upside down and inside out) and progressive abstraction (moving from a basic problem to higher levels of abstraction so that new definitions emerge). One method, which is proving to be successful, is to also use computer technology to generate more effective ideas, alternatives, and solutions.

The advantage of utilizing creative management techniques is that they can lead to innovative ways of approaching problems, multiple skill sets and ways of performing, diversity within schools and utilizing groups and teams. The disadvantage to creative management is that it requires more time and overlooks individual expertise, it may be difficult to implement in schools that stress uniformity, and its adaptation may lead to groupthink. Groupthink is the desire of group members to emphasize group relationships and accommodate or conform to the group rather than generate or implement divergent ideas and notions.

—Patricia Ann Marcellino

See also adaptiveness of organizations; attitudes; communications, theories in organizations; creativity, theories of; de Bono, Edward; differentiation of stimuli; field theory; goals, goal setting; group dynamics; innovation, in education; leadership, theories of; management theories; systemic reform

Further Readings and References


CREATIVITY, THEORIES OF

Creativity resists a commonly accepted definition. What is common to definitions of creativity are the concepts of novelty and value. For a response or product to be deemed creative, it must be atypical, unusual, unique plus effective, and useful in addressing a problem.

Creativity is also difficult to study because the process or act stems from ideas. Ideas are intangible and ephemeral, relying on expression to bring them to life. Ideas also act like viruses in that they are plentiful and rely on hosts to survive. To carry the metaphor further, the environment in which ideas find themselves determines whether their infection is positive or negative.

Creativity also relies on environment for its validity. A best-seller novel is not necessarily more creative than another novel, yet the culture embraces the one and not the other. A poem is as different from a sculpture as ice is to fire, yet both are the results of creative outputs. Handel’s Messiah, produced within a 24-hour period, is no less an act of creativity than Wolfram’s new theory of science, a 20-year endeavor.

A LINGUISTIC LINK TO INSANITY

Man has long been fascinated with creativity and the contribution this ability makes to our survival and comfort. The bicameral mind, a phrase coined by Julian Jaynes, posited that creativity came from the gods, for they controlled the chamber of the mind in which new thoughts occurred. When the muse was present, madness ensued.

In Latin, the language of choice at the time, madness was not distinguished from inspiration. Because of this linguistic deficiency, the uneasy alliance of insanity with creativity began. Although empirical research is inconclusive, the characteristics of creative people, their intense focus, eccentricity, acknowledgment of a muse, and fantasies, continue to reinforce this linguistic myth. Carl Jung’s theory contributes as well. He posits that creativity, with its archetypal sources, wells up and cannot be denied in that Jungian process of opposing forces.

Aristotle departed from the bicameral perspective and speculated that thoughts were involved with the creative process. He believed that insight began through associationism, in other words, ideas associated with other ideas and led to creativity.

During the Golden Age (500–200 BC) creativity reigned. When Roman emperors proclaimed themselves gods, the decline of creativity began. The medieval period lost its grip when the Black Death wiped out one third of the population, and from the Renaissance came the Age of Enlightenment and humanism, the ability of humans to solve problems from their own mental efforts. In that period, the term genius came to be associated with creativity, as did intelligence.

Sir Francis Galton coined the term genius and believed that ideas in the conscious mind were linked to ideas in the unconscious. He also believed genius, and thus creativity, was inherited. Gestalt theory opposed this. Developed by Germans, Gestaltists believe that being creative is more complicated than what Galton proposed. Gestalt is German for mental patterns or forms, and it was theorized that the whole of a creative idea cannot be reduced to a sum of its parts. Cognitive psychology continues to struggle with these two ideas: genius and the workings of the brain itself.

William James challenged the Gestaltists and Galton’s followers when he speculated that environment might impact genetic inheritance. Upbringing, a result of parental philosophy, might be more important than genes. Studies of geniuses like Einstein and Freud reveal that parental support of talents and efforts does enhance creativity.

Hemisphericity theory entered the creative fray about the same time as did those arguments about nature versus nurture. The two cerebral hemispheres are independent of each other but can also function simultaneously in parallel as they are connected by the corpus callosum. It is this part of the brain that research is now focusing upon, because creativity requires both hemispheres to be engaged. Frederick Bremer was the first to speculate that creativity may lie in the corpus callosum.

The debate within psychology for a definition and explanation of creativity continues along a three-pronged division. Freud’s belief that creativity is connected to primitive drives like sexuality is one interpretation of the psychoanalytic school of thought that creativity is linked to biology as well as psychology. Behaviorists like B. F. Skinner posit that creativity comes about because it makes the artist feel better. The stimulus, a problem to be solved, leads to creative response, which lessens tension. Humanists like Abraham Maslow view creativity as an essential and healthy process that contributes toward self-actualization. Cognitive psychologists study creativity as a mental process. The concept of flow introduced by Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi looks at creativity as a systems
process that involves the individual, culture, and universe in the birth and acceptance of new ideas. Associative theory, formulated by Sarnoff Mednick, postulates that creative thinking is the formation of associative elements into new combinations that either meet specified requirements or are in some way useful.

Present-day theories have moved to an encapsulation of biology, psychology, and social influences in an integrative explanation of the creative process. This theory holds the following generalizations: having a genius IQ is not necessary for creativity, although having an above-average IQ is; variables such as motivation, personality, and environment impact creativity; all of us have the ability to be creative; biological, psychological, and social factors influence creativity; creativity peaks at certain cultural stress points in life; creativity is necessary in our information-processing world, and creative ability can be purposefully enhanced.

PEAK PERIODS OF CREATIVITY

Certain critical periods of crisis and change occur at various ages throughout one’s life, and these are the peak periods in which creativity can be cultivated. For males and females, the ages at which people experience stress because of life changes are 0 to 5; 11 to 14 for males and 10 to 13 for females; 18 to 20; 29 to 31; 40 to 45; and 60 to 65. For example, children’s make-believe play helps in understanding the world’s complexities and manifests itself as fantasies and daydreams in adulthood. Age does not lessen creativity, but the discrimination against older people from critics and the public, especially in the United States, does affect how their creativity is valued.

No one has defined a list of creative characteristics to identify creative children. Most experts agree that such children exhibit a high tolerance for ambiguity, a willingness to take risks, the ability to use the ordinary in extraordinary ways, a preference for disorder, delay of gratification, perseverance, and courage. Self-control or the development of self-control is an important characteristic for productive creatives.

Creative people are intrinsically motivated. If children are allowed to self-select projects and topics of study, that can enhance their creativity. Within the current evaluation and assessment culture, an atmosphere that inhibits positive creativity, stressing the development of skills rather than the acquisition of gold stars can foster inventiveness. Studies have shown that rigidity in schools, inflexible rules, routines, intolerance of playfulness, and ridiculing of original ideas quash creativity. Consistent among the findings is the discovery that motivation is a deciding factor. The old adage that genius is 1% inspiration and 99% perspiration holds true.

STAGES OF CREATIVITY—UNDERSTANDING CREATIVITY

Creative people have some characteristics in common. They work hard to achieve realization of the goals they set for themselves, often spending years preparing for creative productivity. The desire to create something original, to find something new, is an important part of the creative process, which sustains them in their search. Overnight success often takes as long as 15 years to achieve. Flexibility in thought processes is another commonality, especially when it is supported by a strong desire to be independent in thought and action, to “think outside the box,” not confined by fashion or convention. Current studies show that a high IQ does not predict creativity, which leads some theorists to suspect that originality lies in motivation, not innate talent. If this is true, creativity can be acquired through extensive study if the creative person is motivated by a desire to learn, create, and produce. Knowledge acquisition allows pattern recognition, which when combined with flexibility allows the expert to think outside the box and create. Motivation and desire seem to be keys of creative production.

The actual mental process of creativity is not clearly understood. Acquiring a knowledge base is a critical stage of preparation, but that is common to both noncreatives and creatives. Within the creative mind, this knowledge is then reorganized by the unconscious through metacognitive endeavors that control and enable the restructuring process. How this process is achieved is unknown. What is known is that when the subconscious is done restructuring input, illumination, or the “Aha” moment, occurs. This recognition comes quickly.

Illumination is the final stage of creativity. For some, the illumination process produces completed works that they just copy down. For others, the idea appears as a nebulous product that needs refinement for the brilliance to emerge. Through metacognitive strategies, the chaff is winnowed from the wheat, and originality emerges.

—JoAnn Franklin Klinker
Critical race theory (CRT) is an analytical framework that offers a raced-based epistemological and methodological approach to study racial inequality in the field of educational leadership. The framework provides a lens to analyze the ways that alleged “race-neutral” institutional policies and practices perpetuate inequitable educational experiences and outcomes for historically underrepresented African American, Latina(o), American Indian, and Asian American students, faculty, and staff.

One of the major underlying premises of CRT is that any analysis of educational policies and practices that focus on people of color must be framed within a historical context that accounts for the racialized development of the U.S. educational system. This premise enables CRT to offer the opportunity to analyze how some of the major dominant liberal ideals, such as meritocracy and color blindness, have operated and continue to operate in a way that disadvantages people of color while further advantaging Whites.

GUIDING ASSUMPTIONS OF CRT

Critical race theory in education is guided by a set of perspectives and assumptions that have been identified as central defining elements of the framework. A CRT lens in the field of educational leadership includes the following basic assumptions:

- Racism is endemic to American life and most often exists in educational institutions in subtle forms.
- Dominant claims that educational practices, policies, and outcomes are guided by ideals of meritocracy, objectivity, and color blindness are false.
- Analyses of racial inequality must account for the racially stratified, historical evolution of the U.S. educational system.
- The experiential knowledge and perspective of people of color and their communities of origin are a central, analytical dimension of analysis of racial inequality.
- Analyses of racial inequality must draw from multiple disciplines, epistemologies, and methodologies.
- A central purpose for analyses of racial inequality is to dismantle racial oppression as part of the broader goal of ending all forms of oppression.

These defining elements form a framework that is highly applicable to the field of educational leadership, as it can help to further sensitize and inform the work of educational researchers and practitioners about the consequences of institutionalized racist beliefs, policies, and practices.

CRT METHODOLOGY

CRT relies on the use of “counterstories” as a central methodology. Counterstories are offered by members of marginalized groups who, by virtue of their marginal status, are able to tell stories that are different from the ones White scholars often tell and hear. These counterstories can be in the forms of dialogues, chronicles, and personal testimonies. In contrast, a “majoritarian story” is made up of presuppositions and shared cultural understandings offered by Whites in discussions of race. A discussion of race in a majoritarian story is often a story by those who have racial privilege, and it becomes a tale where racial privilege seems “natural” and unquestioned because people see it as a “natural” part of everyday life. Thus, the counterstory is a method of telling the stories of those experiences that are not often told by and about those who are marginalized by society.
CRITIQUES OF CRT

There are two major critiques of CRT. The first alleges that CRT essentializes the racial/ethnic identity of people of color, while the second major critique challenges the reliability and validity of CRT counterstories.

The first critique contends that CRT engages in identity politics by reducing racial and ethnic identity into a single identifying characteristic, reinforcing the incorrect assumption that there is a monolithic experience of people of color. However, while CRT does foreground race and begins its analysis by focusing on racism, it considers it as only one of several dimensions of one’s identity, which ultimately contributes to the positionality of individuals and groups.

The second critique of CRT asserts that counterstories are premised upon an invalid and unreliable assumption because of their reliance on the centrality of the experiential knowledge of people of color. This critique contends that scholars of color do not tell stories that are any different than the stories told by White scholars, and it questions the methodological rigor of the “raced” composite characters and biographical narratives. However, this critique is primarily premised upon the belief that counterstories lack methodological validity and reliability because they cannot be generalized as representative experiences of people of color. This is the same type of argument that is often offered to discount the value of most methodological tools that adopt qualitative approaches.

THE EVOLUTION OF CRT IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Even though CRT has existed as an analytical lens in the legal studies field for well over two decades, it is still considered to be in its infancy in the general field of education, having been initially introduced by Gloria Ladson-Billings and William Tate, in a 1995 article published in Teachers College Record. However, since their initial publication, the field of education has focused increasingly greater attention on the potential contributions of this lens through the publication of special theme issues on CRT in major journals (International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, in 1998; Qualitative Inquiry, in 2002; Equity & Excellence in Education, in 2003; and Educational Administration Quarterly, 2005–2006).

As the utility and limitations of CRT continue to evolve in the field of educational leadership, the framework will likely offer opportunities to improve our general understanding of how notions of race neutrality permeate, among other things, our educational licensure standards, coursework, internships, and job interviews, yet in actuality, we adopt quite race-conscious practices by making decisions that, while perhaps subconscious, often favor Whites. For example, while educational institutions and leaders claim to promote excellence in education and “socially just” practices and outcomes, they continue to tolerate a special education placement rate of 50% for African American, Latina(o)/Chicana(o), and American Indian students in behavior/emotional disorder classes (even though these racial/ethnic groups combined may constitute only less than 30% of the student population in some school districts). A CRT analysis of these educational inequities challenges their often-cited attributions to cultural deficiencies in the students’ families, and instead points to historical and persistent failures of the educational system, which has left them at a severe educational disadvantage.

—Octavio Villalpando

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Bethune; Mary McLeod; Black education; Chavez, Cesar Estrada; Clark, Septima; Cooper, Anna Julia; Coppin, Fanny Jackson; cross-cultural studies; desegregation, of schools; discrimination; diversity; DuBois, W. E. B.; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; King, Martin Luther Jr.; Latinos; Lawrence-Lightfoot, Sara; leadership, theories of; Malcolm X; Marshall, Thurgood; Mendez, Felicitas; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; resiliency; sexism (glass ceiling); Sizemore, Barbara A; Washington, Booker T.; Woodson, Carter G.

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CRITICAL THEORY

A group of theorists associated with the Institute for Social Research in Frankfurt, Germany, founded the...
Frankfurt school in 1923. The term critical theory represents their approach to the study of society developed between 1930 and 1970. The four most important philosophers belonging to the school were Max Horkheimer, Theodor Adorno, Herbert Marcuse, and, later, Jürgen Habermas. Rather than one definitive theory, critical theory seems most often a cluster of themes: inclusion of several disciplines of the social sciences, a historical perspective, oppositional (dialectical) contradictions, using formal rationality to deny power to classes of citizens, emancipation, and the elimination of social injustice.

Critical theory has its origins in the philosophies of G. W. F. Hegel and Karl Marx. Hegel held the belief that a unified theory of reality can be developed that can systematically explain all forms of reality, starting from a single principle or subject. Reason, according to Hegel, was that fundamental unifying principle that explains all reality; reason, however, is a process whose goal is the recognition of reason through itself. Marx, following Hegel’s philosophy of the single unifier, held the belief that political life and the ideas associated with it are themselves determined by the characteristics of economic life. His philosophy is based on his belief that one’s being consists in labor (the single unifier); however, humans are separated from each other to the extent that, first, the performance of one’s labor is dictated by the market; thus, political and economic forces impinge on labor, and what we often classify as a worldview is actually the articulations of the dominant class. It is only when labor recovers its collective character that people will recognize themselves as the true creators of history, a progression through stages where, at each stage, the form taken by a society is conditioned by the society’s attained level of productivity and the requirements for its increase. Marxism generally focuses on the clash between the dominant and repressed classes in any given age.

The Frankfurt school emerged in the postmodern era from the historical context of post–World War I Germany and the Russian Revolution. With the end of the Enlightenment Era in philosophy, the postmodernists sought to dispel the notion that there is universal objective truth. The connection between technology and progress, and science and moral development, began to collapse in the 1920s. One war had just occurred, and another seemed on the horizon. Postmodernists began to reject artificially sharp dichotomies and to appreciate the inherent irony and particularity of language and life; they began to see multiple realities and questioned traditional absolute truths. Because reality is not purely objective and does not exist independent of the humans who interpret it, postmodernists developed various theories to interpret their environment and reality, including structuralism, semiotics, poststructuralism, critical theory, and deconstruction. Philosophers from the Frankfurt school were attempting to adapt Marxism to the theoretical and political needs of the time.

The critical theorists from the Frankfurt school and anthropologist Bourdieu were opposed to closed philosophical systems and pretensions to absolute truth in which individual autonomy is eliminated. To address the legitimacy of and potential for changing existing power structures, critical theorists generally hold the view that humans create their history and society, which, they believe, should be a society of free actors that go beyond the tension between, and abolish the opposition to, one’s purposefulness, spontaneity, and rationality and the results of one’s labor. While offering a critique of other social theories, critical theorists provide tools for seeing anew ideas or processes taken for granted. Oppositional thinking is one of the keys for gaining such insight.

While Horkheimer conceptualized the Frankfurt institute’s interdisciplinary research, Adorno was the philosophical architect of the first generation of critical theorists from the Frankfurt school and, along with
Horkheimer, departed from more orthodox Marxists and believed that injustice and nihilism were the result of the abstractive character of the Enlightenment’s instrumental reason. Propaganda replaced critical thinking; technology and science were being used as instruments of war; rationality was used for control and domination; thus, the Enlightenment had become a tool of hegemony because reason was being used to strengthen systems rather than transform them. Critical theorists held that if there is only reason as the unifier, then we repress or suppress the sensory, linguistic, and social interventions that connect knowing subjects to objects, to persons and nature. It became the task of philosophers, in their opinion, to identify and “critique” the Enlightenment and instrumental reason and the obstacles that block the knowing. Horkheimer contrasted critical theory with traditional theories to highlight the manner in which critical theory counters attempts to construct a fixed system and every attempt to identify the subject with the object, whether conceived in terms of social institutions or the “covering” categories of philosophy.

Less pessimistic than Marx, Adorno, and Horkheimer, Marcuse criticized the capitalism of post–World War II. He popularized the critique of capitalistic Western liberal democracies as totally administered societies permeated by the values of consumerism, in which the manufacture and satisfaction of “false needs” served to prevent the working class from gaining any genuine insight into their situation. Marcuse’s One Dimensional Man, written in 1964, and Habermas’s Theory of Communicative Action, written 20 years later, have particular import for educational administration. Marcuse believed that a revolt of the underclass and marginalized or disenfranchised workers would stimulate a broader social transformation. Domination is not necessary for people in history to realize their potential. What is required is to show that better ways are possible and inherent in the appearance; thus, the task is to identify and critique the obstacles that block such better ways, not showing the better way, since to do so would be prescriptive. This belief that workers would stimulate a social transformation was supported by a “state of rest,” in which all conflicts are overcome, where rational thought and sensual pleasure are not at war, but at a point in which work merges into play, a condition he believed is offered in art, the possible form of a free society (the artistic leader, perhaps?). He held hope that the imagination could show politics the way (in education, for example, the creative leader) and that society would not be filled with one-dimensional positivist thinkers.

Particularly important for educational leaders is Jürgen Habermas, who, in his theory of communicative action, moved from a critique of capital or political economy to a critique of distorted communication. If relations, for example, between leader and follower are to be truly emancipated, then both groups must be able to engage in uncoerced, rational discourse that can take place only in an “ideal speech situation.” Ideal speech, in turn, is said to be based on norms of truth, freedom, and justice, which underlie the conditions for engaging in understandable and truthful dialogue. In addition, Habermas locates the origins of the various political, economic, and cultural crises confronting modern society in a one-sided process of rationalization steered more by money and administrative power than by forms of collective decision making based on consensually grounded norms and values. He is noted for his wide-ranging defense of the modern public sphere and its related ideals of publicity and free public reason, and also for his contribution to theories of communication and informal discourse, ethics, and foundations and methodology of the social sciences.

The chief role of a critical educational leader, based on a grounding in critical theory, ought to be a role inclusive of social critique, creative and reflective decision making, and change, whereby the restrictive and marginalizing conditions of the status quo in schools are brought to light. Since a critical perspective focuses on the oppositions, conflicts, and contradictions in contemporary society and seeks to be emancipatory, helping to eliminate the causes of alienation and domination, the key role of a school administrator becomes one of leading, not managing a school. An emerging theory of leadership, transformational leadership, seems to come close to the type of leader needed for schools. The organizational perspectives from chaos and complexity theories seem to be an appropriate organizational framework from which to develop contextual leadership. Critical management theory has as its focus the constructing or resurrecting of stories and voices of excluded, marginalized, and exploited members in modern organizations. The critical postmodern leader, consequently, should operate with an understanding that a more enlightened and empowering leader who has a great understanding of the whole as well as its parts can counter exploitation within the organization.
Unfortunately, although critical theorists have produced scholarship from a critical perspective in educational leadership, the practice of leading schools has yet to follow suit.

The late critical theorist William Foster proposed that leadership become the creation of new and different narratives and that leadership become a practice realized through different discourse, a discourse, for example, achieved through powers of suasion. Using Foucault’s notion of “technologies of thought,” Foster suggested that leaders develop a new way of thinking and application of control over technologies of thought such as numeracy, information, and language, which have the potential to hold great power (suasion) over others. Foster suggested that rather than using numbers and statistics, the distribution and control of information systems, and the language of leadership for control and domination, leaders use these technologies of thought for emancipation, empowerment, transformation, and change. A critical theory of educational leadership involves conceiving of what leaders could be, how radicalizing the concept of leading and leadership could help change society, and, hence, the leader’s role in that change.

—JoAnn Danelo Barbour

See also administration, theories of; chaos theory; critical race theory; dialectical inquiry; empowerment; equality, in schools; feminism and theories of leadership; human capital; leadership, theories of; Marx, Karl; persuasion; power; queer theory; social capital

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credibility of statements and the logic of the relationships, actual or inferred, between those statements. The professor who critiques a student teacher’s questioning behavior for critical thinking elements uses evaluation to do that exercise.

In addition, critical thinkers can explain what they think and how they arrived at that judgment. Stating the results requires that they justify their reasoning and present arguments for it. Organizing one’s findings into a chart is an example of that explanation. Reviewing that chart and considering whether anything is missing adds the final piece to effective critical thinking, the ability to self-regulate.

To use these cognitive skills effectively, critical thinkers must have certain attributes. A desire to find the truth coupled with an inquisitive mind when partnered with courage, integrity, and perseverance sharpens critical thinking into a purposeful human tool. These are value-laden attributes that have always been associated with scientific reasoning.

—JoAnn Franklin Klinker

See also accountability; behaviorism; case studies; critical theory; curriculum, theories of; decision making; empiricism; feedback; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, theories of; management theories; organizational theories; politics, of education; principalship; problem solving; rational organizational theory; role conflict; school districts, history and development; superintendency; workplace trends

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CROSS-CULTURAL EDUCATION

Due to globalization and the advance of transportation and technology, the frequency and magnitude of interaction among people around the globe has increased substantially. In the field of education, this translates to increasing diversity in classrooms and increased necessity of learning about cultures other than one’s own for better communication and understanding. Although the importance of cross-cultural education has increased, the area is not well-defined, nor has it been extensively studied compared with other closely related areas, such as comparative education, international education, and multicultural education. The term cross-cultural education also is often used interchangeably with intercultural education.

A definition of cross-cultural education is that it involves a mixture of cultures in which a student is made aware of his or her own and other cultures that comprise his or her education. This approach involves experiential education.

Experiential education is one of the major approaches to cross-cultural education that provides actual experiences of visiting or living in a culture other than one’s own and gaining educational experiences and knowledge through personal experiences. One of the popular examples of an experiential approach is the study abroad program. Through either short-term or long-term study abroad programs, students who participate are expected to develop a renewed sense of respect, appreciation, and apprehension about their host cultures that goes beyond acquisition of factual knowledge.

Another popular example of cross-cultural education can be seen in migrant education and English as a second language education. However, many migrant education programs are often limited to the education of language and culture of the migrants’ host country. This approach positions migrant students as “problematic” and is largely based on the “deficiency” model of education. Cross-cultural education should be presented to the whole class rather than just to the migrant students to facilitate respect and tolerance toward cultural diversity and forming solidarity among students with diverse cultures. Cross-cultural education at the institutional level advocates integration of students with diverse cultures, rather than assimilation.

Cross-cultural education involves not only learning at different cultural institutions but also learning about different cultures. A student does not need to be in another place or culture other than his or her own to receive cross-cultural education. Cross-cultural education is commonly found in many foreign-language classes. Language influences the possibility of intracultural or intercultural understanding, and language
learning requires proper understanding of context and culture where the language is being used. Many second- or foreign-language classes strive to bring cross-cultural education into the classroom to be able to enhance student language learning.

Cross-cultural education can also be found in geography or history classes, but it should not be limited to a single subject area. If it is treated as a single subject matter, method, or structure, cross-cultural education can become static. One of the most important emphases of cross-cultural education is interaction among people from different cultures. Thus, cross-cultural education is an ideological approach or strategy to education rather than content in a single subject matter. In this vein, cross-cultural education should be incorporated not only into subject areas such as geography, history, or language classes but also into everyday class activities and practices.

Furthermore, cross-cultural education traditionally assumes that one learns about “other” cultures based on differences in national and geographic boundaries, but recent scholarship has expanded the notion of culture to differences among race, class, and gender of people within a nation or geographic area. Thus, cross-cultural education should not be limited to studying about cultural artifacts, customs, traditions, or histories of other nations. Cross-cultural education should go beyond the collection of knowledge that is based on cultural artifacts, customs, and rituals. In-depth cross-cultural education can be achieved through an examination of ways of thinking, values, and histories of the culture that a student is studying.

The main purpose of cross-cultural education is the mutual enrichment of each party who participates in the cross-cultural education. It also transcends both ethnocentric views and cultural relativism and strives to find commonly shared values and beliefs as well as differences. To achieve this goal, flexible models of intercultural understanding that can transcend the values of the foreign culture and those of our own are needed. Understanding of another culture helps to develop cultural identity that steers clear of the extremes of either ethnocentrism or relativism.

Cross-cultural education is more than learning at different cultural institutions or learning about different cultures. It requires learning and understanding of different cultures that ultimately enhance individuals’ cross-cultural competence. Cross-cultural education enables students to competently interact with people from other cultures or live comfortably among people who share different cultures, with appreciation and understanding of all cultures.

—Ji-Yeon O. Jo

See also Afrocentric theory; Asian Pacific Americans; Black education; class, social; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; desegregation, of schools; discrimination; diversity; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; gender studies, in educational leadership; immigration, history and impact in education; Indian education; international education; Latinos; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism

Further Readings and References

CROSS-CULTURAL STUDIES

This academic discipline represents a study of the shared constructs that emerge out of the social interactions of individuals from different cultures who inhabit overlapping social and physical spaces. The shared constructs are the various practices, beliefs, social roles, norms, expressions, forms of organization, and conflicts (economic, political, legal, religious, expressive, and artistic) that exist in an array of ways and that promote internal cohesion within communities. The cohesion that exists within communities arises from two different stimuli: First, the historical...
experiences of communities, that are numerous and often times unpredictable, that impact a community’s cohesion and, second, the physical and social environments that people live in. It is from these stimuli that individuals and communities derive their ability to connect with their neighbors and other communities.

Cross-cultural studies is a relatively new area of academic study that has become more significant toward the end of the twentieth century as it sought to link working-class culture to domination and social liberation. Developing out of the British intellectual left movement of the 1950s and 1960s and spreading across the world, especially the English-speaking world, cross-cultural studies is prominent in a number of disciplines, including political science, economics, mass media, communications, literature, film, American studies, European studies, African studies, Asian studies, modern languages, and some social sciences.

The basic premise of cross-cultural studies is that comparisons are possible across different cultures, because all cultures have some traits in common with each other. Early cross-cultural studies are rooted in the studies of cultural evolution, which was based on the notion that all human societies went through a similar developmental process. The process had three stages: savagery, barbarism, and civilization. As a society progressed from one stage to another stage, it developed a set of practices, beliefs, social roles, norms, expressions, forms of organization and conflicts (economic, political, legal, religious, expressive, and artistic) that produced internal cohesion within the community. It is in the progression from one stage to another that shared connections to other individuals and communities are possible.

Key principles in cross-cultural studies include:

- Regional comparison, which is an attempt to define classifications of cultures and to then make inferences about processes of diffusion within a cultural region.
- Worldwide cross-cultural analysis is a way of developing a statistical analysis of cultural traits of a sample of nonliterate societies by comparing their traits to other diverse cultures for the purpose of identifying both common and uncommon traits.
- Controlled comparison is different than worldwide cross-cultural analysis in that it attempts to answer specific questions about traits between groups.
- Coding of data from cross-cultural studies research can be done directly from ethnographic sources or from ethnographic reports. Both coding processes offer advantages and disadvantages.
- Comparison is essential to cross-cultural studies because it is the way by which understanding is developed about societies.
- All theories about cultures require testing.

Cross-cultural studies (a) identify aspects of national character that are common to all societies, (b) identify psychological characteristics that are common to all societies, (c) discover and describe intercultural connectedness, and (d) identify the ways by which culture is a determinant of cross-culture interaction.

In education, cross-cultural studies include the application of culture-based knowledge to promote an understanding of learning styles. Cross-cultural studies using research on collectivism and individualism illustrated how a variety of culturally based parenting styles and values contributed to the success of students in schools. This research enhanced teacher effectiveness and instructional practices in the classroom. The research has also shown how complicated the relationships are between cultural expectations of behavior and cross-cultural variability in children’s observed behavior in various settings. It assists in understanding the behaviors of children from various cultural backgrounds in similar and dissimilar classrooms and the importance of having teachers who are cross-culturally literate in the culture of students. Finally, theoretical models can be derived from cross-cultural studies research that can be useful in the creation of a framework for the systematic study of education in a cultural context.

—Larry McNeal, Talana Vogel, and Edwinta E. Merriweather

See also Afrobcentric theories; Asian Pacific Americans; behaviorism; child development theories; classroom management; critical race theory; determinism, sociocultural; ethnicity; feminism and theories of leadership; gender studies, in educational leadership; global cultural politics; immigration, history and impact in education; international education; language theories and processes; Latinos; values education

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Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (1934–) is one of the world’s leading authorities on the psychology of creativity. His life’s work has been to study what makes people truly happy. Drawing upon years of systematic research, he developed the concept of “flow” as a metaphorical description of the rare mental state associated with feelings of optimal satisfaction and fulfillment. His analysis of the internal and external conditions giving rise to “flow” show that it is almost always linked to circumstances of high challenge when personal skills are used to the utmost. The Hungarian-born social scientist, a graduate of the classical gymnasium “Torquato Tasso,” in Rome, completed his undergraduate studies at the University of Chicago and earned a PhD in psychology there in 1965. After teaching in the department of sociology and anthropology at Lake Forest College, where he rose from instructor to associate professor, he returned to Chicago in 1970 and was appointed a full professor in 1982, a position he held until 1999. He has been a visiting professor at the University of Waterloo in Ontario, Canada; the University of Illinois; the University of Milan; the University of Alberta; Escola Paulista de Medecina, in São Paulo, Brazil; Duquesne University; the University of Maine; the University of Jyveskyla in Finland; and the British Psychological Society. His research has been supported by the United States Public Health Service, the J. Paul Getty Trust, the Sloan Foundation, the W. T. Grant Foundation, the Hewlett Foundation, the Spencer Foundation, the United States Public Health Service, the J. Paul Getty Trust, the Sloan Foundation, the W. T. Grant Foundation, the Hewlett Foundation, and the Spencer Foundation.

A former resident scholar at the Rockefeller Center at Bellagio, resident fellow at the Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences in Palo Alto, and senior Fulbright Fellow in Brazil and New Zealand, Dr. Csikszentmihalyi holds honorary doctor of science degrees from Colorado College and from Lake Forest College and a doctor of fine arts degree from the Rhode Island School of Design. He is a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, The American Academy of Political and Social Science, the American Psychological Society, the National Academy of Education, and the National Academy of Leisure Studies and a foreign member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences.

Serving on the editorial boards of numerous professional journals, he has been a consultant to business, government organizations, educational associations, and cultural institutions and given invited lectures throughout the world. In addition to the hugely influential Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience (1990), he is the author of 13 other books translated into 22 languages, and some 225 research articles. The latest book is Good Business: Leadership, Flow, and the Making of Meaning, published by Viking Press in 2003.

Dr. Csikszentmihalyi is the C. S. and D. J. Davidson Professor of Psychology at The Peter Drucker School of Management, and director of the Quality of Life Research Center at Claremont Graduate University. He is also Chair and Professor Emeritus of the Department of Psychology at the University of Chicago.

—Larry E. Frase

See also affective domain; attitudes toward work; capacity building, of organizations; creativity, theories of; empowerment; esprit (school climate); flow theory; metacognition; motivation, theories of; psychology, types of; self-actualization; working conditions, in schools

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Ellwood P. Cubberley (1868–1941) was born in a small town in Indiana, where his father was the local pharmacist. He attended Purdue University but later shifted to Indiana University, where he graduated in physics in 1891. He was greatly assisted in his development by David Starr Jordan, then president of Indiana University and later Stanford. Cubberley often accompanied Jordan on his lecture tours. On the recommendation of Jordan, Cubberley was offered the job of superintendent of schools of San Diego in 1896. Cubberley stayed 2 years and went to Stanford as an assistant professor of education. In 1901, Cubberley enrolled at Teachers College Columbia University, receiving his
master’s degree in 1902. In 1904, he received his doctorate from Teachers College.

In 1904, Columbia’s Teachers College was the undisputed educational training center for scientifically based “progressive” education. Cubberley teamed up with other educational progressives to form a network of control and influence that changed American public education. This network of 19 colleagues, frequently called the “Educational Trust,” was most often referred to as the “Cleveland Conference.” The stated goal of the Cleveland Conference was to solve education’s social and economic issues through scientific diagnosis and prescription. However, the Cleveland Conference was viewed by many as a private, perhaps even secret, self-appointed organization intent upon instituting “democratic” educational revisions that could occur only when education rid itself of the influence of local lay people, which would happen through a process of centralization.

Cubberley, a significant contributor to the power and influence exerted by the Cleveland Conference, portrayed American education as a progressive continuum toward improvement. His research primarily focused on reviews of public policy documents and depicted schools as institutions where equality had been attained. Critics note, however, that his research did not ask questions about who was excluded from education or what was lost when the state took education away from local entities.

“Consensus history,” also known as the “Cubberley tradition,” wrote of educational successes and improvements and painted a picture of education as equal to all. Critics, on the other hand, thought the writings of the consensus historians relied too heavily on the perspective of White male school leaders.

Cubberley and other turn-of-the-century educational historians were influenced by Frederick Taylor’s efficiency movement and claimed that schools were a workplace; teachers were the factory workers; students were the raw material; and learning was the product. Children, raw products, who could not be “processed,” were considered scraps and were dropped from the assembly line; ergo the term dropout. Consensus historians also posited that product (learning) specifications should come from government and industry, not local lay persons. Cubberley believed a school’s mission was to assimilate immigrants (and others) into an English-speaking nation. Cubberley also proposed that only men who were successful in the handling of large businesses were best suited to run schools.

Vestiges of Cubberley’s principles remain ingrained in American schools, as exemplified by 50-minute class periods that limit social interaction of teacher and pupils and in norm-referenced testing that labels students at an early age as “defective material” that needs to be dropped from the production line.

—Brenda R. Kallio

See also administration, theories of; economics, theories of; efficacy theory; ethnocentrism; management theories; scientific management; Taylor, Frederick

Further Readings and References


CULBERTSON, JACK

Jack Culbertson’s contributions to the study of educational administration can be traced through his publications and presentations and his work as executive director of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) from 1959 to 1981. During this period, the UCEA was housed at The Ohio State University.

Culbertson (1918–), was born in Nickelsville, Virginia, received an AB from Emory and Henry College in education and psychology, a master of arts degree from Duke University in German and philosophy, and a PhD from the University of California in educational administration and communication. His public school teaching experiences were at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels, and he served as a teaching principal and superintendent. Prior to becoming executive director of UCEA, Culbertson was an assistant professor of education at the University of Oregon (1955–1959). Following his work as executive director, Culbertson was an adjunct professor at Ohio State University.

Culbertson’s contributions to the scholarship of educational administration are found in the works he published, alone and with others, that focus on
Cultural Capital

Cultural capital can be defined as high-status cultural signals, such as attitudes, behaviors, preferences, and credentials, that are commonly used for social exclusion. The concept of cultural capital was introduced by Pierre Bourdieu and has been an influential American sociological concept, further extended into educational application by Paul DiMaggio. Cultural capital has been used to explain how social inequality is reproduced through institutions such as schools.

THE THEORY OF CULTURAL CAPITAL

Bourdieu’s theory contends that all human social interactions or exchanges either yield, or fail to yield, material and/or symbolic acceptance or exclusion from the dominant social population. While interactions within the social space may appear inconsequential and not consciously intended to result in social advantage to a single actor, nevertheless, all exchanges, in fact, lead to an exchange of symbolic power. Symbolic power is described as a form of power that is perceived not as power, but as a legitimate demand for recognition, deference, and compliance.

Bourdieu explained that cultural capital functions as a means for social groups to retain dominance or
gain status through the recognition and use of social capital. Specific evidences of social capital include objectified, institutionalized, and embodied cultural capital. Objectified cultural capital describes objects that require special cultural abilities, generally gained through exclusionary class-related practices and dispositions. These include valued literature, stories, music, dance forms, and art, and the sites where these items are displayed, for example, museums and libraries. Other researchers have expanded the list of objectified cultural capital to include taking extracurricular classes in high-culture areas (dance, art, and music), household educational resources (books and computers), working hard, class, gender, and race. Institutionalized cultural capital refers to educational institutions and academic credentials. Finally, embodied cultural capital is the disposition of a person to appreciate, understand, and adjust one’s style and manner, modes of bearing, interaction, and expression to match the valued cultural norms.

A seminal foundational concept to the theory of cultural capital is the assumption that the culturally preferred norms or habitus are arbitrarily set and do not possess intrinsic values, come from universally accepted principles, or uniquely identify successful behaviors or mental predispositions. In other words, cultural capital theory contends that socially preferred behaviors are randomly selected and perpetuated by the elite class and elite institutions, like schools, simply to create a cultural hierarchy that allows the recognition and classification of members within society.

CULTURAL CAPITAL AND EDUCATION

Using Bourdieu’s terminology, educational institutions act as markets that are not necessarily neutral, but value and confer status upon students who display particular knowledge, linguistic behavior, styles, dispositions, and modes of thought and expression. Linguistic and literary practices are one area that Bourdieu believed illustrated the incongruence between cultural capital and behaviors arbitrarily favored by the dominant class. He noted that performance in schools required mastery of a prescribed vocabulary and use of standard pronunciation and grammar that are not intrinsically linked to linguistic competence or intellect. Other research indicates that teachers judge students from lower-socioeconomic (SES) classes to be less intelligent based upon the way they use words.

Proponents of cultural capital theory purport that although lower- and working-class children may be capable of and sometimes do acquire the valued cultural knowledge and skills necessary to succeed in school, they are less likely to come by these dispositions naturally and thus are more likely to fail academically. Thus, to succeed in school, students need to not only understand the valued components of cultural capital but also internalize and practice them. Cultural capital theorists also contend that while schools require the exercise of certain exclusive cultural behaviors, they do not provide these skills; rather, they are passed down, primarily by upper-class families.

Research suggests that teachers possess and value cultural capital and are the main conduit for rewarding students who display it. In fact, cultural capital theory is dependant upon this exclusionary premise. In other words, cultural capital counts only if key gatekeepers recognize and exclusively reward certain arbitrary social behaviors. In addition, cultural capital theory relies on the assumption that the elite or dominant populace share common cultural signals, behaviors, and preferences and that these valued cultural signals are arbitrary. Research focusing on these foundational assumptions of the theory has resulted in inconsistent support.

RESEARCH ON CULTURAL CAPITAL

The theory of cultural capital has been studied extensively; however, no real consensus has been reached regarding the operationalization of the theory. Definitions of cultural capital have been vague enough to allow a wide variety of interpretations as to the variables to be measured in empirical studies of the theory. Studies have measured student and parent participation in culturally elite activities such as visiting museums or going to the ballet, studying art, and listening to Mozart. Most of these measures support the notion that higher-SES students do better in school but have not really addressed the issue of social exclusion. Likewise, some researchers have found strong support for cultural capital effects on grades and years of education attained, while others have found no support for a cultural capital effect. Thus, in the literature, there is no consensus on what cultural capital means, whether it has an effect, and what the effect is. Likewise, studies have found that class-based exclusionary cultural practices may be weakened by a pluralistic, democratized culture. For example, studies have indicated that only a small minority of the “dominant
“class” attends culturally elite activities and most prefer lower-status music and art, identical to ethnic minority students. This is particularly true of public school teachers who, studies found, neither recognized nor preferred high-status activities or experience, but strongly favored students who work hard and stay out of trouble. Researchers have further criticized past studies of cultural capital for excluding variables important to student success in school such as high-SES of parents, economic resources, parenting style, encouragement of academic engagement, and assistance with school assignments. These factors cut across gender and ethnic barriers and reflect a need to further operationalize the cultural capital theory.

See also achievement gap, of students; at-risk students; attitudes toward work; class, social; critical race theory; cultural politics, wars; democracy, democratic education and administration; determinism, sociocultural; discrimination; diversity; equality, in schools; ethnocentrism; gender studies, in educational leadership; individual differences, in children; intelligence; multiculturalism; social capital; underachievers, in schools; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


CULTURAL POLITICS, WARS

Throughout American history, cultural groups have attempted to reproduce their cultural perspectives through the control of education and government. The cyclical nature of educational reform reflects the political action taken to promote the various cultural views. In the beginning of the twentieth century, the promotion of the conservative scientific management of schools and the progressive reforms, followed later in the century by the liberal reforms of the 1960s and 1970s and the conservative reforms of the 1980s and 1990s, are all examples of attempts to promote a specific cultural view through education. This cultural politics is referred to as the culture wars because the battle is over which vision of culture will dominate American society.

The culture wars are about whose perspective of knowledge, values, and beliefs involving all aspects of society will become the dominant perspective. The political spectrum that divides ideological positions into the Right (i.e., reactionaries and conservatives) and the Left (i.e., liberals and radicals) is often used to distinguish between the different cultural perspectives. The fundamental difference between the Right and the Left is whether a common culture, which assimilates groups who differ from the established culture, or whether a multicultural view, which values difference and diversity, becomes the dominant culture. A conservative view focuses on the development of a common culture and a minimalistic role for the federal government in society and education. A primary belief is an emphasis on individual responsibility and accountability. Common culture entails a society that has an agreed-upon set of values, beliefs, and knowledge, to the point where homogeneity is prized and difference devalued, and it implies the acceptance and reproduction of values as defined by those individuals who hold power and constitute the mainstream. Those who differ from this mainstream are considered marginalized in some way. The liberal view values cultural diversity in that racial, ethnic, and gender difference is perceived as a valuable influence within a common culture and that government has a responsibility to promote an equitable common culture. Radical views promote a pluralistic culture in which there is no domination by one cultural group. Instead, all cultural groups are equal participants in determining how power is arranged in society. Historically, common culture, represented as White, Eurocentric, and patriarchal, has attempted to assimilate other cultural groups. Hence, the battles of the culture wars are generally focused on issues involving race, gender, social class, religion, sexual preference, lifestyle, dress, language, and other indicators of difference and diversity.

The intensity of this political activity is indicated by the use of the phrase “culture wars.” In education,
this war is fought over the types of standards, accountability, curriculum, reading programs, language instruction, heterogeneous versus homogeneous student grouping, different types of research, public versus private schools, the inclusion of religion in public schools, and the purpose of education. Another aspect of this war is the attempt by corporate culture to promote its interests through the public schools. Multiculturalism, phonics, bilingual, school choice, and critical thinking are code words that provoke intense reactions from different groups.

—Raymond A. Horn Jr.

See also cultural capital; diversity; fundamentalism; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; liberalism; multiculturalism; politics, of education; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education

Further Readings and References


CULTURE, SCHOOL

School culture is one of the central features of educational organizations and is key to understanding what makes these organizations successful or stagnant. Researchers have been closely examining the concept of organizational culture for over two decades, with attention to the features and influence increasing in the past 10 years.

School culture is the set of norms, values, and beliefs and other cultural features that characterize the expected pattern of behavior, thinking, and feeling for those who work and learn in the school. The school culture influences virtually everything that adults do in a school and has a powerful influence on things such as the development of goals, the sense of commitment of staff to the school, the energy and motivation to accomplish tasks, and, ultimately, staff and student learning. The specific nature of the cultural elements and norms of a school vary from one school to the next, and they influence in powerful ways attempts at school change and improvement, efforts at reform, and long-term success.

IMPORTANCE

Organizational cultures, or in this specific instance, strong, positive, shared, professional school cultures, are enormously important, as they provide the constructive underpinnings and foundation of how people think, feel, and act. Research on successful businesses points to a clear and shared culture as central to long-term productivity and survival. School culture and climate have also been associated with higher student learning in “effective schools.” In studies of school restructuring, students demonstrated higher achievement when structural changes were combined with particular cultural features such as shared purpose, collegiality, a sense of responsibility for student learning, and reflective inquiry. School improvement and instructional reform efforts have often been more successful when schools have been characterized as professional learning communities (the term professional communities also appears in literature). But some studies have identified negative cultures as well. When schools do not possess positive, professional cultures or have what researchers describe as “toxic cultures,” reform programs are difficult to implement, staff development may be ineffective, problem solving may be nonexistent, and student learning can suffer. In sum, a positive school culture remains a key factor in whether the school will succeed in serving all students or not.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL CULTURE OVER TIME

A school culture is developed over time as members of the staff, both certified and noncertified, work together. They develop expected patterns of behavior that become normative. These patterns are built up over time as people work together, solve problems together, deal with tragedy, and celebrate success. Eventually, approaches to incidents and routine interactions become the expected, “normative” pattern of behavior. These expected patterns of behavior are taught to new members of the school through socialization and feedback. For example, how a school copes with continuing low student performance (going into denial, blaming the background of the students, or active problem solving) eventually becomes the accepted approach to the situation. New staff who join the school are expected to act in “acceptable” ways or they are sanctioned by other staff. Eventually, these new staff may ultimately conform, isolate themselves, try to change cultural norms (which is difficult), or leave.
Routine interactions, whether positive or negative, become expectations of social behavior and part of the more deeply embedded culture. In some sense, these social interaction patterns and relationships become part of the social capital of the school, the banked resources that staff and school leaders can draw on to implement new programs, to engage in complex problem solving, or to deal with an emotionally difficult situation that could damage relationships among staff or drain energy and motivation. Clearly, school culture represents a central aspect of the social resources of a school.

ELEMENTS OF CULTURE

Researchers have identified a number of key elements of school culture. These include (a) norms, values, and beliefs; (b) symbols and artifacts; (c) stories and myths; and (d) rituals and ceremonies.

Norms, Values, and Beliefs

School cultures possess a deep set of norms, values, and beliefs, which exist as the accepted “lore” of the organization. Norms are group expectations for behavior (e.g., arrive at school early, share ideas and materials, be a good colleague). Norms strongly shape behaviors and interactions. Values are “definitions of the good,” what the school considers important, meaningful, and worthwhile (e.g., participating in professional development, ensuring that all students are learning). What the school values becomes translated into goals, purposes, and programs. Beliefs are underlying cognitive assumptions about people and reality (e.g., students from all social backgrounds can learn, teachers should feel responsible for student learning). Critically important are teacher beliefs regarding teaching and learning (No Child Left Behind has pressed a policy agenda that emphasizes equity beliefs and values, e.g., all students learning to high levels). What staff and school leaders believe ultimately influences behavior.

Increasingly, literature calls for reshaping norms of isolation into norms of collaboration, enhancing norms of teacher inquiry, enhancing teacher norms to support evidence-based decision making, and continuous improvement and shared responsibility for student learning.

Symbols and Artifacts

School cultures have symbols that are an outward representation of core values and purposes. Often, also, there are historical artifacts (trophies, pictures, equipment) that are displayed to recognize cultural successes.

Stories and Myths

Schools, like other organizations, recount stories, or even myths, of past success (or failure) to reinforce cultural identification, goals, and internal motivation. Positive stories build positive commitment and energy; negative stories damage work and effort.

Rituals and Ceremonies

School cultures are reinforced and supported through regular rituals and communal ceremonies. Rituals are routines embedded with values and a sense of purpose. Ceremonies are communal events to celebrate success, provide closure during collective transitions, and recognize the contributions of people to the mission of the school. These are important culture-reaffirming activities that bond people to the school, build motivation, and focus energies.

HOW CULTURE INFLUENCES THINKING, EMOTIONS, AND BEHAVIOR

A school culture influences thinking, emotions, and behavior in a number of ways. The underlying values of a school culture focus thinking in the direction of what is valued. The culture affects emotional reaction by encouraging joy, sadness, or guilt around the emotional tone of events. The culture of the school shapes behavior through social motivation to engage in particular actions that are considered culturally “acceptable.”

CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL LEARNING CULTURES

Research has identified a number of characteristics found in more productive schools. While there is no “one best” type of culture, these characteristics have been associated with greater student and teacher learning, school improvement, and effectiveness. In schools with professional learning cultures, one finds:

- A widely shared sense of purpose and values
- Norms of continuous learning and improvement
- A commitment to and sense of responsibility for the learning of all students
- Collaborative, collegial relationships
- Leadership that is distributed throughout the school
• A collective sense of efficacy
• Expectations that staff will reflect, engage in collective inquiry, and share craft knowledge
• Celebrations and ceremonies that mark transitions and honor accomplishments
• A common, shared professional language

This set of characteristics is not meant to either be exhaustive or the “one best way,” but rather an initial constellation of productive, positive cultural features. In fact each school culture will develop a set of norms, values and beliefs unique to its own context, history, and needs.

—Kent D. Peterson and Shelby Cosner

See also esprit (school climate); esteem needs; ethos, of organizations; Halpin, Andrew William; human resource development; leadership styles; management theories; Maslow, Abraham; morale; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; surveys and survey results

Further Readings and References


### PHILOSOPHICAL-PRESCRIPTIVE APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM THEORY

Philosophical-prescriptive approaches to curriculum theory have their origins in philosophy of education and philosophy in general. John Dewey, for example, maintained that because education was a process of forming fundamental dispositions, intellectual and emotional, toward nature and fellow man, philosophy, which sought to define the good person leading the good life in the good society, may be considered “the general theory of education.” That is, the problem of philosophy was to determine fundamental intellectual and emotional dispositions toward nature and fellow man, while the corresponding problem of education was to implement those dispositions among the rising generation. Because the fundamental intellectual and emotional dispositions toward nature and fellow man that arise from philosophical work became the aims of education, curriculum theories could be as variegated as the range of ideas in the field of philosophy.

Curriculum scholars, in order to make sense of the variety of philosophical-prescriptive approaches to curriculum theory, typically organize curriculum theories into categorical schemes. While around the mid-twentieth century, educational philosophers organized educational thought around prevailing philosophical perspectives, namely, the Aristotelian,
Thomistic, absolute idealist, realist, and pragmatic, Theodore Brameld identified four more specific categories of educational philosophies that held implications for curriculum: progressivism, essentialism, perennialism, and reconstructionism. Later, Daniel and Laurel Tanner updated Brameld’s scheme by substituting experimentalism for progressivism and adding romantic naturalism and existentialism, referring to these categories as “educational theories.” William Schubert collapsed these categories into three curricular “orientations,” intellectual traditionalist, social behaviorist, and experientialist, which respectively emphasized academics, efficiency, and experience as dominant aspects of the educational situation. Elliot Eisner proposed the following curriculum “ideologies”: religious orthodoxy, rational humanism, progressivism, critical theory, reconceptualism, and cognitive pluralism. This brief and partial listing of categorical schemes for philosophical-prescriptive curriculum theories reveals several important points, including the migration of these theories from philosophy to philosophy of education to educational theory and then to curriculum theory, as well as the sheer variety of curriculum theories. Also noteworthy is the reality that curriculum theories often originate from sources outside the academic field of curriculum; because they have implications for determining what knowledge is of most worth, such theories nevertheless hold great import for curriculum theorists. No categorical scheme, of course, is comprehensive or conclusive. For present purposes, however, philosophical-prescriptive curriculum theories will be organized into the following major categories: traditional-academic and progressive-experimentalist.

Traditional-academic curriculum theories are concerned with preserving the cultural heritage and cultivating intellectual virtues, and they typically treat subject matter as an end in itself in the educational process. Traditional-academic curriculum theories can be divided into two subtheories: perennialism and essentialism. Perennialism maintains that the knowledge most worth learning is composed of eternal truths, the pertinence of which transcends time and place, and which are deposited in the Great Books. A perennialist curriculum is fundamentally a humanities curriculum, emphasizing as it does the analysis of great written works. Noted advocates of perennialism included Robert Maynard Hutchins, president of the University of Chicago during the mid-twentieth century, and Hutchins’s disciple, Mortimer Adler.

Perennialism has come under significant criticism. Its omission of modern subjects, especially laboratory science, was one shortcoming. The fact that modern science calls all truth claims into question has undermined the notion of perennial truths. Exactly what works comprise the Great Books is a matter of ongoing debate, as well. In practice, perennialist curricula usually take the form of Great Books programs, typically as components of a necessarily broader curriculum. Even Great Books programs have diverged from the idea of eternal truths and are increasingly available as themed series that include works that span historical epochs and cultures.

Essentialism maintains that the knowledge most worth learning is composed of the essential modern academic disciplines, including the humanities, mathematics, science, and the social sciences. Essentialism emphasizes intellectual training above practical application of knowledge, viewing knowledge as an end in itself, and exalts academic achievement over student interests and societal concerns. Leading advocates of essentialism included William Bagley, Isaac Kandel, and Theodore Sizer. Essentialism has been criticized for its neglect of student interests and societal concerns and for fostering a fragmentation of the curriculum. Arguably, essentialism is the curriculum theory that prevails in educational settings, although in practice, essentialist curricula tend to reduce academic subject matter to rote recall.

Progressive-experimentalist curriculum theories enjoyed their heyday during the first half of the twentieth century. Initially a reaction against the academic formalism that almost inevitably resulted from essentialist curricula, progressive-experimentalist curriculum theories divided into several distinct approaches. In its most fully developed form, progressive-experimentalist curriculum theory embraced a synthesis of the nature of the student, the subject matter, and the society as complementary sources of the knowledge most worth teaching and learning. This variety of progressive curriculum theory, exemplified in the works of John Dewey, embraced science and democracy as complementary modes of thought and action and rejected the notion of absolute truths and fixed curriculum outcomes. While essentialists were wont to stress subject matter at the expense of the other two sources, however, some progressives stressed the nature of the student as the principal curriculum source, and rightly earned the label “child-centered.” Other varieties of curriculum theory, which emerged during the Progressive
era, stressed the nature of society as the dominant curriculum source.

The heyday of progressive education engendered two curriculum theories that embraced the nature of society as the principal source of the knowledge most worth teaching and learning, but in markedly different ways. The first approach, which appeared during the second decade of the twentieth century, was known as task analysis or activity analysis. Knowledge most worth learning was identified by analyzing activities that adults engaged in, by breaking those activities down into discrete, manageable tasks, which then translated into the objectives of the curriculum. The curriculum was conceived as preparation, even training, for specific adult activities.

Activity analysis shared with other variations of progressive curriculum theory a commitment to relating the life of the school to the life of society, to the application of scientific methods to curriculum development, and to a utilitarian, versus narrowly academic, curriculum. Activity analysis, however, was criticized at the time and subsequently for reducing the method of science to mere quantification of phenomena, for resulting in a curriculum that tended to reproduce current social and economic conditions, and for ultraspecification of educational objectives that engendered a behavioristic curriculum and that exalted efficiency at the expense of reflection. Yet advocates of activity analysis, notably Franklin Bobbitt and W. W. Charters, recognized that because social conditions and even adult activities were often changing and unpredictable, students should be taught general problem-solving skills as well as specific tasks. In addition, educational objectives were also credited with loosening the grip of traditional academic subject matter on curriculum purposes and content. Because activity analysis entailed a method for selecting curriculum purposes, it could also be classified under the professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory, discussed below.

The other progressive curriculum theory that exalted the nature of society over the nature of the subject and the student, called social reconstructionism, began not with the reality of society, but with a vision of a social ideal. Emerging from the depths of the Great Depression, when liberal incrementalism seemed to have failed to promote social progress, advocates such as George S. Counts implored educators to embrace candidly the impositional nature of education, to impose on students a vision of democratic collectivism as a necessary alternative to individualistic capitalism that had so obviously at that point failed American society, and to prepare students as social activists who would enact that vision. In stark contrast to activity analysis, which by and large took the status quo as the source of the school curriculum, social reconstructionism emphasized, as its name implies, reconstructing social and economic arrangements along increasingly democratic, egalitarian, and even collectivist lines.

At the time, of course, conservatives condemned the radical nature of reconstructionism. Progressives, such as John Dewey and Boyd Bode, also found fault with the willingness of advocates to indoctrinate students into a particular political ideology, which they pointed out was undemocratic and self-contradictory. Although Counts and other progressives who had embraced social reconstructionism during the Depression later repudiated their views, others, notably Theodore Brameld, maintained such commitments. During the late twentieth century, partly in recognition of the limits of neo-Marxism as a curriculum theory, social reconstructionism regained currency among some curriculum theorists.

PROFESSIONAL-INSRUMENTAL APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM THEORY

Not all curriculum theories, however, focus on prescribing the knowledge most worth learning. Professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory focus not on prescribing answers to the question of what knowledge is of most worth, but rather on proposing processes or procedures educators can employ for making decisions about matters of curriculum and instruction. As early as the 1920s, Boyd Bode identified at least five “theories of curriculum construction,” which respectively approached the matter through organization of subject matter, consensus of opinion, job analysis, sociological determination, and the project method.

Notable among professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory are Ralph Tyler’s rationale for developing curriculum and instruction and Joseph Schwab’s proposals for deliberation. Although misunderstood by practitioners and misrepresented by theorists as a technical stepwise model of curriculum construction, Tyler’s proposal was not a model for curriculum development, but rather a rationale for thinking about curriculum decisions. Rather than prescribing...
answers to the curriculum question, Tyler proposed a process for answering that question, and advocated a participatory problems-solving approach to enacting curriculum decisions. Similarly, Schwab articulated what he referred to as the “art of the practical,” essentially a deliberative process in which a local curriculum committee makes decisions about the improvement of particular aspects of an educational program. Schwab, however, shared little of Tyler’s concern for the importance of selecting educational purposes, so his approach was not so much focused on answering the curriculum question. And because Schwab generated his proposals in direct opposition to what he saw as an inappropriate preoccupation on the part of the academic branch of the curriculum field with theory, probably referring, though not by name, to George A. Beauchamp’s approach to curriculum theory, it would be a misnomer to characterize his “art of the practical” as a curriculum theory. Ironically, however, contemporary curriculum theorists are generally enamored of his work, so it is worth mentioning it here.

As the academic field of curriculum became preoccupied with theory and concomitantly neglected practical curriculum matters, and as calls for accountability transformed the practice of “teaching to the test” from a questionable to a professional practice, highly instrumental approaches to the curriculum question that reduce activity analysis to the derivation of objectives from curriculum standards or even from standardized tests have emerged. Known as curriculum alignment, this approach seeks close alignment of standardized tests, curriculum, and teaching as a form of educational quality control. The answer to the curriculum question is found in the content of high-stakes standardized tests. Curriculum alignment is presented as a way to hold educators accountable and as a way to level the playing field for students who are disadvantaged by the socioeconomic bias of standardized tests.

Professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory not only propose markedly different ways to make decisions about the conception and realization of educational purposes but also offer different degrees of explanatory power for analyzing curriculum phenomena. While, for example, curriculum alignment makes no pretense about analyzing curriculum, Tyler’s rationale and Schwab’s arts of deliberation both proffer ways to analyze and to act upon curriculum problems.

EXEGETIC-ACADEMIC APPROACHES TO CURRICULUM THEORY

Until the 1970s, the philosophical-prescriptive and the professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory dominated the work of curriculum scholars and practitioners. Although new theories in both the philosophical-prescriptive and the professional-instrumental approaches to curriculum theory have continued to emerge, such as existentialism in the former instance and deliberation and curriculum alignment in the latter, around 1970, new theories were introduced to curriculum thinking in the name of a “reconceptualization” of curriculum scholarship. While the curriculum theories discussed above attempted to inform curriculum practice by providing practical answers to or processes for answering the basic curriculum question, theories that began to emerge during the 1970s typically sought to directly inform understanding of curriculum phenomena and only incidentally sought to inform curriculum practice, if at all. This exegetic-academic approach to curriculum theory, which dominates curriculum scholarship at the time of this writing, concerns itself largely with the critical analysis of curriculum “texts” for the sake of advancing curriculum scholarship, rather than for the sake of improving curriculum practice.

The so-called reconceptualization of the academic branch of the curriculum field during the 1970s manifested definitive characteristics. Reconceptualized curriculum theory depicted the historic curriculum field, that is, academic curriculum work that occurred before 1970, as preoccupied exclusively with narrow, technical approaches to curriculum development. Claiming that such constricted instrumentalism had rendered the curriculum field “moribund,” “arrested,” even “dead,” reconceptualists repudiated the historic curriculum field and especially its commitment to informing curriculum practice. The reconceptualization sought to replace the commitment of curriculum theory to informing curriculum practice with new commitments, which included the following: emphasizing curriculum understanding over curriculum development, exalting the imagining of curriculum theory over the improvement of curriculum practice, and expanding the definition of curriculum beyond the course of study of the school to include any phenomenon in the course of one’s life experience as a subject for curriculum inquiry.

Subsequently, a veritable cornucopia of theories was imported into the academic field of curriculum,
The obvious contribution of the reconceptualist movement is the proliferation of theoretical lenses that it introduced to the field, though it is unclear that the movement was needed for this to happen. This proliferation of curriculum theories, however, did not occur without a price. Reconceptualized curriculum theory often suffers from ahistoricism that often results in misrepresentations of the historic field and reinvention and cooptation of historic curriculum principles. As curriculum theorists identify with particular theories, a balkanization of the academic field has resulted, as well. Finally, enthusiasm for the theoretic has often resulted in a neglect of consideration of the practical import of curriculum theory.

**SUMMARY**

The three approaches to curriculum theory presented here represent just one way to categorize the field. These three approaches do not comprise fast, exclusive categories; some curriculum theories arguably manifest characteristics of more than one approach. The specific curriculum theories cited for each approach are intended to be representative and not comprehensive, as well. And if the philosophically-prescriptive, professional-instrumental, and exegetic-academic approaches to curriculum theory seem unreasonably broad, unwieldy, or lacking in coherence, that is likely because those conditions characterize the field of curriculum theory. Yet the sheer variety of curriculum theories, however that term is defined, offers educators not only a range of perspectives from which to analyze curriculum phenomena but also a range of options for acting on curriculum matters.

—William G. Wraga

See also accountability; aesthetics, in education; affective education; alignment, of curriculum; Aristotle; arts education; behaviorism; Black education; Bobbitt, John Franklin; chaos theory; character education; child development theories; cognition, theories of; constructivism; constructivism, social; critical race theory; critical theory; cross-cultural studies; determinism, sociocultural; Dewey, John; diversity; existentialism; global cultural politics; humanistic education; individual differences, in children; language theories and processes; Latinos; multiculturalism; Plato; postmodernism; pragmatism and progressivism; psychology, types of; Spencer, Herbert; Tyler, Ralph Winifred

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A curriculum audit is a form of a management audit. There are three types of audits: functional, operational, and programmatic. A functional audit is concerned with reviewing some aspect in a line-item budget, such as personnel, transportation, or instruction. An operational audit is focused on an activity within a function, for example, staff development within the personnel function. A programmatic audit closely follows activities within the subject content disciplines, such as mathematics, social studies, or language arts. Those who perform the actual audit, the auditors, can be internal or external to the school or school system. The scope of the audit may be only a compliance review, that is, determining if the operations adhere to required policies or laws. Or the scope of the audit may be performed from the perspective of whether the area being reviewed has optimized the resources provided compared to the outcomes or results obtained.

The curriculum audit was originally the brainchild of Leon Lessinger, who wrote a best-selling book in 1970, titled Every Kid a Winner. In this text, Dr. Lessinger described a process called an "educational performance audit" (EPA), which was modeled after a financial audit. The rationale proffered by Dr. Lessinger was that public confidence could be restored to education only if people knew that those examining the operations had no interest in its outcome and the complete audit was made public. Accreditation, as a process, had become tainted because conflicts of interests existed and the public never got to read the accreditation report itself so as to be able to form an independent judgment about the content and scope of the accreditation process.

The first EPA or curriculum audit was performed in the Columbus Public Schools, Ohio, in 1979. Thereafter, more audits were performed in New Jersey, California, and Michigan. Today, dozens of school systems from coast-to-coast and in several foreign countries have undergone curriculum audits. From 1988 through 1996, curriculum audits were coordinated through the American Association of School Administrators (the AASA), in Arlington, Virginia. After that, audits were coordinated through Phi Delta Kappa, in Bloomington, Indiana. Some of the nation’s largest and most-troubled school systems have been audited, such as Baltimore, Maryland; Oakland, California; Anchorage, Alaska; Montgomery County, Maryland; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Audit reports have become the content of some heated battles in state and federal courts, mostly involving documentation of desegregation and management practices.

The curriculum audit uses five standards against which to judge school system operations. Each standard is cited with aspects of what an auditor would expect to find if the standard were met.

**Standard 1:** A school system is able to demonstrate its control of resources, programs, and personnel.

Expected indicators:

- A curriculum that is centrally defined and adopted by the board of education
- A clear set of policies that establishes an operational framework for management that permits accountability, and reflects state requirements and local program goals and the necessity to use achievement data to improve school system operations
- A functional administrative structure that facilitates the design and delivery of the district’s curriculum
- A direct, uninterrupted line of authority from school board/superintendent and other central office officials to principals and classroom teachers
- Organizational development efforts that are focused on improving system effectiveness
- Documentation of school board and central office planning for the attainment of goals, objectives, and mission over time
- A clear mechanism to define and direct change and innovation within the school system to permit maximization of its resource on priority goals, objectives, and mission

**Standard 2:** A school system has established clear and valid objectives for students.

Expected indicators:

- A clearly established, systemwide set of goals and objectives adopted by the board of education that addresses all programs and courses
- Demonstration that the system is contextual and responsive to national, state, and other expectations as evidenced in local initiatives
- Operations of the system are set within a framework that carries out the system’s goals and objectives
- Evidence of comprehensive, detailed, short- and long-range curriculum management planning
- Knowledge, local validation, and use of current best practices and emerging curriculum trends
- Written curriculum that addresses both current and future needs of students
• Major programmatic initiatives designed to be cohesive
• Provision of explicit direction for the superintendent
and professional staff
• A framework that exists for systemic curricular change

**Standard 3:** A school system demonstrates internal connectivity and rational equity in its program development and implementation.

Expected indicators:

• Documents/sources that reveal internal connections at different levels in the system
• Predictable consistency through a coherent rationale for content delineation within the curriculum
• Equity of curriculum/course access and opportunity
• Allocation of resource flow to areas of greatest need
• A curriculum that is clearly explained to members of the teaching staff and building-level administrators and other supervisory/ personnel
• Specific professional development programs to enhance curricular design and delivery
• A curriculum that is monitored by central office and site supervisory personnel
• Teacher and administrator responsiveness to school board policies, currently and over time

**Standard 4:** A school system uses the results from system-designed and/or adopted assessments to adjust, improve, or terminate ineffective practices or programs.

Expected indicators:

• A formative and summative assessment system linked to a clear rationale in board policy
• Knowledge, local validation, and use of current curricular and program assessment best practices
• Use of a student and program assessment plan that provides for diverse assessment strategies for varied purposes at all levels—district, school, and classroom
• A way to provide feedback to the teaching and administrative staffs regarding how classroom instruction may be evaluated and subsequently improved
• A timely and relevant data base upon which to analyze important trends in student achievement
• A vehicle to examine how well specific programs are actually producing desired learner outcomes or results
• A data base to modify or terminate ineffective educational programs
• A method/means to relate to a programmatic budget and enable the school system to engage in cost-benefit analysis
• Organizational data gathered and used to continually improve system functions

**Standard 5:** A school system has improved productivity.

Expected indicators:

• Planned and actual congruence among curricular objectives, results, and financial allocations
• A financial database and network that are able to track costs to results, to provide sufficient fiduciary control, and to be used as a viable database in making policy and operational decisions
• Specific means that have been selected or modified and implemented to attain better results in the schools over a specified time period
• A planned series of interventions that have raised pupil performance levels over time and maintained those levels within the same cost parameters as in the past
• School facilities that are well kept, sufficient, safe, orderly, and conducive to effective delivery of the instructional program
• Support systems that function in systemic ways

Data are gathered in a curriculum audit via interviews, document review, and site visitations. Findings, which represent discrepancies or gaps, are the difference between the expected indicators and the actual conditions discerned by the auditors. Recommendations are aimed at closing the gaps. One aspect of the auditing process has been a smaller perspective aimed solely at the issue of equity developed by James Scheurich and Linda Skrla in 2003.

—Fenwick W. English

See also accountability; achievement tests; alignment, of curriculum; boards of education; chain of command; conflict management; critical race theory; desegregation, of schools; division of labor; economics, theories of; empiricism; equality, in schools; feedback; goals, goal setting; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; infrastructure, of organizations; instruction, survey of; instructional interventions; leadership, system-oriented; learning environments; locus of control; mainstreaming and inclusion; management theories; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; networking and network theory; organizational theories; planning models; politics, of education; policy making, values of; productivity; rational organizational theory; research methods; resiliency; resource management; school districts, history and development; school improvement models; site-based management; span of control; staffing, concepts of; state departments of education; strategic planning; superintendency; systemic
Further Readings and References


CURRICULUM GUIDES

Curriculum guides have historically been paper documents developed by local school districts, designed to specify what students should know and be able to do in each course in every content area. Most of the time, guides were developed by district committees made up of teachers who were considered by district personnel to be experts in the effective delivery of instruction. After the guides were developed, they were typically distributed to all of the teachers, and they were supposed to be the basis for teacher planning of instruction and administrator monitoring of the delivery of the instruction.

Traditionally, building principals have spent little time monitoring whether the learning as described in the guides was being delivered. Often, traditional guides did not deal with procedures for documenting student mastery or using assessment data to modify and adjust the expectations in the guides. At best, the guides served as suggestions to teachers about what should be taught. Some teachers followed them, and others did not.

The accountability movement has changed all of that. Now, local district curriculum guides are increasingly being developed to focus and connect the work of the school system. State accountability assessment has had a dramatic impact on the need for and importance of local district curriculum guides. The greatest impact on these guides is in the content areas assessed by the state. Not all states assess every curriculum content area. The federal legislation, No Child Left Behind, requires assessment in language arts and mathematics, and testing in science will soon be required.

To understand the present situation, it is necessary to trace the development of state standards in content areas and state accountability assessment. Late in the 1980s, mathematics standards were developed by the National Association of Teachers of Mathematics. This event had a dramatic impact on the development of textbooks in mathematics. In the early 1990s, many major curriculum content area associations received federal and private funding to develop national standards in other content areas. The documents produced by these associations were not only used by textbook publishers but also became the bases for the construction of state curriculum frameworks and accountability assessments.

Initially, these assessments were often state-approved, standardized, norm-referenced tests. Today, state accountability assessment can include a variety of criterion-referenced tests, including items described as short response, extended response, multiple choice, open-ended response, short and long essays, performance events, and others. The variety and complexity of cognition required to demonstrate mastery on these assessments has resulted in renewed interest in curriculum guides.

The curriculum guides being developed in the early twenty-first century are most often grounded in the concept of curriculum alignment. That is, the guide is designed to show the relationship among the written, taught, and tested curricula. Most state standard documents simply list what students should know in a content area. Initially, in the 1990s, these state standard documents listed general statements that were not specific enough to direct teacher planning. As states have
revised these standard documents, they have become more specific, and/or the documents have been expanded to include benchmarks (what students should know within a grade range, such as 6–8) and indicators of specific skills, concepts, knowledge, and processes at specific grade levels. Because state documents generally do not provide enough information for focused and connected PK–12 instruction, there is renewed interest in the development of quality curriculum alignment guides that teachers can use to plan instruction and administrators can use to monitor the implementation of the board-adopted curriculum.

Quality curriculum alignment guides developed today should address, at a minimum, five specific areas: objectives/indicators, assessment, scope and sequence, materials and resources, and suggested strategies. The utilization of these guides moves teachers away from relying primarily on the textbook teacher’s manual for a textbook for planning instruction to the use of the textbooks as resources for delivering instruction designed for student mastery. These guides also become the basis for districtwide assessment to document student mastery. These assessments are in addition to whatever the state accountability system measures.

Clarity of objective/indicators refers to whether the majority of teachers reading this section of the guide would understand what it is that students should know and be able to do. The guide should state when (sequence within the course/grade) and how the actual standard is performed, and provide some indication of the range of instructional time to be devoted to a cluster (unit) of objectives/indicators. The time component is important to ensure that all of the objective/indicators can be delivered within the amount of instructional time available for the course/subject.

The assessment section of the guide should provide a clear link to state/district assessment and enable teachers to determine whether students have mastered the objectives/indicators. Sample test items aligned to the context (format) and level of cognition required should be included. Level of cognition can refer to a number of models. The most popular schema in use today is Bloom’s taxonomy. The best guides include multiple measures for assessing student mastery. Common scoring rubrics used across the district or at the state level should also be included. Specifying the standard of performance for determining mastery is also recommended. This ensures that teachers across the system are using a consistent measure to determine mastery. The inclusion of anchor papers is also recommended. Anchor papers are useful for both teachers and students. Teachers use them to differentiate among levels of proficiency, and students can use them as models of what mastery means.

The delineation of prerequisite essential skills students should have mastered provides teachers with an understanding of student prior learning. This information enables a teacher to construct pretests to be sure that the instruction planned is at the right level of difficulty for students. It also enables teachers to pinpoint specific areas where student mastery has not been achieved and enables administrators to determine whether this has been caused by poor alignment of instructional materials, lack of necessary professional development, high student mobility, or a host of other causes. Very often, the causes are related to systemwide problems that can be solved through changes related to administrative procedures, selection of materials, and planning of instruction.

Stating the match between the major instructional resources available in the district to the clustered objectives/indicators provides teachers with specific information about what instructional resources to use. This listing should include both primary and supplemental resources as well as links to additional technologically based material. This listing reinforces how the resources are configured to support the learning.

Finally, the guide should provide specific examples for how to approach key concepts/skills in the classroom. This section of the guide is not meant to dictate teaching strategies. Rather, it is meant to offer suggestions. The level of specificity of this section is often related to district factors such as teacher attrition, level of expertise, and student achievement levels. If the district is replacing large numbers of teachers each year, the guides will need to be more specific to enable new teachers to quickly understand district expectation for student mastery. If the teacher cadre is consistent, of high quality, and able to accommodate a variety of learning styles, this section may not need to be as expansive. The levels of in-district and out-of-district mobility are also factors to consider in determining the nature of this section.

Curriculum alignment guides are the necessary design documents to direct the curriculum management system of the district. Without high-quality guides, teachers and administrators may not have the necessary tools to lead improved student achievement across the system. With the growing involvement of states and the federal government in determining
school accountability, these locally developed documents will continue to play a vital role.

—Betty E. Steffy

See also accountability; achievement tests; alignment, of curriculum; child development theories; elementary education; goals, goal setting; governance; high schools; individual differences, in children; management information systems; management theories; measurement, theories of; multiculturalism; planning models; politics, of education; quality control; standard setting; standardized testing; state departments of education

Further Readings and References


CURRICULUM MAPPING

Curriculum mapping is a process developed in 1979 to discern the actual as opposed to the desired curricula being employed in schools. Mapping was based on the recognition that the curriculum as a kind of work plan for teachers to follow was actually ignored or changed much of the time in classroom delivery. Change strategies that involved writing more curricula were often based on a lack of real knowledge about what classroom teachers were actually teaching. Mapping was begun as a method to discern the actual and “real” curriculum, that is, to “map” what was actually being taught. With such information, curriculum developers could (a) revise the existing curriculum accordingly; (2) establish guidelines to rewrite the curriculum; and (c) use the data to monitor the adherence of the taught curriculum as compared to the prescribed curriculum.

There are three elements of curriculum mapping. The first is to discern the content that was taught in the classroom. The second is to understand how much time was spent delivering the content. The third is to know the sequence of the content taught. Sequencing becomes very important in matching assessment dates to curriculum content to be taught prior to children being tested. For mapping to be undertaken, two approaches to data gathering must be considered. The first is to ask teachers to keep a record of the curriculum content taught, time spent, and the sequencing employed. The second is to use trained classroom observers. Very few mapping studies use trained observers. Most maps are developed by classroom teachers following a format that is easy to use to record the actual curriculum he or she taught. Most maps are also two-dimensional; that is, they are records of what was taught and how much time was spent teaching it. The problems associated with mapping are (a) memory loss, (b) data manipulation, (c) faulty sampling, (d) faulty contextual assumptions, and, (e) overprecision. Memory loss occurs when teachers do not record their data regularly. Data manipulation occurs when there is an element of fear among teachers doing mapping; that is, there is hesitation in revealing what they actually teach. Faulty sampling can happen when only a few “representative teachers” are asked to map, instead of everyone, and the data gathered are not really what the majority of the teachers are teaching. A faulty context assumption is that the curriculum is not as fluid as often thought. The curriculum consists of not only the content of what is to be taught but also the methods and other habit patterns that provide stability for an instructional program, even when the curriculum is ambiguous. Finally, mapping is not a way to fine-tune a curriculum. It is a process to reveal the big trends of what is going into the actual curriculum being taught.

Mapping data can also be a focal point to raise important issues within the curriculum development process pertaining to balance. There are three ways to ascertain balance. The first is to consider balance as an unmet social need. In this instance, the data show that what is actually being taught does not “match” the evolving needs of society in some way. The second is to consider balance as adherence to the laws of
learning or brain processing. In this case, one is concerned more about the delivery of the curriculum than its content. The third way curriculum balance is determined is to have some formula for what constitutes “proper content.” From this latter perspective, a balanced curriculum is one that is congruent with the criteria of “proper content.” Arguments about the classical curriculum can be heard.

In recent times, as curriculum mapping has become popularized, the distinction between the “real” and “desired” curriculum has been erased. In this perspective, curriculum mapping becomes a synonym for traditional curriculum development where a curriculum guide becomes a curriculum map. What has been lost in this translation is the necessity to arrive at some understanding of what the real curriculum is when the classroom door is shut.

—Fenwick W. English

See also accountability; action research; alignment, of curriculum; feedback; learning, theories of; learning environments; measurement, theories of; operational definitions; quantitative research, history, theories, issues; standard setting; surveys and survey results; time-on-task; variables

Further Readings and References

An English naturalist whose revolutionary theory laid the foundation for both the modern theory of evolution and the principle of natural selection, Charles Darwin (1809–1882) was born on February 12, 1809, in Shrewsbury, England. He was the fifth child and second son of Robert Waring Darwin and Susannah Wedgwood. Darwin believed that all the life on earth evolved over millions of years from a few common ancestors.

From 1831 to 1836, Darwin served as a naturalist on board the HMS *Beagle* on a science expedition around the world. While in South America, he found fossils of extinct animals that were similar to modern species. On the Galapagos Islands in the Pacific Ocean, he noticed many variations among plants and animals of the same general type as those he had seen in South America. During his expedition around the world, Darwin studied plants and animals, took copious notes and collected specimens for further study.

Back in London, Darwin began conducting research on the notes and specimens from his journey. As a result of his studies, Darwin concluded: (a) evolution did occur, (b) evolutionary change was gradual, requiring thousands to millions of years, (c) the primary mechanism for evolution was a process called “natural selection,” and (d) the millions of species alive today arose from a single original life form through a branching process called “specialization.”

One of the most controversial books ever written, Charles Darwin’s *The Origin of Species* set forth his theories and has helped shape the modern scientific world. In his book Darwin shares his arguments supporting the theory of evolution or the idea of descent with modification. His ideas triggered a fear response from conservative thinkers who saw his theory as a threat to the very foundations of traditional religion and morality. Although evidence from paleontology, genetics, zoology, molecular biology, and other fields seem to support the theory of evolution, a growing group of judges and ordinary citizens argue that evolution is a flawed, poorly supported “fantasy.” Outside science, Darwin’s name has been used to symbolize people’s religious, philosophical, and ideological perspectives.

Since Darwin’s death in 1882, the theory of evolution has become almost universally accepted by scientists. His work has established a new ideology that made science the chief source of authority in Western culture. Not only is Darwin credited with the establishment of evolution as an integral part of biology, but modern scientists celebrate him for founding the mechanism that is today still the most plausible explanation of how evolution works. As society grows more dependent upon science and technology, what scientists do remains a mystery to most of us. Charles Darwin’s work has placed the topic of science in the forefront and kept it there for over 140 years. Teachers and administrators are increasingly finding themselves called upon to defend evolution in school curricula, from objecting to having to put stickers in science textbooks reminding students that evolution was only a theory in Cobb County, Georgia, to being required in Dover, Pennsylvania, to teach intelligent design, which some critics call “repackaged creationism.” The profundity of Darwin’s theory of evolution...
remains powerful in school curricula controversy in the United States.

—Noe Sauceda

See also boards of education; Christian Coalition; church-state issues; ethnocentrism; fundamentalism; religion, in schools; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; science, in curriculum

Further Readings and References


De Bono, Edward (1933–) revolutionized concepts about thinking, developing the term *lateral thinking* and the “Six Hats” method of thinking. His concepts and strategies have influenced business and education. He contests the notion that general intelligence automatically leads to creative thinking.

Born in Malta, de Bono made a noteworthy transition through the educational system, skipping grade levels in basic education, obtaining a medical degree from the Royal University of Malta, attending Christ Church College in Oxford as a Rhodes Scholar, gaining honors in psychology and physiology, a DPhil in medicine, and completing a PhD at Cambridge. He held faculty appointments at Oxford, London, Cambridge, and Harvard, and his accomplishments include the first Capire Prize in Madrid for contributions to mankind, director of the Cognitive Research Trust (CoRT) at Cambridge, Order of Merit in Malta, and an $8.5 million grant from the Andrews Foundation to create the de Bono Institute in Melbourne as a world center for new thinking.

CoRT hallmarks his contribution to education. The trust produces school materials based on de Bono’s concept of lateral thinking: recognizing dominant ideas that affect perception of a problem, searching for multiple ways of looking at things, relaxation of rigid thinking, and the use of change to encourage other ideas. He embraces the use of low-probability ideas, which are unlikely to occur in the normal course of events.

De Bono credits his metacognition to the background in medicine, focusing on self-organizing systems. He explained his reasoning in an April 2000 interview in which he argues that individual disciplines each bring a limited view to a problem. He cited the importance of an underlying system from which one can derive a variety of mechanisms and interventions. This supports his Six Hats method of thinking, which requires users to approach problems using research, intuition, cautious logic, optimistic opportunity, free-flowing creativity, and holistic overview.

While writing over 62 books and working with corporations and governments, de Bono works consistently with education. Thousands of schools on virtually every continent use his books and techniques. He created educational television series in Great Britain and Germany, trained teachers in Moscow’s Academy of Sciences, addressed the Education Commission of the States, and has lectured in over 52 countries about thinking and education. Yet he is sometimes critical of both basic and higher education. Higher education, because of its nature, may rely too heavily on accuracy and evidence, thus stifling creativity. Basic education, as it becomes more institutionalized, also becomes more change resistant.

De Bono manages an international network of 950 accredited instructors who serve governments, companies, and educational institutions. He continues to write, recently authoring *The De Bono Code Book*, addressing the manner in which language limits perception in communication. He engages in online teaching and maintains a Web site.

—Helen C. Sobehart

See also affective domain; brain research and practice; cognition, theories of; cognitive dissonance; creativity, in management; creativity, theories of; critical thinking; decision making; empowerment; giftedness, gifted education; heuristics; imagination; intelligence; knowledge base, of the field; metacognition; neuroscience; problem-based learning; problem solving; productivity

Further Readings and References


DEAF EDUCATION

Deaf education in the United States traces its roots to the 1817 opening of the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb (now the American School for the Deaf) in Hartford, Connecticut. The first principal of this school was Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, who had traveled to Europe to bring back approaches and techniques to use with students who were deaf and hard of hearing in Connecticut and the surrounding states. Gallaudet also brought from Europe a deaf man named Laurent Clerc, who became the first teacher in this institution. Students in this school received training, which was conducted in sign language, in English grammar, reading, writing, mathematics, religion, and rules of conduct. In 1867 the Clarke School for the Deaf was founded in Northampton, Massachusetts, as the first permanent oral school for the deaf in the country. Its most famous teacher, who married Mabel Hubbard, daughter of the founder of the school, was Alexander Graham Bell. While teaching speech to deaf children and working on the development of a practical hearing aid, he received his inspiration to develop the telephone. The existence in the United States of an oral school and a school that used sign language opened the doors to a controversy raging in Europe regarding the best approach for teaching students with hearing loss: Should children with hearing loss be taught to speak, or should they be taught through sign language? This argument continues to this day, and little progress has been made in bringing all sides to consensus.

The debate over communication development is multifaceted, with proponents and opponents on both sides of every issue, including whether to use natural sign language (referred to as American Sign Language in this country), auditory and speech development (referred to as Oral Instruction), cues (referred to as Cued Speech), or signs in English word order (referred to under many titles such as Signed English or Signing Exact English), and how or whether to integrate these (referred to as Total Communication or Simultaneous Communication). Professionals, parents, and consumers who are deaf themselves have at one time or another been faced with defending their chosen option. In recent decades the argument has been joined by another perspective regarding how people with hearing loss should be perceived and treated. Should we pity and take care of individuals who have a medical condition, or should we treat them as members of an alternate culture with its own norms, customs, history, language, and means of transmitting that culture? The answers are not simple and are as diverse as the population itself.

One of the reasons why there is no clear answer to questions of communication and culture is that the population is widely heterogeneous and diverse. Hearing losses range from mild to profound, and one may be born with a loss or acquire it. Approximately 46% of the school-aged population uses speech and residual hearing as their primary mode of communication, 43% use some combination of speech and sign language, and about 9.5% use sign only, most notably American Sign Language. In addition to differences in communication, approximately 33% of school-aged children with hearing loss have additional disabling conditions. The racial and ethnic backgrounds of these students are as varied as the backgrounds of the general population. About 80% of this heterogeneous mixture is educated in regular schools rather than special schools, and they receive their instruction in a variety of settings from self-contained classrooms to programs incorporating varying degrees of inclusion, including full inclusion in regular education classrooms. Some students receive direct instruction from a teacher of the deaf or a paraprofessional, others are assisted by interpreters, and still others appear to require no support services at all.

Two recent changes to the field brought about by technology may provide a significant impact to the field: cochlear implants and newborn hearing screening with its sequel, early intervention. Technological advances in newborn hearing screening now allow all infants to be tested for hearing loss before they leave the newborn nursery. Many states have laws requiring such screening, and in those states where adequate early intervention is available, infants receiving services by 6 months of age are beginning kindergarten with receptive and expressive language skills commensurate with their hearing peers. Appropriate services include early amplification, early intervention, and family support. Not all states in the United States have sufficient early intervention in place, so outcomes vary greatly from state to state and from region to region within states. In addition to newborn screening technology, cochlear implants are having an impact on the profoundly deaf segment of the population of youngsters with hearing loss. A cochlear implant is a device implanted along the organ of hearing within the cochlea that bypasses damage to the cochlea and
provides a signal directly to the auditory nerve. Many children who receive cochlear implants make dramatic strides; however, when a cochlear implant is surgically placed in a candidate who is inappropriate for implantation or who does not receive the necessary rigorous follow-up therapy, then results can be disappointing. One key to success, no matter the communication mode or technology, is positive parent-child interactions, which are a good predictor of linguistic development. Programs that encourage a good foundation of communication between parents and their deaf and hard of hearing children, no matter the communication option chosen, can do much to ameliorate the effects of a hearing loss.

Hearing loss is a low-incidence disability. Of great concern to deaf educators is the lack of a sufficient number of students who are deaf or hard of hearing to provide a range of similarly communicating peers, an adequate number of teachers and support personnel with training and expertise in working with deafness-related issues and instructional options, and appropriate curricular resources focused on the needs of students who are deaf or hard of hearing. This issue, referred to as critical mass, has yet to be sufficiently addressed by legislators and education administrators, and cases of blatant undereducation of students with hearing losses still occur.

Of greatest concern to parents, administrators, and researchers alike is the impact of hearing loss on literacy. Research consistently points to average literacy levels well below those required for mastery of content subject matter, independent learning, use of technology, and competition in today’s world of work. While there are many successful individuals with hearing loss who are performing on or above grade level, as noted by John Luckner and Sheryl Muir in 2001, overall performance of students who are deaf or hard of hearing typically lags. Still, children with hearing loss are being placed in classrooms where their linguistic proficiency is grossly insufficient to meet academic expectations. This leads not only to undereducation but also to underemployment, with large numbers of today’s youth receiving Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI) alongside limited or non-productive activity.

The gap between high achievement (i.e., those children beginning school with communication skills commensurate with their hearing peers) and limited achievement (i.e., limited literacy, undereducation and underemployment) is considerable. Educational leaders shoulder the responsibility for making sure that all children and youth who are deaf and hard of hearing receive the necessary services to close this gap. To that end educational leaders must face the problems inherent in a lack of critical mass of students, educators, and service providers. They must ensure that procedures are in place for finding the necessary expertise when it does not exist within their school systems, and they must ensure that the communication needs of students with hearing loss are not simply addressed but instead are adequately met.

—Susan R. Easterbrooks

See also child development theories; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; critical thinking; early childhood education; giftedness, gifted education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning environments; mainstreaming and inclusion; metacognition; parental involvement; performance assessment; resiliency; social psychology

Further Readings and References


DEATH EDUCATION

Death education for educators is the curriculum and instruction for making meaning of death, dying, bereavement, and loss. Depending on the age of the students, the curriculum and activities regarding death are designed for the appropriate level of cognitive and emotional maturity. The materials also take into account the cultural values relevant to the population served.

There are three basic responsibilities regarding death education: (1) to help children feel safe while acknowledging the reality of death, (2) to promote an accepting classroom atmosphere where children’s feelings are supported, and (3) to provide developmentally appropriate learning opportunities that allow children to discuss death.

The subject of death has moved from a taboo topic to a very necessary one. Impetus to the discussion of death was greatly accelerated by Elisabeth Kübler-Ross’s book *On Death and Dying*, stressing the need for death education among health professionals.

In today’s society, it can be stressed that children need to examine death due to societal pressures such as terrorism, school violence, war and death on television/media, and violence in computer games.

There appear to be two very divergent trends emerging in the death education literature. One trend seems to find school violence as exemplified in the Columbine High School massacre directly related to the softening of traditional values of the three R’s and teaching values education and death education. These views are further delineated and expounded by Dr. Samuel L. Blumenfeld in 1999 and on a Web site hosted by Citizens Commission on Human Rights.

Another trend enlarges death education and loss by stressing the issues of loss facing young people. *Disenfranchised loss* is a term coined by Kenneth Doka in 1989 to describe grief that people experience from a loss. This definition of loss is greatly expanded and includes issues such as death of both people and pets, moving, loss of a best friend, and the end of a romantic relationship. Other examples of grief experienced by students who are in a racial or sexual minority include loss of safety, loss of friendship, loss of acceptance of family, and loss of belonging. A teacher sensitive to all these issues would find many students in some stage of unresolved grief.

—Linda O’Neal

See also attitudes; bullying; child development theories; consideration, caring; expulsion, of students; life span development; mainstreaming and inclusion; mental illness, in adults and children; personality; school safety; suicide, in schools; terrorism; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


DECENTRALIZATION/ CENTRALIZATION CONTROVERSY

Centralization is also referred to as bureaucracy or hierarchical structures. Centralization in organizational theory is defined as a hierarchical decision-making structure with layers of participants. In centralization, high-level administrators retain the authority while delegating implementation to subordinates. The power rests at a single point in the organization. In centralized systems, one individual may be responsible for decision making. Centralization is associated with bureaucratic systems. They are tightly controlled with clear chains of command. Bureaucracies were structurally designed as a form of standardization for coordination.

The history of centralization, bureaucracy, and hierarchy are rooted in the work of Max Weber. Weber developed an organizational structure with characteristics that included division of labor, rules, hierarchy of authority, impersonality, and competence with authority linked to legitimacy. In Weber’s model, leadership is derived from authority or the management position. The manager may also be a good leader, but leadership is not inherent in authority.

In 2004, Fred Lunenburg and Allan Ornstein outlined four bureaucratic dysfunctions. A high degree of division of labor may cause the reduction of job challenge and can result in reduced performance, absenteeism, or turnover. A heavy reliance on rules may cause inefficiency when the rules become laden with red tape and rigidity. Communication may become
one-way when subordinates withhold information from superiors. In theory, employment and promotion are based on qualifications and performance or merit and competence, but in practice there is a tendency to promote based on loyalty and seniority.

Decentralization refers to the diffusion of decision-making power or the sharing of decision-making power among the stakeholders in a flattened or vertical organizational structure. Henry Mintzberg, in 1989, described six forms of decentralization, including vertical and horizontal decentralization, limited horizontal or selective decentralization, and limited vertical or parallel decentralization. In vertical or horizontal decentralization, most of the power rests in the operating core, at the bottom of the structure. In selective vertical and horizontal decentralization, the power over different decisions is dispersed among managers, staff experts, and operators who work in teams at various levels in the hierarchy. Decentralization is affected by contingency or situational factors, including age and size of the organization, technical system of production, environmental factors like stability and complexity, and power system. The power system is affected by tight control from outside influences.

Decentralization is identified with a human resource philosophy, contingency theory, and scholars such as Douglas McGregor, Chris Argyris, Abraham Maslow, Fred Fiedler, Paul Hersey, Kenneth Blanchard, and W. Edwards Deming. Participatory management gives workers more opportunities to influence decisions about their work and working conditions. Autonomy gives workers freedom and independence in their work and working conditions. Participation and autonomy increase worker productivity through the influence workers have in the overall operation of the organization.

Decentralization has been used in education to divide school systems into smaller units while the power and authority remain in the central office and the board of education. Decentralization is identified with district subdistricts, area offices, charter schools, vouchers, and contracted services.

Decentralization proposes to restructure bureaucratically centralized school systems by redistributing decision-making authority and funds to the local campus. Decentralization promotes the decentralization or devolution of management, budgeting, curriculum, and instruction to the school site. Decentralization is accomplished by redistributing traditionally centralized authority to those closest to the decisions, by making schools more efficient when those closest to decisions become more committed to schools by being involved in the decision-making process, and by allowing schools to develop curriculum that is matched with the needs of students, including the use of a cultures of learning model.

According to the theory that schools become more efficient when those closest to the decisions become more committed to schools by being involved in the decision-making process, theoretically, decentralization puts all the decision-making authority in the school campus. It allows school communities to meet their unique needs. Decentralization also meets the political needs of the state by providing a system of conflict management that meets the unique poverty, desegregation, religious, and other political needs of communities. If constituents or stakeholders have a conflict with the system, the conflict is dealt with at the local level rather than the central office. School decentralization is identified with the redesign of school systems or school districts to a site-managed education system. Charter schools and vouchers are components of the decentralization efforts.

In 1997, Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal identified decentralization as a part of a management movement to develop flatter, more flexible forms (networks, spider webs, and the like) of organizational structure. The management goal of decentralization is to design a structure that fits the organization’s goals, task, and contexts. Decentralization provides an opportunity to change an outdated vertical system into a lateral system that allows coordination at the campus level. Changing an organization from a hierarchical system to a flatter participatory system requires consideration to the following five structural parameters: (1) size and age of the organization, (2) core processes or core technology for transforming raw material, (3) whether environments are stable or uncertain and turbulent, (4) strategy and goals, and (5) information and technology.

While the theory of organizational decentralization is best aligned with contingency leadership theory or leadership theory with a focus on context and situation, the conflict for decentralization of public schools is as follows: Which goals, tasks, and contexts will drive the decentralization process, the state, the local district, or the campus? How will a system and its leaders who have been socialized to operate in a hierarchical culture transform their operational behavior to suit leaders of quasi-independent units?
The most common example of school decentralization is referred to as the local management of school. In the period starting in 1988, the English started an organizational decentralization process enacted under the Education Reform Act of 1988. The reform served as an impetus to budget decentralization or school-based decentralization. The English school system is comparable to the U.S. education system. In the United States, the states are responsible for state funding and state constitutional and legislative policy. The school districts serve as the local education agency. Schools operate under the umbrella of the local school district. In England, the central government is responsible for central policy and funding generated from tax assessments. The local government is responsible for the local education agency or agencies (LEA) within their jurisdiction. The local government generates school funding from local property taxes.

The English LEA is fiscally dependent on the local government, similar to some U.S. fiscally dependent schools. Schools operate under the LEA. England has a national curriculum, performance-based testing, student choice, and a decentralized management system that largely eliminates curricular innovation at the school level but encourages organizational variety. The English system with a policy-based student tracking system is also different from the U.S. system. The English system funds religious and other schools. Unlike the United States, students between the ages of 16 to 19 years are accommodated by secondary schools and academic, technical, or tertiary colleges.

In 1988, the English Reform Act of 1988 also enacted the use of grant-maintained (GM) schools. These are like U.S. charter schools. Local site-based councils and parents were allowed to take a vote to opt out of their LEA and become a quasi-independent school. Under this system, decentralization was reduced to two layers of bureaucracies with several budgeting layers. The English decentralization system progressed but did not address cost of education for student differences across LEAs and created several equity issues.

While the English decentralization provides some interesting models, it also raises questions. The English budgeting process is labeled as a decentralization process, but it really is a very elaborate system that at five different policy levels reduces the amount of money that will be funded to the school. Theoretically, decentralization implies that the layers of sifting funds from the state to the school site will be reduced as in the two-layer system or a state to school site funding system used for GM or charter schools. Each policy level identified in the English system sifts out funds intended for schools.

**CHARTER SCHOOLS AND VOUCHER PROGRAMS**

Decentralization was spurred by the movement to privatize and provide choice in public education. In an effort to meet the demands to provide parental choice, school districts have offered magnet schools, site-based management, regulation waivers, interdistrict vouchers, inter- and intradistrict options to transfer out of a failing school, and contracting for educational services with for-profit and nonprofit organizations. Contracting for educational services with for-profit organizations includes contracts with educational maintenance organizations (EMOs) like the New American Schools Development Corporation, Education Alternatives Inc. in Minnesota, the Edison Project in New York City, Public Strategies Group, Beacon Education Management (formerly Alternative Public Schools in Tennessee), SABIS Educational Systems Inc., founded in 1886 in Beirut, Lebanon, Noble Education Dynamics Inc., Advantage Schools Inc., based in Jersey City, New Jersey, and Hope Academies, owned by Ohio industrialist David Brennan.

**THE DEBATE**

The debate over which system, centralized or decentralized, is a hot issue. There are incompatibilities between the theory of decentralization and needs of the state. If all decisions are redistributed to local schools, how will state accountability and reporting tasks, such as state retirement system, teacher certification, fiscal accountability, and other state requirements, be met? Once each campus becomes an independent market, will efficiencies of scale produce school inefficiencies?

While decentralization theory provides unique approaches for restructuring public bureaucracies, there exist major tensions between centralization and decentralization, including the interests of the modern state that are manifested in controlling the institution that reproduces social structures. Decentralization can meet the political needs of the state by providing a system of conflict management, which meets the
Decentralization is derived from the philosophy of deregulation, which promotes the reduction of state rules and regulations or clearing away of government rules, regulations, and procedures that tie the hands of dedicated public servants. Deregulation reduces the size of government, including public schools, makes government more flexible, and deregulates site budgets so that administrators can hire, pay, and reward at the levels closest to the community. In education, deregulation means allowing schools to operate in a regime where, to the greatest extent, they are judged by outcomes (achievement scores) and not inputs (who they hire, who the student population is, where they operate, which curricula they use, etc.). The results are market driven to the extent that the public education sector accommodates market forces and its ambiguous products. The concern with full deregulation of public schools is the absence of a history and a research base, in addition to the fact that there are many public schools that already perform very well.

There are three common fallacies in organizational diagnosis, including blaming people, blaming the bureaucracy, and thirst for power. When things go wrong in the organization, there’s a tendency to blame the bureaucracy and seek a more decentralized system. Blaming someone mystically identifies what went wrong and what to do next. Blaming the bureaucracy is easier to accept than to recognize that things go wrong when people do not behave rationally and fail to follow the rules and regulations in place. The thirst for power recognizes political game playing in organizations that are also jungles full of predators and prey.

There are other examples of highly centralized and decentralized organizations that are very successful. For example, McDonald’s is a highly centralized, tightly controlled organization where most of the decisions are made at the top. Managers at McDonald’s have limited decision-making discretion. Technology controls cooking French fries and measuring soft drinks. McDonald’s discourages any deviation from standard specifications; however, recent world market challenges like serving mutton burgers and vegetable nuggets in New Delhi have forced McDonald’s to broaden a standard menu.

Harvard University, a significantly decentralized organization, is also very successful. Harvard, like McDonald’s, has a small administrative group at the top; but unlike McDonald’s, Harvard geographically exists within a few concentrated miles in Boston. Harvard is highly decentralized by different colleges or schools. Each school has its own dean, own endowment, own calendar, and fiscal autonomy and responsibility. Faculty have unlimited control on which courses they will teach and what research they will do. While there may be no one way to structure an organization, the success of an organizational structure depends on the structure’s alignment with the organization’s goals, strategies, technology, and environment. For example, an organization that operates in a simpler and more stable environment is more likely to use less complex and more centralized structure. Organizations that operate in rapidly changing, turbulent, and uncertain environments require more complex and flexible structures. One alternative approach is to think of what has been a “matrix” structure, that is, a kind of temporary task force organized within a permanent structure that is dissolved once a specific objective has been met. Matrix structures have been called the “throw away organization” by some futurists. In any case, organizational structures should work for rather than against people and the purpose of the organization.

—Augustina Reyes

See also accountability; administration, theories of; bureaucracy; chief academic officer; critical theory; Deming, W. Edwards; frame theory; infrastructure, of organizations; involvement, in organizations; leadership, theories of; line and staff concept; locus of control; management theories; Maslow, Abraham; McGregor, Douglas; networking and network theory; organizational theories; productivity; reduction in force; role conflict; school districts, history and development; school improvement models; span of control; staffing, concepts of; systems theory/thinking; table of organization; total quality management; Weber, Max; workplace trends

Further Readings and References


DECISION MAKING

Decision making is the primary function of administrators in formal organizations, which are, essentially, decision-making structures. The centrality of decision making was established early in the development of organizational theory. In his seminal 1957 work on administration, Herbert Simon contended that a truly comprehensive theory of administration must include principles that will ensure correct decision making. Daniel E. Griffith, in 1959, equated administration and decision making. Griffith contended that decision-making processes shaped the structure of organizations. Moreover, the organizational rank of an administrator is directly related to the control he or she exerts over the decision-making process and is inversely proportional to the number of decisions the administrator makes personally. Early organizational theorists asserted that decision-making should be rationalized and systematized through the application of logical-mathematical methods.

DECISION-MAKING MODELS

The Classical Model

In the classical model, decision making is a rational activity the purpose of which is to maximize the achievement of organizational goals. Decision making is an orderly process with its own inherent logic embedded in a series of actions that succeeded one another in a sequential manner. In 1974, management theorist Peter F. Drucker described a five-step decision-making process that was widely used in public and private organizations in the United States and elsewhere. The five steps were as follows:

1. Define the problem
2. Analyze the problem
3. Develop alternative strategies
4. Decide on the best solution
5. Convert the solution into action

In practice, there are severe limitations to the classical model. Decision makers rarely have access to all the information needed to make a decision. Identifying all available alternatives and their consequences is impossible, and decision makers do not possess the information-processing capacities needed to make a rational decision. The classical model is a norm rather than a description of how decisions are actually made.

The Administrative Model

If administrators are unable to make completely rational decisions that optimize the achievement of organizational goals, they instead concentrate on finding a satisfactory solution to problems. Seeking a satisfactory solution in an environment of limited rationality is called satisficing. In satisficing, decision makers typically follow a pattern of action that includes:

- Recognizing or defining a problem or issue
- Analyzing the difficulties in a situation
- Establishing the criteria for a satisfactory decision
- Developing a strategy for action
- Implementing an action plan
- Evaluating the outcome

This pattern is both sequential and cyclical, since it may be entered into at any stage.

Incremental Decision Making

In some circumstances, alternatives are difficult to discern or the consequences of each alternative are so complicated as to be impossible to predict. Under these conditions, neither rational decision making nor satisficing is appropriate. Another process has been called “muddling through.” This model involves
decision makers in identifying solution alternatives that are similar to an existing situation and then assessing their consequences until agreement on a course of action is reached. The final solution differs only incrementally from the existing situation; hence the name “incremental” decision making. A “good” decision is one on which decision makers agree. Decisions are based on the assumption that incremental changes will reduce the chance of negative consequences for the organization.

Mixed Scanning

Amitai Etzioni offered a decision-making model in 1967 that was a synthesis of the administrative and incremental models. In mixed scanning, decision makers ask themselves two questions: (1) What is the mission and policy of the organization? (2) What decision will best help the organization achieve its mission and policy? Mixed scanning produces decisions that are consistent with the organization’s mission and policy. Alternatives are limited to those that are close to the problem at hand, and decision makers assume that even though they may lack important information, action is necessary.

Garbage Can Decision Making

Other theorists describe how decisions are made in organizations in turmoil. These organizations, which are called organized anarchies, are marked by unclear or problematic objectives, uncertain technologies, obscure cause-and-effect relationships, and ambiguous decision-making processes. When the need for a decision arises in an organized anarchy, administrators scan existing problems, solutions, participants, and opportunities seeking for a match. Decisions occur when a problem and a solution coincide. Decisions rely more on chance than on rationality. A garbage can metaphor has been used to explain why in some organizations solutions are offered for nonexistent problems, why choices are made that fail to solve problems, and why few problems actually get solved.

PARTICIPATIVE DECISION MAKING

Modern organizational theory supports the value of involving employees in making decisions that affect them. While the literature on participative decision making is too voluminous to cite here, it is generally believed that participative decision making results in a better quality of decisions while enhancing the growth and development of participants. Several descriptive models are available to assist administrators in implementing participative decision making. The question is not whether teachers should participate in decision making but under what conditions, to what extent, and how.

Edwin Bridges proposed in 1967 two tests to assist administrators in determining who should participate in decision making. These are the test of relevance and the test of expertise. Robert Owens proposed a third test in 2004, the test of jurisdiction. The test of relevance identifies decisions in which teachers have a high personal stake. The test of expertise affects decisions in which teachers possess specialized knowledge. Finally, teachers must have some ability to implement the decision made. This is the test of jurisdiction. Teachers should participate in decisions in which they have a high personal stake, and are able to contribute effectively because of specialized knowledge, and are able to implement.

Another consideration for administrators is determining which teachers want to be involved in making a decision. Chester I. Barnard noted in 1938 that some employees were not interested in participative decision making; some organizational decisions fall into their zone of indifference. To involve subordinates in decisions in which they are not interested is counterproductive. There are two additional indicators of a teacher’s desire to be involved in decision making. These are the zone of sensitivity, which identifies issues in which teachers may have a personal interest, and the zone of ambivalence, which identifies issues in which teachers may have some interest but not enough to prompt participation in decision making. Administrators must be alert to issues of indifference, sensitivity, and ambivalence to ensure genuine participative decision making.

Participative decision making is considered a positive leadership practice, but it is neither a simple nor an unambiguous process. One of the more common pitfalls of group decision making is a phenomenon known as the “groupthink syndrome.” Group thinking arises when constructive conflict is absent in the group, producing an uncritical like-mindedness and illusions of invulnerability within the group. Other factors contributing to group thinking include insulation of the group from direct contact with other organization members, a lack of impartial leadership, high
stress on group members from external sources, low self-esteem of group members due to failure of previous decisions, and moral dilemmas. Group think can be countered by deliberate and thoughtful action on the part of the group leaders.

—Mike Boone

See also accountability; Barnard, Chester I.; Chicago school reform; conflict management; democracy, democratic education and administration; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; parental involvement; philosophies of education; politics, of education; professional learning communities; rational organizational theory; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; school improvement models; Simon, Herbert; site-based management; social relations, dimensions of; systemic reform; values, of organizations and leadership

Further Readings and References


DECONSTRUCTION

Jacques Derrida, the author of deconstruction, prides himself on stating that deconstruction can never be defined. To do so would constitute a nearly unforgivable theoretical and linguistic “sin.” For fixing the definition of deconstruction would comprise, in effect, a totalizing gesture that would rid the theory of one of its most useful applications—the capacity to reinvent social reality in the clarity of the moment, to improvise the meaning of such reality. To reinvent social reality through the practice of deconstruction renders possible the reconstruction, or transformation, of such social realities as the institution of public schools and perhaps even major policy institutions such as the “intelligence community.”

It is an institutional problematic that constitutes the dynamics of deconstruction. Researchers and practitioners in school administration and educational leadership may ultimately transform practice by engagement in deconstruction. To do this, administrators in particular must consider the idea that schools are political institutions and as such their role is political. Thus, transforming the political institution of schooling means employing discourse. Schooling, especially student and academic achievement, is primarily a performative speech act (and writing is a form of speech). Put simply it is the use of language, ideas, and ideology that carries material effects for students. As types of speech acts, deconstruction is a form of “close reading” of texts, which has a long tradition and history in literary criticism. In fact, David Lehman said in 1991 that deconstruction is rigorous and ruthless debunking. The search for hidden hierarchies, silences, and binaries embedded in texts become the locus for severe questioning of any author’s purposes, motivations, and possible contradictions. Some examples of deconstructive criticism in educational leadership are Boyd Bode’s 1930 critique of the ideas and works of John Franklin Bobbitt; Raymond Callahan’s 1962 analysis of the influence of scientific management in educational administration; and Stephen Pattison’s 2000 indictment of total quality management as basically religion in disguise.

—Luis F. Miron

See also Bobbitt, John Franklin; critical theory; philosophies, of education; postmodernism

Further Readings and References


DELPHI TECHNIQUE

How do school personnel determine a best course of action? How can they develop consensus? Prediction or forecasting is part of running a classroom, school, district, or any organization. School plans, district strategic plans, technology planning, and more depend on understanding the present and predicting the future. How to best decide a course of action has itself been a discussion with a variety of expert opinions. Building consensus is a constant quest.

At one time, an expert might be called upon and his or her opinion would be the forecast or recommended course of action. Others used panels or groups of experts, thinking that the intelligence of the group might overcome prejudices or lack of useful information. Reaching consensus with a group often is very difficult. A strong vocal minority can overwhelm others. Popularity, strong speaking abilities, perceived or real professional status, and many other factors blur the objectivity of the members, and the process can become futile.

During the 1950s, Olaf Helmer of the RAND Corporation, a think tank that has done extensive research for governmental agencies and public service entities, developed the Delphi Technique with the assistance of another researcher, Norman Daley. The essential concept of the Delphi Technique is to use a panel or group of experts to forecast the future, but with an undergirding of independence and anonymity. This method was to forecast the future based on a questioning and feedback process while avoiding the standard problems of group interaction. The initial questions for the Delphi Technique were oriented to national security issues, but the Delphi Technique gained importance as a forecasting tool in schools, industry, and other organizations through the 1970s.

Today, the Delphi Technique is frequently used in the medical field to determine benchmark courses of action for treatments. The RAND/UCLA Appropriateness model is a Modified Delphi Technique that presents a situation and has clinicians respond, with reasons, on how they would deal with that circumstance. Using the Delphi process, a manual of practice is developed. This Modified Delphi Technique application could easily be adapted to standardizing responses to certain situations arising in teacher assessment, student discipline, or other commonly encountered problems.

Initially, the Delphi Technique required four or more rounds of surveys, with feedback provided. Although it did not require participants to be in the same room or even the same community, the process was time consuming, with surveys being mailed back and forth. The Modified Delphi Technique targets the question initially, like the RAND/UCLA Appropriateness model. The first survey has a series of selected items or suggestions based on research, interviews, literature reviews, and similar sources. This gives the process a quicker start and cuts the anticipated number of survey rounds to three without giving up anonymity and independence. Feedback remains a key part of the process. Each subsequent survey has feedback built in. Similar responses may be grouped or collapsed into a category, as may comments.

The Modified Delphi Technique begins with Survey One. This survey has several items with spaces for comment. In addition, the survey has ample space for additional items and comments. The respondents are told they need only to give a line or two to express and explain the idea. The surveys are returned to a coordinator for gathering and recasting into Survey Two.

The second survey provides all the ideas offered in the first survey response. Respondents have space to refine the ideas, consider strengths and weaknesses, and even posit additional ideas. The second anonymous survey is returned to the coordinator.

Survey 3 has the input from the second survey, and the respondents are asked to again reply with additional clarifications. They also note strengths and weaknesses and record any additional thoughts and opinions.

At this point, there may be a consensus. If this is the case, further surveys are not needed. Often, Survey Four is issued. It is more direct. Using an agreed upon numeric scale, respondents are asked to rank the ideas. There may be a system of ranking the five top ideas. In other situations, each idea is rated on a several-point scale, with the coordinator doing the final tally and ranking the ideas or issues.

Surveys traditionally were mailed, but today e-mailing surveys is commonplace. A recent variation of the Delphi Technique called E-DEL+I has been designed. The first survey is done before a meeting is held. The results of that survey become the data for Survey Two. Respondents gather in clusters with their own space and Internet connectivity plus a conference class connecting the clusters. They are able to discuss and question in the face-to-face setting, on the conference
call, yet they also respond to the survey independently and anonymously. A coordination team receives the results and produces Survey Three while the respondents are still in their discussion clusters. Moving quickly, the meeting concludes after 2½ hours with consensus.

E-DEL+I is not an option for most sites and districts since it requires expert coordination teams and sophisticated hardware and software. The cost-saving option is using e-mail or a survey site to support the gathering of data and the sending out of additional surveys. While the original Delphi Technique depended on mail, today’s Delphi users have the quick response options found in electronic communication. Independence and anonymity still are part of the Modified Delphi Technique, and these communications can be set to preserve that quality.

How can the Modified Delphi Technique be used within a school or district? Strategic or long-range planning, developing a policy manual, designing a discipline code with the broad stakeholder spectrum, and facilities planning are a few of the possibilities. Districts seeking a high level of engagement but trying to avoid the pitfalls of group dynamics might find their answers through the Delphi.

—Penelope Walters Swenson

See also accountability; capacity building, of organizations; curriculum, theories of; expert power; management theories; measurement, theories of; needs assessment; planning models; quantitative research methods; school improvement models; strategic planning; surveys and survey results; variables

Further Readings and References


↑ DEMING, W. EDWARDS

The work of W. Edwards Deming (1900–1993), creator of the total quality management (TQM) process of industrial development, has proven influential among contemporary educational leaders seeking to improve school performance and stakeholder collaboration. Following World War II, Japan had a reputation for producing products of poor quality and was desperate to enter the world market but did not have the organizational, management, or leadership skills necessary to effectively run and operate successful companies. It was at that time that the Union of Japanese Scientists and Engineers sought out Deming. In 1950, Deming went to Japan and began working with Japanese engineers, scientists, and the managers of Japan’s top companies. Collaboratively, Deming’s quality control philosophies and procedures were implemented, and the products produced in post-World War II Japan went from laughable to laudable. Emperor Hirohito awarded Deming Japan’s Second Order Medal of the Sacred Treasure and attributed the rebirth of Japanese industry and the country’s worldwide success to Deming.

In 1953, Deming attempted to bring his quality management principles to the United States. At that time, however, American companies were in a state of growth, and Deming’s philosophies were ignored. For years, Deming tried to convince American companies that the Japanese would soon surpass them in the areas of quality production. Eventually, American industry, faced with dwindling production output and increased costs, took notice of a nationally broadcast television documentary entitled “If Japan Can, Why Can’t We?” Following the airing of this documentary, companies such as Ford, General Motors, and Dow Chemical began inquiring about Deming’s management philosophies. However, Deming soon found that most American companies wanted quick, easy solutions to corporate problems. As Deming’s reforms were more involved than American companies were used to, the American companies resisted Deming’s TQM program. Eventually, some American corporations did adopt Deming’s principles, and the effect is still apparent in corporate slogans such as Ford’s “Quality Is Job 1.”

Business courses and companies worldwide now teach the major premises of Deming’s TQM principles: (a) management must recognize and define continuous improvement, (b) management must work with subordinates to improve the system, (c) to improve, quality must be measured and one must tell others about the lessons learned and the benefits to mankind, (d) managers not only measure their systems but also
look for the root causes of the problems and then fix the system before the system dies, and (e) managers must be leaders for their organization and not just persons who supervise the work of others. Deming’s primary belief was that if quality goes up, costs go down and the savings can be passed on to the customer. Ergo, customers get quality products, companies get higher revenues, and the economy grows. At the age of 92, one year prior to his death, Deming was still putting in 16-hour days teaching quality management principles to American companies. His 14 Points and 7 Deadly Sins have become commonplace in management books. His love of learning and teaching was demonstrated in his willingness to teach anyone who cared to learn. While sometimes abrupt and impatient with trainees who would not take responsibility for their own learning, Deming’s questions and continual search for answers exemplify his philosophy that the learner (organization) has to take responsibility for learning.

—Brenda R. Kallio

See also accountability; administration, theories of; bureaucracy; feedback; innovation, in education; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; management theories; planning models; productivity; rational organizational theory; total quality management

Further Readings and References


DEMOCRACY—DEFINITION AND HISTORY

Democracy, from the Greek demos, meaning “common people,” and kratos, meaning “strength and power,” literally means government of the people. Generally, it is accepted that there are two forms of democracy—direct, in which the people directly rule on the issues before them, and representative, in which the people elect others to do state craft for them. Beyond that, defining democracy becomes more problematic, particularly in looking at the outer appearances of different democratic forms. Part of the reason for this is that democracy is based upon two separate defining concepts. The first is that the individual person has certain rights (or as Locke wrote, “inalienable rights”). The second is that societies require specific responsibilities of their individual members. The intersection of social responsibility and individual right is a place that is constantly in flux, and often local conditions influence how such intersections play out. Thus, while the common definition of government by the people is a workable place to start in the discussion of democracy, it is already extremely problematic to the point that Laurence Whitehead called it “vexed” in 1997.

The rise of the first representative democracy is traced to the ancient Athenians in 462 BC. However, by current political standards, Athenian democracy was anything but representative. Women, slaves, and those who were not 100% Athenian were not allowed to participate in the democratic processes of the day. This meant that a specific elite was vested with the responsibility for governing. Furthermore, later Greek philosophers, particularly Plato and Aristotle, expressed doubts about the efficacy of democracy as a viable and efficient form of governance.

In the West, ideas about democracy languished until the Reformation movement sparked by Martin Luther, but conceptualized by John Calvin. With a reformed church came the need to work out the relationship between governance on earth and governance in heaven. Luther worked this problem by following the eschatological argument of Paul—that it was
better to obey the king on earth knowing that his was a temporal existence than to risk offending God above. Calvin analyzed the problem much more subtly. In his monumental treatise *The Institutes of Christian Religion*, Calvin attempted to account for the need for earthly governance. He reasoned that three forms of government were available to men—monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy—but since man’s nature was imperfect, the best of these would be either aristocracy or democracy. Thus, Calvin concluded that through governance by the many, those things that were inconsistent with the kingdom of God would be appropriately controlled. So within the Reformation movement (the Roman Catholic Church did not officially endorse democracy until Vatican II) was the seed of democratic governance. As Calvin’s thinking became more and more influential within Protestant religious communities on the European continent, the secular philosophical concepts needed to institute democratic forms came to fruition, particularly in the works of Enlightenment scholars.

For Enlightenment thinkers, the social contract became the form through which democratic governance might be realized. For example, Locke distinctively saw the social contract as one that was revocable if the state did not fulfill its responsibilities. Specifically addressing the role of the state as protective of the individual, Locke granted that individuals have inalienable rights—life, liberty, and the pursuit of property. He further posited that the government must be one where the majority determines the will of the people and that the minority must acquiesce.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau further refined the social contractual ideas of Locke. In *The Social Contract* he wrote that perfect freedom was the natural state of human beings. However, the needs of property dictate that humans give up this perfect freedom for the civil liberty that protects their rights and property. This civil liberty Rousseau called the “general will.” He noted that such forfeiture creates a fundamental problem of the civil society, which is to secure the participation of all its members in determining the general will.

American democracy, particularly in the writing of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, was highly influenced by this Enlightenment-era thinking. Clearly, both Locke and Rousseau were present in the minds of the writers of these seminal documents. The United States, perhaps because it was outside Europe and not subject to the historical governmental hubris of the mainland, became the world’s first modern civil democracy. Like the Athenians before, democratic rights were generally limited to the landowning gentry, but the opportunity for others to become landowners secured a general growth of these rights. It should be noted that in the United States, the lack of universality of rights is as much a recent phenomenon as one in the past. It was not until 1920, with the passage of universal suffrage, that women gained the right to vote, and it wasn’t until the Voting Rights Act of 1965 that minority voting became a protected commodity.

Critiques of Western democracy and its dominant historical narrative are numerous. Particularly in the United States, it is argued that the racial history of the country seriously impacts the basic inalienable rights of the individual based upon racial identity. Ronald Takaki has specifically pointed out that by not defining the outcomes of American democracy in terms of its racial history, no one truly understands how rights can be compromised and how society can falter. For example, Takaki believes that the underlying dominant conceptualization of the individual American citizen is constructed as White. This specific construction means that those who are not White must constantly restate their right to citizenship, their inalienable rights as citizens, and their commitment to the society in general in order that their citizenship will be granted roughly the same privileges as those who are White.

Feminists have also criticized American democratic society in terms of its decided neglect of the rights of women. Beginning with a universal suffrage movement in the mid-nineteenth century, it would take until 1920 for women to gain the right to vote. More serious, though, is their critique that the underlying conceptualization of the individual American citizen is not only White, but male. Such a construct results in economic and political disenfranchisement, according to feminist scholars.

The Western slant of the history of democracy is also controversial. Numerous scholars point to the awareness by Benjamin Franklin of the democratic forms utilized by the five Iroquois nations as providing a model for realizing the lofty ideals of the Enlightenment. Franklin’s later writing on governmental checks and balances seems to bear this out, although other scholars dispute it. Stutting, in a thoughtful exploration of interaction and interplay between indigenous Americans’ ideas of governance with key thinkers from the Enlightenment, makes the
case that some knowledge of indigenous practices regarding confederacy can be assumed in the writings of Locke and Rousseau, among others. Thus, there is a case to be made that modern European thinking about democracy was influenced by knowledge of the indigenous American’s political practices.

Finally, a critique of democracy in general can be made based upon Whitehead’s observations that democracy is defined by its context. According to Whitehead’s observations, democracy in Australia probably means something different than democracy in Sri Lanka or the United States. He asks, “Is the core meaning of the word really identical in Chinese, or in Arabic, to its meaning in English, or in Greek? Does it make no basic difference to their understanding of the term that different people may occupy radically different positions in a political hierarchy (e.g., no difference to the understanding of Afrikaners and so-called ‘Bantus’ under apartheid; no difference to the understanding of males and females, or true believers and skeptics, in an Islamic theocracy?). . . . Can we disregard historical change, and assume some underlying continuity of meaning for the term that extends through the city states of antiquity, to the nation states of modernity, into the electronically integrated world that may soon be upon us?”

**DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION**

There exists both common agreement and disagreement about democratic education. It is generally agreed that democratic education is centered in the values of individual rights and civic responsibility. It is also generally agreed that democratic education is for the purpose of preparing citizenry for the work of democracy. However, even the preparation of citizenry has been historically controversial. In the history of democratic education, one of the key questions has been whether the purpose of education is to inculcate the correct democratic values such as patriotism and nationalism or whether the purpose is to teach the individual how to freely and critically evaluate the political issues of the time in order to make reasoned decisions. This should come as no surprise, as even the recent debates on whether to require the recitation of the Pledge of Allegiance in public schools have been representative of this historical argument.

The greatest early proponent of a right beliefs approach was Noah Webster, who included a “catechism” about U.S. government forms in his 1798 spelling texts for students. The catechism laid out why the republican, representative form of democracy was superior to other governmental forms. Benjamin Rush, one of the original signers of the Declaration of Independence, stated, “Our country includes family, friends and property, and should be preferred to them all. Let our pupil be taught that he does not belong to himself, but that he is public property. Let him be taught to love his family, but let him be taught, at the same time, that he must forsake, and even forget them, when the welfare of his country requires it.” No less than Thomas Jefferson weighed in on the side of developing critical skills for the purpose of doing the work of governance. However, Jefferson limited his ideas to developing an elite class, always male, and always landowning.

In the mid-nineteenth century, Horace Mann furthered the critical skill argument through the publication of his *Annual Reports* as chair of the Massachusetts Board of Education. In these reports he made the case for school funding by government and for mandatory attendance so that students would learn the skills critical to business and democracy. Indeed, the presence of the market in the form of job training or professional skill has always been an underlying part of the democratic education debate, but Mann took the opportunity to draw a direct link between the educated citizen and the good worker for business. Thus democratic education took on the role of economic development as well as preparing the right beliefs and skills for future citizens.

Perhaps the most influential thinker about democratic education in the twentieth century was John Dewey. Dewey would be very skeptical of the right skills versus right beliefs argument that drove educational debate in early American history. To understand Dewey’s conceptualization of democratic education, it is first important to understand his particular conceptualization of democracy and his description of education in a democratic society. For Dewey, democracy is a way of life that goes beyond a form of government. It balances varied, shared interests with full and free interplay and association between different social groups. According to Dewey in *Democracy and Education*, the democratic society is one that is concerned with the full participation of all its members and with readjusting the forms and functions of its institutions to ensure such participation.
For Dewey, democratic education has both conservative and progressive aims. It is conservative in that education is meant to pass on the best things of the society, conserving important beliefs and skills that are useful to whichever particular group in which humans participate. It is progressive in that it is meant to encourage new exploration and growth toward new knowledge that will ultimately be beneficial. The democratic educational problem for Dewey, then, was to use the best traits of community life to criticize less desirable ones and thereby suggest improvement.

Current debate on forms and functions of democratic education have not progressed much beyond the original parameters of the right skills versus right beliefs argument. For example, John Rawls’s encouragement that the ideal citizen should possess the ability to create a social framework that recognizes multiple “good” ends in a pluralistic society is certainly a variation of Dewey’s concept of democracy. On the other hand, the debate over whether the Pledge of Allegiance should be recited every day in classrooms stems from the right beliefs movement. Catherine Pryor proposes three themes to guide the democratic classroom—liberty and freedom, justice and fairness, equality and equal opportunity. She states that such values are indicative of “citizen teachers” who teach future democratic citizens.

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION

The basic premise behind democratic administration is that there is greater efficacy in decision making when all group members are engaged and valued than when decisions are made in isolation. In direct opposition to hierarchical, traditional models of leadership, democratic models are referred to by such names as collaborative, shared, participatory, facilitative, or distributed leadership, to name a few. All of these models share core values of consultation and relationship between members of the group, and they emphasize democratic principles such as participation, respect, and valuing difference. They assume that no one person is able to fully comprehend the complexity of given organizational dilemmas, and they place the responsibilities of leadership more in the realm of systems development and management for the purpose of fostering collaboration and participation. Peter Senge, for example, advocates that organizations must be learning communities and that leaders must take responsibility for fostering team learning and reflection. This commitment to learning, growth, and systems that foster participation echoes the democratic educational ideas of Dewey.

Another key to democratic leadership is that the leader models democratic principles. Such modeling is reflected in the systems design referenced above but is also modeled through the day-to-day relational behaviors of the leader. In other words, whether the leader “walks the talk” of democratic administration is a key variable in whether that leader is perceived to be democratic. In addition, the leader is responsible for fostering shared vision within the organization. This can only come about when all participants are empowered by the systems that are in place.

—Bruce H. Kramer

See also academic freedom; administration, theories of; authority; boards of education; bureaucracy; collaboration theory; compliance theory; critical race theory; critical theory; curriculum, theories of; decision making; elections, of school boards, bond issues; empowerment; equality, in schools; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; leadership, theories of; management theories; professional learning communities; value pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


The Department of Education (DOE) is the agency of the U.S. government that administers most federal policy, funding, and oversight of education. Other federal agencies involved in education are the Department of the Interior (for Native Americans’ schooling) and the Department of Defense (for the children of military personnel abroad). Like those agencies, the DOE’s work centers on implementing and monitoring the policies and programs authorized by Congress and signed into law by the president. The DOE is headed by a secretary of education, who serves on the president’s cabinet.

Although public schools in the United States are controlled and financed predominantly at the state and local levels, the federal government has provided an average of 6% of the funding for local school districts in recent years. However, the influence of the federal government, as executed through the DOE, extends beyond its comparatively small fiscal contributions. The DOE’s four major types of involvement are elaborated below. But first, a brief history of the department is presented.

The DOE is a relative newcomer among cabinet-level agencies. (Only the Department of Homeland Security is younger.) The DOE began operating in May 1980, 6 months after Congress authorized it by passing the U.S. Department of Education Organization Act (Public Law 96-88).

A noncabinet-level Office of Education had been in existence since 1868. Given the decentralized education system in the United States and the tradition of local governance of schools, the federal office remained small during the first half of the twentieth century. Over the years, it operated under different titles within various government agencies. The latter included the Department of the Interior and the former Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW).

Throughout the office’s history, there were always some advocates for consolidating educational programs into a single federal agency and elevating it to department status. This idea gained momentum with the launch of the Soviet Union’s spaceship Sputnik in 1957. National concern that America’s technology and education were lagging behind those of the Russians led to unprecedented levels of federal funding to train teachers and develop curricula in mathematics and science.

Federal involvement in, and aid to, education continued to increase during the Kennedy and Johnson administrations in the 1960s, concomitant with political and social changes in the United States. These changes included the civil rights movement, school desegregation resulting from the Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court decision, the intensification of teacher unions’ political activity, President Johnson’s “War on Poverty,” and growing concerns for removing inequities in American society. In the 1970s, national education programs expanded further, as part of efforts to improve opportunities for racial minorities, women, people with disabilities, and English language learners. As federal investments in education surpassed the budgets of other full-fledged cabinet-level departments, the movement to create a Department of Education gained additional momentum.

In 1976, with the National Education Association’s endorsement, Jimmy Carter was elected president. He followed through on his campaign promise to advocate for cabinet-level status for education. And after 2 years of considerable wrangling in Congress, President Carter signed the law establishing the DOE in October 1979.

Since its inception, the department has engaged in four major types of activities, with priorities shifting somewhat from one administration to another. Selected examples of each of the four main emphases follow.

Consistent with its original mission of ensuring equal access to education, much of the department’s focus is on helping the most disadvantaged students.
Closely related to that function is enforcing civil rights statutes that prohibit discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, disability, and age. Examples of policies administered by the DOE in this domain are (a) the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and its related programs and requirements for special education services and (b) Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1964, aimed at improving the achievement of poor, minority, and other underprivileged children.

While Congress determines the level of funding for federal educational programs, a second major function of the DOE is distributing and monitoring those funds. Three distribution methods are used. Some programs’ funding is based on a set formula prescribed in the congressional bill authorizing the program (for example, IDEA). Other funds are distributed by competitive grant application (e.g., bilingual demonstration projects). And some funds are awarded on the basis of financial need (e.g., postsecondary student grants, loans, and fellowships). The DOE can withhold funds from programs that do not comply with its guidelines.

A third DOE focus is collecting data on U.S. schools and disseminating that and other research it funds. An example is the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the primary federal entity for gathering and analyzing data related to education. Another example is the Nation at Risk report of 1983, arguably one of the most influential and frequently cited publications in the department’s history. Linking the education system to a “rising tide of mediocrity” in the United States, this report led to several waves of reform activity at the state and national levels.

A fourth function is the DOE’s role in focusing national attention on the educational issues it (and the president) prioritizes. The three activities just described also signal federal educational priorities. However, the highly visible, headline attracting, communication role of the department can sway public opinion nationwide. This role is sometimes referred to as the “bully pulpit.” An example from the mid-1980s was Secretary of Education William Bennett’s high-profile activities aimed at inspiring and reshaping education. He traveled throughout the United States delivering speeches, teaching sample lessons, espousing the virtues of a core curriculum grounded in Western thought, critiquing the culture of higher education, engaging in photo opportunities, and putting education at the forefront of the national consciousness.

—Marilyn Tallerico

See also Bell, Ted; decentralization/centralization controversy; governance; A Nation at Risk; National Assessment of Educational Progress; No Child Left Behind; state departments of education

Further Readings and References

DESEGREGATION, OF SCHOOLS

It has been 50 years since the U.S. Supreme Court, under the leadership of Chief Justice Earl Warren, rendered its landmark decision in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas (1954) (Brown I). In this decision, the Court reversed their earlier decision in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896), which legally sanctioned segregation of public facilities and services. Plessy enabled the custom of segregation to be affirmed by providing a legal basis for dual school systems, Black students in a community attended segregated schools, which were staffed solely by Black teachers, and White students attended school exclusively for Whites. In Brown I, the Court unanimously mandated that the separate-but-equal doctrine was inherently unequal because it violated the Fourteenth Amendment’s equal protection clause that prohibits state governments from enacting policies or laws that separate people because of their race.

It was the Court’s immediate goal to put an end to de jure segregation in states where legislatures and policymakers had established a two-tiered educational system, one for Whites and another for Blacks. Brown I was vague and did not provide any direction or
remedies to lower courts and school districts for desegregating schools. The Supreme Court, understanding the complexities of Brown I, did not immediately provide remedies or relief because they wanted input from the U.S. attorney general and the attorneys general of the many states before issuing their final order, which came in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas (1955) (Brown II). Brown II ordered school districts to desegregate with all deliberate speed and instructed federal district courts to oversee the implementation. The court’s direction of “all deliberate speed” was intentionally left vague because some justices wanted immediate compliance, others wanted gradual implementation, and still others wanted the timetable and process left to the individual states. Chief Justice Warren, however, wanted a unanimous decision, and when he could not accomplish that, he settled for the “all deliberate speed” language.

The resistance to desegregation was so vehemently strong that states did little or nothing to integrate their schools during the first decade after Brown I. It was not until after Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the active enforcement of decisions rendered by federal district courts by the Civil Rights Division of the U.S. Justice Department that the great majority of school districts were desegregated. With the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Congress decided to accelerate desegregation efforts and provide legitimate enforcement authority to the executive branch. The act mandated that schools proceed toward desegregation or lose federal funds, and it gave authority to the attorney general to sue school systems whether or not they were receiving federal dollars.

States, in response to the lack of the precise direction from the Supreme Court, attempted to circumvent the mandate to desegregate their schools. For instance, in Griffin v. County School Board of Prince Edward County (1968). The school district operated two schools—one combined elementary and high school for Blacks and another for Whites. Students would automatically be reassigned to their current school if their parents did not elect for them to be transferred to the other school. The Supreme Court saw the plan as unrealistic and a way to perpetuate vestiges of segregation. Moreover, the Court finally rendered a decision that provided guidance to lower courts and school districts. They indicated that when moving from a dual to a unitary school system, districts must do more than just change the racial composition of their student bodies. Their desegregation plans must address all aspects of their school environment—faculty, staff, transportation, extracurricular activities, and facilities (the Green factors). One year after the Green decision, the Court finally stated that the all deliberate speed standard was no longer constitutionally permissible, and school districts must immediately end their dual systems.

Under the direction of federal district courts, school districts implemented a variety of remedies that included transfer policies, busing, and the creation of magnet schools to redress segregation policies. For instance, in Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg (1971), the Court upheld a lower court ruling that allowed children to be bused outside their neighborhoods to achieve racial balance. The Supreme Court, however, also took steps to limit desegregation actions taken by the courts during the 1970s when it ruled in Milliken v. Bradley (1974) that a federal district court could not impose an interdistrict remedy by ordering a city school system to integrate with suburban school districts to achieve racial balance.

Since Brown I, more than 500 school districts have been under desegregation orders. The process by which a formally “dual system” would be declared “unitary” was a task accomplished on a case-by-case basis under the supervision of a federal district court. Lower courts used the Green factors to determine if a district was unitary; however, the Supreme Court was forced to resolve several issues for lower courts. First, the Court determined that once a district is found to be unitary, the case could not be reopened unless it was determined that there was a violation of the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Second, the Supreme Court established that districts could be released from court supervision if they satisfied one or more of the Green factors while the court supervises them on those factors not adequately addressed, as in Freeman v. Pitts (1992). Third, the
Court established in *Oklahoma v. Dowell* (1991) that court supervision was only to be a temporary measure to eliminate past discrimination. And finally, the Court also established that the goal was to only eliminate de jure segregation to the most practicable extent. Therefore, school boards could not be held responsible for shifts in residential housing patterns that were beyond their control.

The current desegregation trends have led to the resegregation of America’s public schools. Changes in residential patterns, poverty, and Whites seeking better education for their children in neighborhood schools, private or parochial schools or by home schooling have all contributed to America’s inner-city public schools becoming overwhelmingly Black and Hispanic. Moreover, the conservative national political climate has created a centrist national court, which is frustrated with desegregation, and federal court judges who do not see desegregation as an issue for the courts. Therefore, mandatory desegregation orders of the last decade have been dissolved, and voluntary desegregation plans have been challenged.

—John Gooden

*See also* Affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Black education; boards of education; Chicago school reform; civil rights movement; critical race theory; Council of the Great City Schools; discrimination; elementary education; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; eugenics; high schools; human capital; multiculturalism; Office of Economic Opportunity; resiliency; systemic reform

### Further Readings and References


### DETERMINISM, SOCIOCULTURAL

Determinism is a philosophical theory holding that all events are inevitable consequences of antecedent sufficient causes, often understood as denying the possibility of free will. Determinism most widely states that all events in the world are the result of some previous event, or series of events. In this view, all of reality is already in a sense predetermined or preexistent and therefore nothing new can come into existence. This closed view of the universe sees all events in the world simply as effects of other prior effects and has particular implications for morality, science, and religion. Ultimately, if determinism is correct, then all events in the future are as unalterable as are all events in the past. Consequently, human freedom is simply an illusion.

Deterministic perspectives are varied, based on the frame of reference. If the frame of reference is biological, then biological factors determine how a system behaves or changes over time. If the frame of reference is technology in general, then society is determined by technology. If the frame of reference is language, there is a systematic relationship between the grammatical categories of the language a person speaks and how that person both understands the world and behaves in it. If the frame of reference is sociocultural, then one’s society or culture determines how one interacts, situated within existent structures.

The stance of sociocultural determinism leaves little for individual agency or freedom. It is argued that an individual’s action takes place in patterns or structures, the order of which is largely beyond the control of individuals—particularly individuals with relatively little social power. Sociocultural determinism is a stance that asserts the primacy of social and cultural factors rather than the autonomous influence of other frames of reference as a medium. The fundamental assumption of a sociocultural deterministic view is that the social is primary. That is to say, a sociocultural view takes to task an atomistic view of society as an aggregate of individuals by proposing that it is only through society that what we call “individuals” are derived in the first place. Furthermore, because we are born into a community of others whose customs, concepts, and practices precede us, it is as accurate to say that things like language, identity, or knowledge acquire us as to say that we acquire them. This form of determinism does not deny the existence of the individual; rather it explores a more
complex, integrated understanding of persons that encompasses their sociocultural aspects.

Those who emphasize sociocultural determination focus on such issues as the production of tools and artifacts, modes of use, values, purposes, skill, style, choice, control, and access. In its complexity, sociocultural determinism is concerned with the distribution of power or of capital, social and physical inheritance, relations of scale and size between groups. But it neither wholly controls nor wholly predicts the outcome of complex activity within or at these limits and under or against these pressures.

—Patrick M. Jenlink

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; at-risk students; Black education; bureaucracy; child development theories; cognition, theories of; critical race theory; curriculum, theories of; discrimination; eugenics; intelligence; learning, theories of; organizational theories; philosophies of education; planning models; politics, of education; semiotics; sexism (glass ceiling); social context; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References

DEWEY, JOHN

John Dewey (1859–1952) is considered among the greatest philosophers America ever produced and is arguably the most important philosopher on the subject of education in the history of the nation. Born in 1859 in Burlington, Vermont, he attended the University of Vermont and later earned his PhD from Johns Hopkins University in 1884. An early disciple of Hegel, he taught philosophy at the Universities of Minnesota and Michigan before accepting a position at the University of Chicago as chair of the department of philosophy, psychology, and pedagogy. While at Chicago, he established the famous Lab School by which he tested his theories about pedagogy. After some controversy, Dewey moved to Teachers College, Columbia University, where he spent the next four decades.

Dewey was a prodigious writer and thinker, though he was not always clear about his meaning. He was highly influenced by the thinking of Charles Peirce and William James. Dewey's philosophy of education was centered on his notion of science. Science to Dewey was a never-ending process of experimenting and formulating conclusions, something he called “warranted assertions.” Dewey did not believe in final, irrevocable truth but saw human inquiry in progressive terms, moving closer to truth in deliberate steps over time. He applied this method to all facets of human endeavor: schooling, politics, art, and morals.

Dewey specified his views on education methodology in a pamphlet released in 1897 titled My Pedagogic Creed. His views changed the way teachers would teach; that is, the teacher was not there to impose a standardized curriculum but to select those influences highly regarded by the school community. The curriculum was to be conceptualized not as inert subject matter but as a place where the student engaged in a continuing reconstruction of his or her own experiences. The definition of discipline as stemming from the school as a community replaced the notion that the teacher administered it individually. Tests were not to be used as a measure of subject content but as a way to determine the child’s fitness for social life. In all, education was conceived as a deliberate, conscious, social process. The child was seen as an active participant, if not a director of his or her own learning. Dewey’s philosophy was an attempt to reconcile social conflicts with democracy, industrial expansion, and the tenets of life informed by science. The best explanation for this approach is his book Democracy and Education released in 1916, though many others, including Bertrand Russell, consider his 1899 work The School and Society his most outstanding text. Russell, though an admirer of Dewey’s, took issue with his notion of truth as “warranted assertability,” indicating that since the assertions depended upon the future, the extent to which it was within human power to alter the future represented the extent to which any such assertions would have to be compromised.

John Dewey touched nearly every facet of American public education. He served as president of the American Psychological Association, the American Philosophical Society, and he helped found the American Association of University Professors. He also assisted in the creation of the American Federation of Teachers in New York City. His writings
and thoughts are still studied in depth in schools of education throughout the nation and much of the world.

—Fenwick W. English

See also critical theory; critical thinking; curriculum, theories of; elections, of school boards, bond issues; history, in curriculum; politics, of education; philosophies of education; principalship; research methods; schools of education

Further Readings and References


DIALECTICAL INQUIRY

The term dialectics comes from the Greek word dialogue, which means “to argue or contend with.” In ancient Greece, the word dialectic expressed a specific manner of argumentation aimed at discerning any contradictions that were embedded in the opposition’s reasoning, and by so doing nullifying the validity of his or her argument and surpassing it by another synthesis. Dialectics also played a part in the thinking of ancient figures such as Lao Tse, Heraclitus, Socrates (perhaps the most famous master of dialectical argument), Plato, and Aristotle. During the Middle Ages and the reign of metaphysics (a static view of the world that dialectics opposes), dialectics was relegated to little more than a subfield of logic (along the lines of the simplistic triadic formula “thesis-antithesis-synthesis”), but that dialectics returned as worldview and a method of analysis in the work of German philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel.

Frederic Jameson explained in his 1971 book Marxism and Form that Hegel’s Phenomenology is the story of development, of enriched and solidified consciousness, and reaching a plateau known as Absolute Spirit. Later, Hegel’s dialectical method of presenting the successive stages of the movement of the Absolute Spirit through history is represented as a process, that is, as in constant motion, change, transformation, development, a continuous whole.

Impressive as the Phenomenology was for its dialectical method of analyzing history as a process of change involving a myriad of elements, all of which are in flux yet internally connected, Karl Marx criticized Hegel (a) for being idealistic by conceptualizing an idea—Absolute Spirit, that is, God—as being the moving force of history rather than people and (b) for being politically conservative by conceptualizing the Prussian state (of which Hegel was a privileged member) as the manifestation of the perfect form of the Absolute Spirit. To Marx, Hegel used a radical analytical method—dialectics—to reach conservative conclusions. He accused Hegel of being an idealist, while he was a materialist. Marx conceded that Hegel’s dialectics was the basic form of all dialectics but only after it was stripped of its mystified form. In his great work Capital, Marx sought to invert Hegel’s worldview by showing that people—rather than ideas—made and transformed history.

Though he stripped Hegel’s dialectical method of its mystified form, Marx still essentially retained its overall vision of a totality and its method of analyzing this totality through its parts. Marx’s method begins with the whole, the system, or as much of it as one understands, and then proceeds to an examination of the part to see where it fits and how it functions, leading eventually to a full understanding of the whole. Central to Marx’s analysis is the argument that contradiction is the structuring principle of capitalism, and so a dialectical analysis works to explain these contradictions. The purpose of Marx’s dialectical analysis of capitalism, however, was not only to describe it as a whole and in its parts but also to transform it through praxis, that is, practical action informed by theory.

At this point, it is possible to bring together key words and passages from what has been written here about dialectical inquiry to solidify a general notion of its purpose and method. Dialectical inquiry opposes the “static view” of the world of metaphysics with a view of the natural, historical, intellectual world as “a process, that is, as in constant motion, change, transformation, development,” and the attempt is made to trace out the internal connection that makes a continuous whole of all this movement and development. In this world of constant change, “contradiction is the structuring principle,” creating many conflicts, inequalities, and injustices for people. To analyze the phenomena of the world, dialectical research “begins with the whole, the system, or as much of it as one
understands, and then proceeds to an examination of the part to see where it fits and how it functions, leading eventually to a full understanding of the whole” from which one has begun. This full understanding can lead to the changing of circumstances and of human activity or self-changing—that is, revolutionary praxis.

Though Marx’s *Capital* is arguably the exemplar of a dialectical inquiry, it certainly is not the only well-known dialectical inquiry, and in the field of education perhaps the best known example is that of Paulo Freire’s *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. In this classic work, Freire describes the project he directed of engaging in a dialectical method of developing critical literacy among the (print-based) illiterate peasant workers in Brazil in the early 1960s. Freire’s program sought to bring about a critical consciousness in those involved so that they would (a) develop a full understanding of the capitalistic forces and structures that shaped and controlled their lives in oppressive ways and (b) realize that they had the creative, intellectual, and collective capacities to challenge these structures and forces through praxis. Other classic examples of a dialectical inquiry applied in education are Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis’s *Schooling in Capitalist America* and Michael Apple’s *Ideology and Curriculum*.

—James Trier

See also critical race theory; critical theory; determinism, sociocultural; economics, theories of; philosophies of education; social capital

**Further Readings and References**


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**DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION**

Differentiated instruction is an educational philosophy predicated on the belief that students are individuals who differ according to personal interests, learning styles, and levels of readiness; therefore, teachers should plan for, develop, and adjust curriculum, instruction, and assessment according to student variance. Although the term *differentiated instruction* (commonly referred to as DI) is relatively new to education, this way of thinking about teaching and learning has been around at least as long as the one-room schoolhouse, where teachers expected and created curriculum for students whose ages, abilities, and backgrounds varied in their classrooms. Today, public schooling is rarely organized to be responsive to unique individual learner needs and strengths. Most students are likely to encounter a standardized and stratified system of schooling and a classroom teacher who gears curriculum and instruction for groups of “second graders” or “geometry students.” Differentiated instruction—where time, student grouping, modes of teaching, and other classroom elements are flexible—stands in stark contrast to a one-size-fits-all approach to teaching and learning.

Students vary in at least three ways that make the modification of curriculum, instruction, and assessment through differentiated instruction an imperative. Learners differ according to readiness (their developmental and cognitive capacity to work with a specific idea or type of concept at a particular time), interest (in their innate curiosity to engage in particular activities or topics), and learning profile (their style of learning, unique talents, and cultural heritage). Whether studying ancient Greece, parts of a cell, or the times tables, to differentiate instruction teachers must explicitly honor and address student differences through curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Differentiated instruction integrates four essential pedagogical elements: rigorous concept-based curriculum, varied and ongoing assessment, range of instructional strategies, and cultivation of classroom community.

**RIGOROUS CONCEPT-BASED CURRICULUM**

A high-quality curriculum is clear about what is essential for students to know, understand, and be able to do. Schooling is increasingly emphasizing (and attempting to do so with greater precision with standards) what students should know and be able to do but are often less clear about what students should understand as a result of this knowing and doing. Schools often overprescribe what students should
know and be able to do at the expense of deep and sustained understanding. Differentiated instruction insists that educators make explicit how the facts and skills being taught connect to a conceptual framework. This emphasis on concept-based understanding deepens learning and enables students to transfer knowledge between subjects, grades, and contexts. With differentiated instruction, learning is the constant and time becomes the variable. Proponents of differentiated instruction point out that many teachers face unrealistic curricular demands that require them to race through a course’s content in order to “cover” the curriculum. Teaching for understanding requires a flexible pace, one that takes the time to make sure students are constructing lasting knowledge.

**VARIED AND ONGOING ASSESSMENT**

Assessment and instruction are inseparable in a differentiated classroom; varied and ongoing assessments help teachers understand how well students are learning, so they can adjust their instruction accordingly. Assessment in a differentiated classroom strives to help teachers know their students well—academically, socially, and emotionally. Differentiated instruction embraces pre-, formative, and postassessments and encourages assessment for learning. Traditional grading practices that emphasize norm-referenced, numerical/letter-only-based reporting of student achievement do not readily align with the principles of differentiated instruction. Differentiated instruction necessitates the use of ongoing and instruction-embedded criterion-referenced assessment. Teachers who differentiate recognize the need to regularly utilize descriptive diagnostic feedback tools such as rubrics and other more authentic forms of assessment.

**RANGE OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES**

Teachers who differentiate instruction alternate modes of instruction to accommodate the different ways people learn. Incorporating learning styles, multiple intelligences, and motivation theory, the differentiated classroom utilizes a wide repertoire of instructional strategies to keep students interested and challenged. Students in a differentiated classroom learn how to work within and outside of their preferred learning styles, which fosters metacognitive dissonance and teaches students to become critically aware of their own learning. Some of these strategies require little preparation; others require a significant investment of planning time. Effective teachers who practice differentiated instruction will employ instructional strategies that are often not congruent with their personal and preferred style of learning.

**CULTIVATION OF CLASSROOM COMMUNITY**

Differentiated classrooms are designed to maximize learning by making sure that students feel safe, respected, and challenged. Teachers who differentiate instruction understand that creating and sustaining a learning community is a critical, never-ending campaign. Differentiated classrooms are clear and emphatic about the importance of a positive learning community, so they are explicit about beliefs that inform classroom norms: people learn differently, much learning occurs through social interaction, people construct new knowledge by building on their current knowledge, learning is developmental, a positive emotional climate strengthens learning, and the total environment influences learning. The creation and cultivation of classroom community is the energy that fuels the capacity for differentiated instruction.

**TOMLINSON’S FRAMEWORK FOR DIFFERENTIATING INSTRUCTION**

Carol Ann Tomlinson, the leading pioneer of differentiated instruction, proposes a conceptual framework that can assist teachers in their efforts to adjust their process (how they are teaching), content (what they are teaching), and product (what the students create) according to students’ readiness, interests, and learner profiles.

**Differentiating the Process**

Process is the means through which the learner comes to understand and make sense of the most essential concepts, facts, and skills of the content or subject being studied. Teachers can greatly vary the activities in which individual students engage to encounter the concepts, facts, and skills to reach a common learning goal. The process or activity can include varying levels of difficulty or include a great degree of student choice to reflect individual interests. Differentiated classrooms can encourage exploration of key concepts through a choice of competitive, cooperative, and independent processes and may
include an array of kinesthetic, auditory, and visual activities in a learning environment with flexible physical spaces and arrangements. Teachers can also differentiate the process of instruction by adjusting the degree of difficulty of an assignment to provide an individualized level of challenge.

**Differentiating the Product**

The products, items, or artifacts that students create in order to demonstrate learning can be differentiated. An effective culminating product causes individual students to reconsider what they have learned, to apply their knowledge and skills in creative and engaging ways, and to demonstrate what they have come to know in relation to core/essential understandings. Teachers can differentiate learning products by encouraging student choice in the design of the product, encouraging the use of a variety of resources in preparing products, using a wide array of assessments, developing high-quality rubrics, and finding valid alternatives to traditional classroom grading practices. In addition, teachers can provide an individualized level of challenge by differentiating the degree of difficulty it takes to produce a specific formative or culminating assignment.

**Differentiating the Content**

The content of a unit of study consists of the facts, principles, and skills related to a particular subject. Although not absolute, it is most often true that all students in a differentiated classroom will encounter and be expected to understand an essential body of knowledge, skills, and understandings. In a differentiated classroom, the key facts, core concepts, and essential material are clear and limited; students are not expected to demonstrate understanding on more than a small percentage of the enormous body of knowledge that exists for every subject area. Teachers must be adept at deciphering the difference between essential knowledge and skills and what knowledge and skills are just worth being familiar with. When teachers identify a limited body of knowledge, skills, and understandings—the essentials—the curriculum becomes flexible and responsive to individual learners. Teachers can purposefully expose individual students to interesting but nonessential content as they gain access to and come to understand the core learning. Teachers can differentiate content by using particular texts/manipulatives with some, but not all, learners, offering a choice in what to read or study, and using a variety of mediums (such as software programs, written texts, video/digital recordings) to convey key concepts to varied learners. When the essentials are clear and limited, there are an inordinate number of ways to vary the content of instruction in order to provide an individualized level of challenge and personalized learning experience for all students.

**THE CHALLENGE OF DIFFERENTIATED INSTRUCTION**

Differentiated instruction challenges the very assumptions that have underpinned over a century of public schooling in the United States and as such represents a vivid alternative to the ways that many schools approach curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Undifferentiated classrooms tend to include homogeneous student groupings in which the teacher provides content through limited modalities and students receive knowledge passively and separately. Although few people disagree with the philosophy of differentiated instruction—that teachers should adjust their instruction to meet the needs of more students—critics point to what they see as an inherent flaw: teachers do not have the time to implement such a comprehensive and individualized approach to teaching. Unlike our international counterparts in Japan and elsewhere who spend a much greater degree of time working with peers to plan for and evaluate their instruction, public school teachers in the United States spend the majority of their time working alone in the act of instruction, with little or no time dedicated to the type of planning that differentiated instruction requires. Despite this, though, differentiated instruction has gained broad acceptance in the United States and enthusiastic responses from teachers who appreciate the attendant tools that help them meet the needs and capitalize on the strengths of a wider range of students.

Differentiated instruction has entered the longstanding fray between supporters of tracking or homogeneous grouping and advocates of flexible or heterogeneous grouping. Many parents, especially those with “high-performing students,” worry that heterogeneously grouped classrooms may threaten the accelerated courses that seem to serve their children so well. Conversely, parents of students who struggle with the “traditional” approach to teaching embrace differentiated instruction as far more appropriate and equitable means to do business. The debate over how
best to group students is also alive and well among educators. It’s clear that differentiated instruction is challenging the status quo and stimulating communities to consider new and creative ways to achieve the public schools’ twin goals of equity and excellence.

Some argue that the current political climate in the United States, fueled by the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation, which aims to improve schools by holding them accountable through widespread administration and reporting of standardized student performance tests, is a barrier or roadblock to differentiated instruction. Skeptics wonder how can a differentiated approach to instruction survive in a climate of high-stakes testing? Proponents of differentiated instruction question the efficacy of NCLB’s premise that the use of high-stakes standardized tests will lead to increased student achievement; however, they support its overarching goal to meet the needs of all learners. To some, differentiated instruction has become an educational imperative. Faced with legislative pressure to increase student performance, schools are compelled to attend to the varying needs of all children—which is to say that an increasing number of educators are differentiating instruction in order to leave no child behind.

—Bill Rich and Rebecca Gajda

See also child development theories; classroom management; cognition, theories of; constructivism; creativity, theories of; critical thinking; cultural capital; curriculum, theories of; differentiation of stimuli; early childhood education; grades, of students; individual differences, in children; intelligence; literacy, theories of; measurement, theories of; motivation, theories of; personality; self-actualization; time-on-task; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING

The differentiated teaching staff concept emerged in the mid-1960s as a movement to (a) find ways to deal with critical teacher shortages in selected curricular areas, (b) find some way of breaking away from the lockstep salary schedule without resorting to merit pay, and (c) creating within the teaching profession room for a talented teacher to remain a teacher without having to leave the classroom for school administration.

One of the earliest proponents of differentiated staffing was Dwight Allen, then a young professor at Stanford University. Allen proposed a four-level structure comprised of different offices and roles for classroom teachers. He envisioned places for associate teachers, staff teachers, senior teachers, and professors. The first two levels would be hired on a 10-month contract, the second two on a 12-month contract. Allen proffered three essential conditions for a model of differentiated staffing: (1) a minimum of three differentiated teaching levels, each having a different salary range, (2) a maximum salary at the top teaching category that was at least double the maximum at the lowest, and (3) substantial direct teaching responsibility for all teachers at all salary levels, including those in the top brackets.

In 1969 Allen’s model, with some modifications, was implemented in the Temple City, California, school system under the leadership of its farsighted superintendent, M. John Rand. The Temple City plan was modified and became an exemplar for the nation. Renamed the career ladder plan, it was first installed in Tennessee under the leadership of Governor Lamar Alexander. By 1985, 31 states had enacted some form of legislation aimed at creating teacher career ladders. The Southern Regional Education Board even created a Career Ladder Clearinghouse to network the career ladder movement.
One of the most critical issues with installing a differentiated staff or career ladder plan was the necessity to grandfather some teachers who were overpaid for their responsibilities. As a differentiated staff was put into place, some teachers with greater seniority than their placement would permit were making more than the salary range specified. For a differentiated staffing plan to function within about the same costs, it was eventually going to have to place a cap on the number of teachers who could be placed in the top ranks. After grandfathering, it was estimated at least 40% of the teachers would be in the associate teacher category, 30% in the staff teacher placement, 18% in the senior teacher position, and only 12% in the master teacher category. Thus, to put into place the new staffing system, staffing costs were higher initially and remained higher until all those teachers who were overpaid for their rank had retired or left the school system.

Other problems with the differentiated staffing/career ladder concept was that unless the school structure and scheduling system were altered, the school could not easily take advantage of the new duties teachers could or would be performing. For this reason, flexible scheduling became a necessary ingredient to fully utilize the benefits of the differentiated staff. Flexible scheduling changed school routines in fundamental ways and encountered parental resistance when students were not in traditional classrooms all day long, somewhat akin today with concerns raised with block scheduling.

Perhaps the most niggling issue with the differentiated staff was its avoidance of the merit pay issue, that is, increased salary came with increased job differentiation instead of pure performance. An outstanding teacher who did not want to work 12 months and be a senior teacher was still boxed in to a pay plan that did not match his or her abilities. For this reason, some of the career ladder plans tried to incorporate some aspect of performance in placement within the career ladder. The second problem largely unresolved was that differentiated staffing plans were unable to be market sensitive. If the overall plan was unappealing to a physics teacher who could make more money in the private sector, placement was still a problem if all teachers were required to spend time as an associate teacher before moving up. The issue of fast tracking superior performers or potential teachers in curricula areas of great shortage was rarely addressed in career ladder plans. Finally, many state plans died off because of the lack of promised funding to maintain the steps on the ladder.

While the idea of differentiated roles for instructional personnel in schools is much more accepted today than before, mostly with the large infusion of teaching aides in schools, the inherent problems with inflexible organizational structures in personnel utilization, and the inability of the teaching profession to remain competitive with a beginning wage, continue to haunt the question of teacher quality in much the same way as they did a half century ago. While the idea of a career in school teaching remains a goal for many school reformers, the means to reach it are not yet realizable within the political/economic/organizational constraints that remain firmly lodged in public education tradition and practice.

—Fenwick W. English

See also bureaucracy; career development; career stages; infrastructure, of organizations; innovation, in education; job descriptions; leadership, theories of; management theories; merit pay; professional development; role conflict; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; scheduling, types of in schools; staffing, concepts of; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References


DIFFERENTIATION OF STIMULI

The basic assumption of learning theories is that behavior is learned, regardless of how the learning takes place. The essential components of learning are stimulus (s) and response (r) bonds. Then what is a stimulus? It is a form of energy that an organism is able to recognize and respond to. Positive reinforcement involves the presentation of a pleasant stimulus followed by a response, and negative reinforcement is created when an unpleasant stimulus is removed following a response.
There are several types of learning, including (a) differentiation of stimuli, signal learning or classical conditioning, (b) stimulus-response learning or operant conditioning, (c) chaining, and (d) verbal association. The differentiation of stimuli is sometimes referred to as signal learning or classical conditioning. These types of learning are based on the work of Ivan Pavlov, the famous learning psychologist, who indicated that learning is associating an available response to a new signal or stimulus. An example of differentiation of stimuli, signal learning, or classical conditioning is when a dog runs to the kitchen because he hears food being placed in his dish. Another example of this type of learning is when a dog salivates in response to the signal of a buzzer. These are both voluntary and involuntary responses to the differentiation of stimuli, signal learning, or classical conditioning. This can be understood by discussing what happens when a puff of air is delivered to the cornea of an individual’s eye. The eye blinks rapidly. The blinking represents an unconditioned reflex, meaning this action is not conditioned by any previous learning. If a click is sounded, just before the puff of air is applied to the cornea of the eye, we have created an opportunity for a learned connection to occur. If this sequence of events is repeated several times, it is possible to demonstrate the existence of a new learned connection, which is represented by the signal of the click. In response, the eye blinks, even without the presence of the puff of air.

As mentioned earlier, the differentiation of stimuli or signal learning is also referred to as classical conditioning. In classical conditioning, a change from dichotomous to dimensional interpretations is useful in explaining patterns of results from experiments using different types of stimuli and responses in classical conditioning procedures. In the procedure in question, one stimulus (the CS) is presented followed by a second stimulus (the US), so the onset of the CS predicts the onset of the US. In this situation, the interval of time between the onset of the CS and the onset of the US must be very brief if conditioning is to occur. An example of this is flavor avoidance in animals. The CS is a substance applied to the tongue of the animal. The CS produces a taste and then is followed by the application of another substance to the animal, US. The application of US makes the animal sick. If the relationship between the applications of CS and US are arranged so that the onset of CS predicts the onset of the US, an association will be formed. Because of the relationship between CS and US, the animal will avoid substances that taste like CS. Thus, the differentiation of stimuli, signal, and classical conditioning can be used to promote learning in animals and even in humans.

—Richard C. Hunter

See also child development theories; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; early childhood education; esteem needs; learning, theories of; metacognition; motivation, theories of; neuroscience; personality; philosophies of education; psychology, types of; special education

Further Readings and References


**DIGITAL DIVIDE**

The concept of the digital divide was created by a U.S. government report in 1994 titled Falling Through the Net, which was made public by the National Telecommunications and Information Administration. Accordingly, a variety of individuals and agencies have speculated that technology will become the force that divides society into the haves and have-nots based on access as a measure of individual wealth. Since wealth already divides the nation along racial and ethnic lines, a further widening of this gap would be deleterious to the social fabric of the country.

In 1998, President Clinton observed Netday in an effort to bring attention to the need to connect classrooms and libraries to the Internet. Data gathered by the Pew Internet and American Life Project in 2003 discovered that 63% of all adult Americans use the Internet. A huge majority (87%) accessed the Internet from their home computers, while 48% also accessed it from workplaces. Preliminary data also appear to indicate that use of computers increases as income rises. The Pew Internet project showed that of ethnic groups whose income was lower than $20,000 per year, African Americans reported the lowest use of the Internet compared to a higher rate for Hispanics and Whites.
A growing international concern about the digital divide was observed by the United Nations in 2005, which initiated the Digital Solidarity Fund to support projects that addressed the uneven development and use of information technologies worldwide.

However, critics contend that the gap between the use of computers is indicative of a much deeper problem. It is related to education (literacy) and general poverty. If one cannot read or has no electricity in a home, the use of technology with computers is not likely to help. Such critics indicate that an investment in mobile phone technology is a much better utilization of resources than computers. The Economist noted in 2005 that the gap between countries with good mobile phone networks or poor is closing quickly. Seventy-seven percent of the world’s population lives within the range of a mobile phone system. The United Nations has set a goal of 50% access to phone networks by 2015. Research conducted on the impact of mobile phone networks has suggested that an increase of 10 mobile phones per 100 persons enhances GDP growth by 0.6 percentage points.

Nonetheless, the use of computers and access to the Internet are important factors to consider in providing curricular equality within an educational program in schools.

—Fenwick W. English

See also at-risk students; cognition, theories of; computers, use and impact of; critical race theory; economics, theories of; learning environments; resiliency; technology and the law

Further Readings and References


## DISABILITIES, OF STUDENTS

The educational rights of students with disabilities are governed primarily by two federal statutes: Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act (Section 504) (29 USCA § 794(a)) and the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (20 USCA §§ 1400 et seq.). Prior to the enactment of these laws, many states overlooked the educational needs of children with disabilities.

### SECTION 504 OF THE REHABILITATION ACT OF 1973

Section 504 declares that “no otherwise qualified individual with a disability in the United States . . . shall, solely by reason of her or his disability, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance.” Section 504 differs from the IDEA in six major ways. First, while Section 504 applies to school systems that receive federal financial assistance, whether, for example, in the form of money, books, or free lunches, they do not receive additional funds under its provisions as do boards that serve children who qualify for IDEA services. Second, Section 504 protects individuals under the broader notion of impairment rather than the IDEA’s reliance on the concept of disability. Third, Section 504 has no age limitation. Fourth, the IDEA includes more extensive procedural due process provisions than Section 504. Fifth, Section 504 covers students, employees, and others, including parents, while the IDEA focuses on the rights of children. Sixth, as described below, Section 504 offers defenses that are not available under the IDEA.

According to Section 504, an individual with a disability is one “who (i) has a physical or mental impairment which substantially limits one or more of such person’s major life activities, (ii) has a record of such an impairment, or (iii) is regarded as having such an impairment.” In order to have a record of impairment, one must have a history of, or been identified as having, a mental or physical impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities, including schooling. Once a student is identified as having an impairment, educators must consider whether the child is “otherwise qualified.”

In order to be “otherwise qualified,” children must be “(i) of an age during which nonhandicapped persons are provided such services, (ii) of any age during which it is mandatory under state law to provide such services to handicapped persons, or
In order to be eligible for IDEA services, children must meet three criteria. First, they must be between the ages of 3 and 21. Second, students must have a specifically identified disability. Third, they must be in need of special education, meaning that children must be in need of a free appropriate education in the least restrictive environment that is directed by an individualized education program (IEP). As children near graduation or begin to use up their eligibility for special education, educators must develop individualized transition services plans to promote their movement to postschool activities.

IEPs must describe students’ current levels of educational performance, annual goals and short-term objectives, the specific services they will receive, the extent to which they can take part in general education, the date services are to begin and how long they will be offered for, and criteria to evaluate whether they are achieving their goals. IEPs must also discuss how students’ disabilities affect their ability to be involved in and progress in inclusive settings and necessary modifications to allow them to take part in the general curriculum. In addition, IEPs must detail related services that students need to benefit from their IEPs.

The IDEA includes extensive due process protections to safeguard the rights of students. Among these protections, educators must provide parents with notice and obtain their consent prior to evaluating or placing children. Parents also have the right to take part in developing the IEPs of their children. Once students are placed in special education, school officials must notify parents before trying to change their placements. IEPs must be reviewed at least annually, and children must be reevaluated completely at least every 3 years. However, a provision in the recently reauthorized IDEA allows up to 15 states to pilot comprehensive multiyear IEPs that do not exceed 3 years and that are designed to coincide with natural transition points in a child’s education. The IDEA also includes provisions, supplemented by the Family Education Rights and Privacy Act (29 USCA § 1232g) protecting the confidentiality of all information used in the evaluation, placement, and education of students.

—Charles J. Russo

See also cognition, theories of; conditioning theory; creativity, theories of; critical race theory; dropouts; early childhood education; individual differences, in children; mainstreaming and inclusion; neuroscience; special education

Further Readings and References

Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) (20 U.S.C.A. §§ 1400 et seq.).

Individuals With Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004, PL 108-446, 118.


Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, 29 USCA § 794(a).

DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOLS

Discipline in schools is often defined as school/state pupil control measures. Discipline is a product of training that produces specific character or behavior grounded in some moral or mental improvement. In schools as in society or any organized social environment, people have to agree upon some standard, behavior, or rules of interaction. Public schools form a society that is organized to transmit society’s culture. Schools are societies of large numbers, mostly minors, who come together every day for 180 days a year to train to become literate citizens. School environments are efficiently and effectively governed and managed to produce tomorrow’s citizens. Schools manage students today who will be good citizens tomorrow; consequently, the state and the school have come up with discipline policies or rules of behavior for students. In participatory school governance, parents and sometimes even students have a voice in the development of the rules that govern student discipline.

In the era of zero tolerance, states have developed elaborate discipline policies that define every infraction for which a student may or must be removed from school. The 1994 Gun-Free Schools Act provided the impetus for mandatory student expulsions and suspensions by conditioning federal aid to the schools upon the state’s adoption of policies for 1 year to remove students who bring weapons to school and a policy to report these students to law enforcement authorities. States require that local districts define every level of discipline infraction and the actions that school administrators may or must take in the district student code of conduct. Most schools are also required to develop a student code of conduct, which is distributed to each parent. For example, a large urban district in Texas establishes district expectations in student behavior, student responsibilities, student rights, district policies, student misconduct, and five levels of student misconduct and consequences. Level 1 acts are violations of classroom rules that can be corrected by the teacher. Level 2 acts are more serious offenses that require administrative intervention. Level 3 acts are serious disruptions of the educational process and lead to suspension or optional removal from the classroom and the school into a disciplinary alternative educational program on or off the home campus. Level 4 offenses are criminal offenses that require removal to an off-campus disciplinary alternative education program. Level 5 offenses are the most severe misconduct offenses and require expulsion to a disciplinary alternative education program or to a juvenile justice program.

In the post-Columbine era of zero tolerance, issues of student behavior, like persistent misbehavior, have become grounds for student removal. Issues of persistent misbehavior, cigarettes, alcohol, drugs, guns, and teen violence have motivated state juvenile agents to cross over from state juvenile crime governance to school crime governance. In some states, the state family code requires that student information and a statement of the alleged delinquent conduct be reported to the county juvenile board. State family code may also require that no students be expelled without notifying the county juvenile board. State education codes have provided designated “law and order” sections to cover issues of school discipline.

—Augustina Reyes

See also adolescence; affective education; at-risk students; behaviorism; belonging; Black education; brain research and practice; bullying; dropouts; esteem needs; expulsion, of students; learning, theories of; mental illness, in adults and children; motivation, theories of; suicide, in schools; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


DISCRIMINATION

Despite laws to the contrary, race-gender discrimination continues in public education, and theorists credit its occurrence to ideologies, principles, and paradigms related to such practices as zero-tolerance policies, ability grouping, and overrepresentation in special education. Comparable educational laws and policies aimed
to protect lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) students fail to exist in many public schools and have been linked to a host of physical, verbal, and emotional abuse. Overall, a need exists in the literature to further explore these positions of discrimination.

*Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954 set the tone for antidiscriminatory practices in U.S. public schools. The outcome of this landmark lawsuit was not an end discussion about educational equality. For example, the 1972 Congress passed the Civil Rights Act-Title IX to prohibit sexual-racial discrimination in public education for the protection of the equipment of students and students. Despite the act’s specific language, the courts did not equate work-related sexual harassment as illegal discrimination until 1986 and student-to-student sexual harassment until the early 1990s.

Theorists note practices today that suggest the continuation of discrimination. They consider color-blind ideology as one reason. The underlying notion is that highly segregated neighborhoods result in minimal to no contact with other races. It forces majority individuals to denounce their roles as roadblocks or contributors to racial equality. The rank-and-file theory is a second noted reason. It posits that discrimination is the byproduct of beliefs about minorities’ inferior abilities, as were expressed during the Jim Crow period. A third theory includes the correspondence principle, used to justify discrimination in schools to match societal structures in the outside world. Supporters of the principle consider it important for students to experience the social disparities that will comprise their future adult worlds. Theorists suggest that minority youth self-impose the correspondence principle when they pressure themselves to form identities opposite of perceived majority identities. A final theory includes structural paradigms that create physical-mental discrimination. Examples include school practices and policies aimed against nonmajority students. Theorists articulate these and other reasons as responses to the presence of school discrimination.

The literature describes present-day discrimination and how it manifests itself. One cited cause includes overreliance on test scores to define and evaluate students’ abilities. Achievement tests are said to ignore cultural implications and reflect the majorities’ interests and agendas. An additional contention equates biased achievement tests with disproportionate placement of minority students into low-level ability tracks-curricula programs. A second cited cause is the implementation of zero-tolerance policies that emerged in public education after President Bill Clinton signed the *Gun-Free Schools Act* in 1994. Since the act’s inception, researchers reported greater law enforcement and disproportionate policy sanctions at schools with high minority enrollments. A third cited cause is alleged practices of disproportionate placements into special education that include African American males, Hispanic males, and Native American males and females. Researchers referred to special education census data to support their positions. They included data that counted youth with academic needs associated with learning disabilities. The literature provides two reasons for the discrepancy. First, educators may refer nondisabled minority students for special education consideration based on perceptions that the students learn and behave in ways that differ from the majority population. Second, educators may falsely conclude that systemic issues (e.g., poverty, lack of housing) among minority populations may predispose these students to learning disabilities.

Researchers also revealed that out-of-school suspensions were greatest among minority students, except Asian and Pacific Islander youth. Common reasons for suspensions among majority students were possessions of weapons and illegal drugs. Common reasons for suspensions among minority students were the youth’s dispositions that educators judged as threats and disrespectful.

The literature further describes present-day discrimination among LGBT youth. It reports an estimated 10% LGBT prevalence in public schools and provides examples of discrimination that the population endures that result from exclusionary practices. The omission of inservice training and discussion about LGBT issues precludes educators’ awareness about the physical and emotional abuse that LGBT have reported as part of their educational experiences.

The literature discusses lack of policies and unawareness about LGBT issues as reasons why certain educators have chosen to overlook verbal abuse (e.g., students using the term *faggot*). In these situations, educators have reported fears of retribution from parents and administrators who equate intervention on behalf of LGBT youth as sustaining immoral values. For similar reasons, they self-reported their unwillingness to discuss or infuse LGBT issues into academic or extracurricular activities.

Educators’ ignorance of LGBT issues may force youth who question their sexual orientations to not fully understand and/or embrace their identities. The
literature reports that most LGBT youth confirm their sexual orientations at age 16. Developmental adolescence psychology equates this age with the onset of adolescent transition into adulthood. Without adequate role models, honest discussion of sexual orientation, and lack of policies that affirm the well-being of all sexual identities, LGBT youth may be denied the resources and encouragements necessary for full maturation into adulthood. Thus, researchers liken systemic exclusionary school practices to discrimination.

Continued research about the causes and manifestations of discrimination is needed to fully understand this complex phenomenon. The field of special education would benefit from empirical studies that determine the extent that individual characteristics (e.g., gender) and sociocultural factors (e.g., poverty) affect the determination of disabilities among overrepresented individuals in special education programs. Research needs to explore the reality of racial isolation in certain suburban communities. It also needs to incorporate personal narratives and self-reflections from scholars’ experiences of racial identity and discrimination in school. Finally, research needs to account for the positive experiences LGBT youth report in schools to better understand conditions that counter discrimination toward this population.

—John Palladino

See also adolescence; affirmative action; at-risk students; Black education; bullying; civil rights movement; desegregation, of schools; gender studies, in educational leadership; homophobia; Latinos; multiculturalism; sexism (glass ceiling); sexuality, theories of; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


DISEQUILIBRIUM, THEORIES OF

Jean Piaget, one of the most influential epistemologists of the twentieth century, proposed his theory of disequilibrium in conjunction with the manner in which individuals acquire knowledge. In support of his theories on the cognitive development of children and adults, Piaget proposed several facets of growth through which every individual makes meaning and adapts to his or her surroundings. The processes of assimilation and accommodation and the role of schemata combine to support the role of equilibration and disequilibrium in the cognitive growth of individuals.

As individuals progress through life, they adapt to the organization of the physical environments that surround them. Originally beginning his research in the biological world, Piaget later applied his observations of simple organisms to the cognitive processes of humans, noting that in similar fashion, cognitive acts are also acts of organization and adaptation to perceived environments. In the same way that the human body has physical structures that perform specific functions, Piaget also believed that the mind created and maintained similar structures. He noted these cognitive structures as schemata and further classified them as mental structures by which individuals adapt to and organize the environment. Schemata are often clarified by the notion that they serve as concepts or categories within the human mind that are used to classify and process incoming information or stimuli. The concept of schema theory is that incoming stimuli (information) is fit into a certain schema (or category). As stimuli are taken in, they are classified into schemata that already contain information of similar content or characteristic. The processes by which the stimuli are organized into schemata are known as assimilation and accommodation.

The process of assimilation is dependent on the assumption that existing schemata are present, as is the case of any individual from birth onward. Through assimilation, an individual integrates new information (stimuli) into preconceived ways of thinking about the surrounding environment. The person processing stimuli imposes his or her available schemata structures on the information. Consequently, the stimuli are “forced” to fit the person’s existing cognitive structures. The existing ways of thinking, which we now know as schemata, take in new perceptual matter similar to the manner in which a balloon takes in air. As assimilation occurs and information is taken in, the balloon (schema) grows but does not change shape or characteristic.
Assimilation allows for the growth of the amount of information within a schema but does not account for the changes that occur to that schema as a result of the intake of information. At times, the characteristics of the existing schemata will not allow a new incoming stimulus to be processed. Consequently, the process of accommodation allows for a modification of the existing schemata in order to better process incoming stimuli. Essentially, the individual is forced to change his or her ways of thinking (schemata), adjusting to new experiences or objects by revising or altering entirely the prior method of processing.

The processes of assimilation and accommodation are necessary for the development of cognitive structures. In addition to the simple existence and use of these processes is the equally important aspect of the amounts of assimilation and accommodation that take place within an individual. This balance between assimilation and accommodation, commonly referred to as equilibrium, occurs when an individual has effectively used the environment to learn but also learned to adjust to changes in the environment. The process of seeking equilibrium, or melding assimilation and accommodation, is the journey toward harmony between the self and the environment.

While equilibration is often looked upon as a final outcome, it is from the process of disequilibrium that an individual grows intellectually. If a person attains equilibration regarding an idea, a time in his or her life, or a given situation, then he or she is not driven to question or to act further in light of that given scenario. Disequilibrium, or the conflict that occurs within one’s cognitive processes, happens when an individual’s expectations or predictions are not confirmed by experience. This discrepancy between what an individual expects and what actually occurs is a signal that the existing schemata are not in balance with the new experiences. Piaget maintains that the growth of knowledge is a result of this imbalance between what an individual knows (existing schemata) and new experiences (incoming stimuli). When disequilibrium occurs, it serves to motivate the individual to seek equilibration, to further assimilate and accommodate information, and to grow cognitively.

As an illustration, imagine a person who has always considered Christianity to be the only credible and relevant religion in the world. Through the forum of a college classroom, the person assimilates new knowledge regarding other religions in the world. Consequently, this person begins to experience disequilibrium as he or she realizes that there are many viewpoints, beliefs, and similarities throughout the world’s religious platforms that he or she now perceives as credible as well. As a result of the assimilation of new information, this person is experiencing an imbalance between old ways of thinking and the new information he or she has assimilated. This person will continue to experience this disequilibrium until he or she accommodates or changes the prior schema regarding Christianity as the only credible religion.

—Benjamin Dotger

See also cognition, theories of; constructivism; creativity, theories of; individual differences, in children; life span development; philosophies of education; Piaget, Jean; problem solving

Further Readings and References


DIVERSITY

“Multiculturalism.” “Pluralism.” “Variety.” “Diversity.” Whatever the label, there is little doubt that as a society, we are rapidly confronting issues of social and cultural difference. In all aspects of life—from personal finances (diverse portfolio), to the environment (biodiversity), to the foods we eat (Mesclun salads), to the research methods we utilize (mixed methods)—the notion of “difference” is generally viewed as a healthy and positive attribute. Therefore, it comes as no surprise that our business and education leaders are often called to “embrace differences,” to “think outside the box,” and to entertain different ideas and perspectives that foster “democratic” communities.

As a whole, there is no widespread reservation about the prospect and promise of diversity. Generally
speaking, most would agree it is something every individual and/or organization should endorse. Its benefits are widely praised in the leadership and organizational literature, and its importance and relevance to all aspects of social functioning is certainly not considered inconsequential. The extensive appeal of diversity is applauded—by progressives and conservatives alike—in all areas of society and in most forms of social and organizational functioning. In this regard, the notion of diversity has fast become a normalized and universally accepted issue.

Despite the fact that a multitude of variables could potentially fall under its broad umbrella, the term often lacks a tangible operational definition. Nonetheless, most individuals often restrict its meaning to only a handful of social categories (i.e., race, class, gender), while referencing other identifiers (i.e., ethnicity, disability, sexual orientation, religion, age, marital status, nationality, immigration status, language) on a less frequent basis and/or subsuming them under the former categories. This is not to suggest that these latter categories are less important but to merely highlight those dimensions that are more readily privileged in the broader social discourse. This discursive move, however, tends to ignore other factors that contribute to the human condition while, at the same time, homogenize these dimensions or categories as being unitary and/or unvarying. Moreover, a constrained definition of diversity limits the possibility of multiple factors influencing identity while minimizing the role of human experience, political pressure, and individual differences as key factors in identity formation.

Clearly, no two individuals experience the world in quite the same way—not even those from a “similar” cultural background. Depending on the broader social context, some aspects of identity may be more salient while other aspects may be less prominent or visible. Indeed, identity interacts in complex ways with broader societal constructs such as power, privilege, rights, and civil liberties. This is not to suggest that individuals do not have shared experiences, interests, preferences, or historiographies but simply to recognize that all individuals are multiply positioned in society. Perhaps this is why issues of diversity are becoming increasingly important: they force us to interrogate the intimate relationship between identity, experience, knowledge, and truth. Because people experience the world in unique ways, and because identity is constantly shifting, our knowledge and understanding of the world is always partial, limited, and imperfect at best.

Despite these important insights, most individuals continue to have a rudimentary understanding of diversity. Too often, the focus of diversity is on its superficial and/or innocuous aspects as opposed to its more ethical and political dimensions. To be certain, it is in this latter realm where most of the debates and tensions over diversity occur. It comes as no surprise, therefore, that our approaches to understanding diversity and difference are somewhat limited in scope and breadth.

Part of the blame for this limited understanding rests squarely on the shoulders of schools, as ideologically laden spaces, where students learn about diversity, multiculturalism, and the broader goals of working and living in a pluralistic society. Schools reflect the broader discourse surrounding diversity and inculcate in students powerful messages surrounding multiculturalism and difference. If the messages students receive about diversity focus primarily on sanitized or simplistic notions of difference, then students are not equipped with more robust lessons surrounding the role of power and privilege in society. Therefore, in order to better understand how we come to know about diversity, we must take a look at how schools approach and teach students about this concept.

**APPROACHES TO DIVERSITY AND MULTICULTURALISM**

In most contemporary educational settings, the majority of children quickly learn that diversity ought to be recognized and celebrated. To this extent, schools have made increased efforts to honor and be sensitive to specific holidays, celebrate different cultural traditions, eat foods of various different countries, and read about historical figures that have made a difference in the broader struggle for civil rights. Moreover, schools might also move beyond symbolic celebrations and have students read about the history of slavery, indentured servitude, the Irish potato famine, the Holocaust, or a host of other national and international travesties, and engage students in discussions about compassion, tolerance, respect, appreciation, and acceptance of cultural differences.

These approaches are consistent with the “human relations” approach to diversity and multicultural understanding. Such an approach recognizes diversity
in terms of similarities and differences in order to develop skills that enable us to discern our common humanity as well as acknowledge and appreciate individual differences. It is an approach that is firmly rooted in a civil rights discourse and posits that in an ideal world, people are—and ought to be—“blind” to individual differences. The focus of the human relations approach, as a pedagogical and socializing tool, is on the reduction of negative attitudes, prejudices, and cultural biases that get in the way of cross-cultural understanding and relationship building.

Notwithstanding, it is often a challenge to effectively work with those who are culturally different. Quite often, schools face many challenges in teaching children who are culturally diverse because of their background, language ability, learning style, or learning ability. More often than not, schools see themselves as socializing agents—responsible for helping these students fit into the mainstream of American society and become productive citizens. Because of this orientation, schools and their agents often view culturally different children as deficient and/or having characteristics that are fundamentally different from the norms of the American mainstream. This approach is consistent with the “culturally different” approach to multicultural education.

Under this framework, cultural differences are seen as aberrations in need of remediation. As such, the job of schools and other state apparatuses is to socialize students and equip them with the necessary cultural capital to be successful in school as well as in society. While the educative goal and intent of this approach is grounded in benign compassion, it does presume a lack of skills, talents, resources, and congruity between the student’s home environment and the overall culture of the school. In order to minimize this incongruence, students must adapt and “acculturate” to the surrounding school environment. Clearly, this approach is also problematic.

A third approach for examining diversity views cultural differences as existing within a complex web of oppression and social inequality and suggests there is a need to fundamentally change the larger social order in order to better serve the interests of those who are most marginalized in society. This approach is both emancipatory and critical and views society as actively privileging certain groups, perspectives, and ideas while silencing, marginalizing, and repressing others. In order to redefine power relations and move toward a more socially just society, this approach calls for actions that redistribute power while breaking down those spaces, structures, and apparatuses that maintain power and privilege firmly in place.

Some writers refer to this approach as social reconstructionist. It contends that the current social structures and ideological apparatuses are not suited to address complex issues of diversity and antioppressive movements but rather are used by those in positions of power to squelch dissent, sedate minds, and maintain the status quo firmly in place. Consequently, as moral and ethical agents, this approach asks us to look beyond surface differences in order to interrogate the social and political underpinnings of inequality and construct alternative possibilities for those who are most marginalized in society.

The social reconstructionist approach moves the focus away from issues of diversity and difference and recovers it on broader issues of power, privilege, ideology, and social structures. By unmasking the “hidden” faces of oppression and domination, it aims to expose and unveil power and privilege in their various permutations and reveal a social order that is highly stratified and segmented to benefit those in positions of power. If we focus solely on cultural differences/similarities—as is the focus in the previous two approaches—then we may not move to discussion and action on economic and political inequalities that often prevent us from working across our differences.

As has been stated, a social reconstructionist approach places issues of power and privilege at the center of its discourse. It recognizes the strength of reproduction theories in explaining power relationships in society and forgos simplistic notions of diversity that focus on sanitized understandings of difference. Unlike the “human relations” approach, it does not seek comfort or cross-cultural dialogue; rather, it aims to disrupt simplistic calls for unity that reify power relationships in the larger social order. Unlike the “difference” approach, it does not position marginalized groups as “naturally” or “innately” different; instead, it looks at those structures, ideologies, discourses, and practices that render marginalized groups as secondary citizens in society.

**SUMMARY**

Issues relating to diversity have taken a more central role in the educational discourse in recent years. The three approaches outlined above are but a starting
point for understanding the nuances and complexities of working with those who are culturally different. Clearly, understanding diversity does not begin—or end—with naive celebrations of differences but rests in the nuances of creating schools that respect the differences of all members of the school community, yet also understands that true change is a more complex enterprise that requires/demands a firm understanding and appreciation of the role of power and privilege in the larger social order.

—Gerardo R. López

See also affirmative action; Black education; critical race theory; critical theory; cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; ethnocentrism; global cultural politics; globalization; Latinos; literacy, theories of; minorities, in school; multiculturalism; values of organizations and leadership

Further Readings and References


DIVISION OF LABOR

Scientific managers were not the only theorists to tout the benefits of a division of labor. Classic organizational structure as propounded by late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century German sociologist Max Weber also proposed division of labor as one of five essential attributes of a bureaucracy. In a bureaucracy, division of labor led to specialization and subsequently to credentialing. Credentialing serves the purpose of providing assurance that an individual in a given position possesses the requisite skills to competently carry out the assigned tasks.

Division of labor in industry and in bureaucracies has been criticized for inducing worker boredom through tasks that are too narrowly defined and work that is too repetitive. Boredom reduces efficiency, which is at odds with the outcome a division of labor was intended to produce. Criticism also comes from feminist scholars who criticize bureaucracies as paternalistic, with division of labor serving to disguise the control function of the hierarchy.

Division of labor became a prominent feature of K–12 schooling during the twentieth century; it continues relatively unchanged today. Earlier in the history of U.S. education a single teacher was responsible for teaching children of multiple ages and ability levels to read, write, and figure. The so-called little red school house of the Midwestern prairie is a case in point. As changes in population patterns necessitated the establishment of bigger schools and of school districts, a need for school principals and central office administrators also arose. State laws were passed differentiating the work of teachers from administrators and requiring credentialing for teachers, principals, and other administrators. Credentialing also differentiates elementary from secondary teachers and teachers specializing in one discipline from those in other disciplines.

Specialization and credentialing are consistent with the practice of dividing and distributing work tasks to increase expertise and promote efficiency, as advocated by Taylor and Weber. In education, as in other fields such as medicine, specialization also creates fragmentation. Without structures in place to promote integration across these different areas of credentialing, the division of labor in schools, especially the secondary level, isolates by specialty. This division fosters a lack of understanding about the work and needs of other teachers within the same school. Similarly, principals view their responsibilities as different from those of teachers. Central office
administrators see their responsibilities as different from those of teachers and principals. The effect of this separation is at odds with admonitions of the last 20 years that a single focus on the educational needs of students is needed for maximizing schooling outcomes for all students.

—Dianne L. Taylor

See also attitudes toward work; bureaucracy; capacity building of organizations; chain of command; feminism and theories of leadership; licensure and certification; line and staff concept; management theories; organizational theories; rational organizational theory; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; scientific management; Taylor, Frederick; theory movement, in educational administration; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References

Dogmatism and Scales of Rokeach

Dogmatism describes a person’s unwillingness to respect differences in opinions and beliefs of others. This concept is based on differences in human values and value systems held by individuals and groups that range from agreement to intolerance and bigotry. These values are viewed as ways of living that become principles used to evaluate others as well as themselves. In 1960, Milton Rokeach defined this construct as an illogical belief system named “ideological dogmatism.” Resulting research by Rokeach into the nature of belief and personality systems formed the basis of ideological dogmatism, representing people whose minds were closed to other viewpoints. He then defined a continuum of human values, ranging from a person with an open mind (including moral values) or a person with a closed mind (dogmatic and amoral), including belief structures that tie together a person’s ideological, conceptual, perceptual, and esthetic systems. Expanding his system, Rokeach then extended his ideas to include characteristics of general types of belief systems, including fascism, humanism, and cognitive dissonance. The theory and the findings formed the theoretical basis of perceived dissimilarity of beliefs that formed the theoretical basis of the Rokeach value scale.

SCALES OF ROKEACH

Scales developed by Rokeach transformed his theoretical perspective to use value-measurement principles that led to the development of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) in 1973. This survey continued to be a popular scale of values used worldwide by psychologists, economists, educational researchers, and others. Determining one’s values through the RVS process allows persons to appraise categories of values that include moral and social standards, allowing the creation of guiding principles in their lives. RVS provided insights into human beliefs and behavioral studies, including racial bigotry, social injustice, and political conduct. This process continues to be successful in measuring individual and group value structures and provides adequate measures in group-value structures. More recent studies regarding the use of ratings versus rankings when using the RVS appear to favor the use of value ratings at this time.

Many researchers in the workplace are increasingly disturbed by the social and/or political values of their colleagues who refuse to accept a value-neutral workplace. Difficulties between neutral researchers who interact with their close-minded colleagues are stalemated because a value-free culture is not possible. Using reflexive accounts in qualitative research and providing acknowledgments that any research contains values remains controversial.

—Carole Funk

See also administration, theories of; attitudes; bureaucracy; line and staff concept; locus of control; management theories; principalship; span of control; superintendency; supervision; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References
When Susan Miller Dorsey (1857–1946) was named superintendent of Los Angeles City Schools in 1920, she joined Ella Flagg Young as one of the most successful women in the male-dominated profession of educational administration. The National Education Association recognized her as “the greatest administrative genius in the history of education” in 1929. Her rise to the top of her career was atypical for a woman as she moved through the ranks from classroom teacher to vice principal to the district assistant superintendent. Given her parents’ encouragement of her intellectual curiosity, it is not surprising that she pursued education as a professional goal. But certainly her personal life was part of the impetus for it as well.

Born in the Finger Lakes region of New York to a dairy farmer, James Miller, and his wife, Hannah Benedict, Dorsey was descended from English and Huguenot settlers. She attended public schools and then graduated from Vassar College with a BA in classics in 1877, where she was later inducted into Phi Beta Kappa. She then taught Latin and Greek at Wilson College, a Presbyterian school for women in Pennsylvania, but returned to Vassar in 1878 to serve as an instructor of the classics.

Soon after she and Patrick William Dorsey married in 1881, the couple moved to Los Angeles, where he became the pastor of the First Baptist Church. Susan served as a pastor’s wife while working as a social worker, and she became a charter member of the local chapter of the Women’s Christian Temperance Union. She then became a social welfare worker but returned to teaching at a short-lived Baptist church. Their only child, Paul Howard, was born in 1888, but not 6 years later she was deserted by her husband, who took their young son with him. She corresponded with her son over time but they were never close. While little is known of her personal life, Dorsey was a well-known educator not only in Los Angeles but across the country.

In 1896, Dorsey began teaching classics at Los Angeles High School. By 1902, she was vice principal of the school, and in 1913 she became the assistant superintendent of the district. In 1914, she was elected president of the California Teacher’s Association, and 6 years later she was named superintendent of the Los Angeles Public Schools. At this time, more than 90% of classroom teachers were female and very few of those had moved into top-level positions of districts. Thus, her appointment as superintendent for one of the nation’s largest school systems is of historical significance.

Not only was her appointment significant for the field and women’s history, but her leadership came at an important point for the system, which swelled from just 90,000 students to nearly 222,000 in the 9 years she served as the district’s leader. Dorsey believed that education was to prepare students for their life’s work and to train children to become useful citizens. Therefore, she focused her efforts on assisting the many newcomers who were immigrants from Mexico and did not speak English. Under Dorsey’s leadership, Los Angeles offered programs that Americanized these students. She expanded these offerings into neighborhood schools, she offered the same Americanization course for the adults in evening schools, and she provided district support for the Home Teacher Act.

This law encouraged school districts to provide English and American culture classes in the homes and workplaces for immigrant women. She expanded social services such as school lunch programs and afterschool playgrounds and increased the use of home teachers to provide citizenship training for the naturalization process. Dorsey believed that the responsibility of educating immigrants should be shared by both the state and federal governments and successfully fought off conservative forces who tried to dismantle her Americanization programs and citizenship training.

Dorsey also hired more teachers—increasing the ranks by over 8,000 from 750 in 1920 to 9,000 by 1929. She hired the second Asian American teacher in the district, and while she increased the numbers of African American teachers, Dorsey adhered to the accepted “separate but equal” standard of the day segregating both teachers and students by race. Seemingly contradictory, she was protective of teachers and their rights—pushing for higher salaries, sabbaticals, and job tenure. Dorsey worked with teacher committees on improving the curriculum to meet the needs of the growing population while
supporting the industrial education needs of a booming California economy. She established a classical department and insisted that both vocational as well as college preparatory courses be offered.

Dorsey brought the national spotlight on high school reform to Los Angeles in 1922 when she hired John Franklin Bobbitt as a consultant to the city. He worked with 1,200 teachers on curriculum revision, using his activity analysis method for determining objectives for course of study documents. While Bobbitt brought with him a list of objectives developed by his graduate students at the University of Chicago, the Los Angeles teachers created their own, making them unique to their curriculum and their students. Bobbitt did not always agree with the teachers, but there can be little doubt that those who participated in the revision work found as much value in the process as in the product.

Dorsey also oversaw a massive building program funded by three school bond drives that tripled the number of school facilities. These included trade schools that emphasized vocational training. Dorsey was a strong supporter of this curriculum and also helped to develop special programs for gifted and disabled students. She believed that all students needed basic moral guidance, which would shape their characters. With that in mind, she expanded school activities such as student government, school assemblies, and other clubs and activities that would help students become self-sufficient adults.

Her tenure was not without controversy when she became involved in a dispute between elementary teachers who openly challenged principals during the school board elections of 1923. Though she was perceived by many teachers as being too closely aligned with political and fiscal conservatives, Dorsey overcame these issues, and few teachers openly attacked her during the remaining years of her tenure as the district superintendent.

She retired in 1929 but remained active in the field of educational policy and administration. Dorsey participated in the movement to consolidate smaller California school districts and was a trustee of Scripps College and the University of Redlands. She served as an editorial consultant to the National Education Association Journal and was made an honorary life president by the NEA in 1934, an honor shared by only one other educator—John Dewey. Honoring her while still alive, Los Angeles Schools named a high school for Dorsey in 1937. Active well into her ’80s, she spoke in favor of character education to the board of education just 1 month before her death at 88 in 1946.

—Louise Anderson Allen

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; leadership effectiveness; leadership styles; leadership, theories of; superintendency; vulnerability thesis, of superintendents

Further Readings and References


DROP OUTS

To drop out of secondary school (middle and high school levels) decreases the chance of success and may create dependence on social services. The combined effect costs the United States approximately $250 billion to replace lost wages and tax revenues and provide social welfare services. The typical time to drop out of school is between the 10th and 12th grades, given that most states require compulsory school attendance up to age 16. The literature reports that secondary school dropouts were more likely to use drugs and alcohol and engage in violent and criminal behaviors than nondropout adolescents. Today, dropouts comprise 85% of juvenile justice cases and 50% to 82% of prison populations throughout the United States. An approximate 55% of dropouts are unemployed and dependent upon social welfare. Employed dropouts, especially individuals with disabilities, earn low wages. The literature reports depression, alienation, health problems, and familial disengagement as indicators of dropouts.

Between 347,000 and 544,000 secondary school students dropped out of school within the last decade.
The average dropout rate is from 7% to 16% per year. Extrapolating special education dropout counts increases the rate, since these students drop out of school at rates that range from 17% to 42%. Students with emotional-behavioral disabilities drop out of school at rates that range from 21% to 64%. If included in dropout counts, expelled students forced to leave school (“pushouts”) would increase the prevalence rate.

The prevalence of dropouts is greatest among minorities. Hispanic youth, the nation’s largest minority population, comprise the highest dropout rate of any minority group. Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Nevada, North Carolina, Oregon, and Tennessee reported that less than half of their Hispanic youth population graduated from secondary school. African Americans comprise the second highest minority dropout rate. Georgia, Minnesota, Nevada, Ohio, Oregon, Tennessee, and Wisconsin reported that less than half of their African American populations graduated from secondary school. Overall, Georgia’s total graduation rate (57%) is the lowest in the nation.

Disagreement exists about the ratio of male to female dropouts. One argument asserts that boys are more prone to drop out of school than girls among African Americans and Caucasians. A counter argument is that female students are more vulnerable than males to drop out of school because of gender-specific life events, such as pregnancy.

In sum, secondary school dropouts often endure (a) social ailments, (b) academic deficits, or (c) combined social ailments and academic deficits. Research failed to capture these experiences and the implications they raise. Reported reasons included (a) outdated samples contrary to contemporary minority populations, (b) poor controlled designs, (c) small effect sizes, (d) statistical analyses devoid of discussions about the complexities of school administration, curriculum, and instruction, (e) reliance on self-reported survey data, and (e) unobtainable/incomplete academic records.

Historical and present-day disagreements about definitions of and theories/models that conceptualize the term dropouts underscore the research problems. Theoretical orientations/models included (a) strain theory, (b) social control theory, (c) working mother model, (d) transactional model, (e) systems theory, and (d) deviant peer group model. Researchers continue to voice historical conclusions that a host of factors beyond academic aptitude contribute to the school dropout phenomenon. Yet, recent studies failed to isolate independent variables (e.g., grade retention) to link systemic issues and decisions to drop out of school. Observed issues such as socioeconomic status (SES) hypothesized as negative effects on dropouts went unexplored. Problems in research continue, and attention today focuses on person-centered correlations that do not account for systemic barriers.

A systemic, broad perspective is needed. Dropping out of school is not a single event. Rather, it is a progressive decision that builds from earlier school, societal, and familial conditions. Certain events within these conditions are malleable, and their alterations need exploration. For example, school personnel may make decisions and engage with students in ways that encourage school retention and completion or dropouts. Long-term effects of such interventions are needed contributions to the literature.

Discussions of longitudinal effects could overcome historical trends of anecdotal information about graduation rates. They could inform policymakers and educators about specific successful interventions worthy of financial sustentation, especially for adolescents with disabilities, Hispanics, and immigrants. The literature does not explore why youth enrolled in special education programs choose to drop out of school, for example. It is not understood if their decisions are self-imposed or result from speculated administrative “push out” agendas that seek to rid schools of youth with behavior problems and academic deficits that hinder schoolwide test performances.

The literature also does not fully address Hispanic youths’ experiences. Since this subpopulation comprises a significant portion of dropout populations, it is necessary to track interventions on their behalf. Lack of definitions and inconsistent conceptualizations of immigrant youth led to inaccurate Hispanic youth dropout counts, a concern, given that the current 10% immigrant population in U.S. schools will be an estimated 33% by the year 2040. Specific conditions may exist among immigrant youth that necessitate long-term research about their decisions to drop out of school. A review of the literature in 2035 would confirm if research achieved longitudinal portrayals of the present dropout phenomenon.

One area that longitudinal research needs to pursue is social capital. Youth reliance on social institutions (e.g., community groups, religious organizations) reduces dropout decisions. The outcome occurs for youth with limited academic attainment, a condition hypothesized as the cause of dropouts. Lack of positive
social connections is a risk factor, even when academic performance is not an issue.

A second area that longitudinal research needs to address is low SES. The literature reported a connection between poverty and dropouts. It also stated disagreements about correlational effects. Researchers ruled out negative effects of poverty in communities where low SES did not hinder access to college education. They argued that if SES was ruled out as a barrier to college enrollments, then it could not be ruled in as a barrier to secondary school completion. Additional opinions suggested that a neighborhood’s collective low SES led to dropout decisions more than an individual family’s SES. Lack of employment opportunities coupled with visible destitution in neighborhoods may contribute to adolescents’ assumptions that secondary school graduation is a worthless pursuit. An example includes secondary Hispanic youth dropout prevalence in neighborhoods with limited human, social, and financial capital.

A third area that longitudinal research needs to explore is how associations with peers who underperformed and dropped out of school entice youth to drop out of school. It is not understood if students who follow through with decisions to drop out of school do so to join social groups of like-minded peers and/or because of beliefs that completion of school is not a viable option.

A fourth area that longitudinal research needs to clarify is the connection between parents who are single, young, and/or secondary school dropouts themselves and their children’s decisions to drop out. The literature reports that these parental conditions may not cause negative influences if parents express positive self-esteem and are able to access resources necessary to meet daily living needs. Of equal importance are parental academic expectations. The literature reported that youth at risk for dropping out of school persisted when parents ensured their abilities to succeed.

A fifth area that longitudinal research needs to resolve is negative correlations of secondary school practices that increase the likelihood of dropouts. Students who enter secondary school with insufficient academic preparation and/or competencies are at risk for (a) disengagement with schools in the form of absenteeism and truancy and (b) aggression in the form of physical altercations with peers and verbal arguments with teachers that result in suspensions and expulsions. These outcomes are greatest at schools with large student enrollments and teacher-student ratios. The placement of students into tracks is a second contributor to the outcomes. Students in lower-ability-level tracks experience more seatwork and less instructional interaction with teachers than students in higher tracks. Although many schools abandoned tracking, the present use of basic, honors, and advanced placement classes common in secondary education repeats the practice. Social and academic stigmas associated with grade retention practices at elementary, middle, and second levels and their impact on dropout decisions constitute a third cause. The most influential factor in both qualitative and quantitative studies was social alienation. Dropouts labeled teachers’ and peers’ rejection as causes of their damaged self-esteem that dropping out of school attempted to resolve and achieved. Researchers did not describe dropouts’ decisions as irrational adolescent ones. Instead, they equated them with flights from emotional pain. Fractured relationships with teachers were greater among dropouts than students who completed high school.

A final area that longitudinal research needs to provide is evaluation of interventions in current practice. One intervention example is increased involvement of immigrant parents in schools. Disparities in graduation rates among immigrant youth justify multicultural interventions. A second intervention in need of evaluation is the increased role of noneducational professionals to address the dropout phenomenon, such as clinical psychologists. A third intervention that has emerged in educational practice, especially in the field of special education, is self-determination. The extent to which student involvement with curricula decisions on their behalf creates goodness of fit between students and academic settings and reduces dropout decisions needs exploration.

Other present-day interventions attempt to increase interactions between students and teachers. Use of block schedules allows for interdisciplinary and in-depth teaching that attempts to create real-life settings for secondary students. Additional infusion of academic service-learning and other community engagements may validate the importance of education in preparation for postgraduate work. Specific to this intervention was the passage of the School-to-Work Opportunities Act of 1994. Secondary programs would benefit from research that could indicate if attempts to link academics with hands-on community experiences prevent student dropouts.

—John Palladino
See also achievement gap, of students; achievement tests; at-risk students; Black education; high schools; immigration, history and impact in education; instructional interventions; junior high school; Latinos; learning environments; motivation, theories of; No Child Left Behind; self-actualization; special education; underachievers, in schools; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


DRUG EDUCATION

Despite a downturn in adolescent drug use over the past several decades, the level of adolescent consumption has remained relatively high. Schools, families, and communities continue to seek out new methods to effectively prevent adolescent drug use. Research has linked drug use among teens with self-degradation, teen suicide, loss of control, disruptive conduct, antisocial behavior, high-risk sexual activities, and psychological disorders. The National Survey of American Attitudes on Substance Abuse, an ongoing 7-year publication, concluded that drug use and its social, psychological, and physical impact is the number one concern of teens and their parents.

The 2003 National Survey on Drug Use and Health reported that 51.1% of 12th graders use an illicit drug at least once during their lifetime, and 30.5% of 12- to 17-year-olds use an illicit drug at least once during their lifetime. Marijuana is the most widely used drug, with 40.2% of high school students using it during their lifetime. The national survey clearly indicates that teen drug use is still prominent in our culture and is a major public health risk.

The percentage of youths that felt it was easy to obtain marijuana dropped from 55.0% to 53.6% from 2002 to 2003. There was also a decline from 19.4% to 17.6% of youths who reported that it would be easy to obtain LSD. According to a 2003 study by the National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University (CASA), 5 million 12- to 17-year-olds can buy marijuana in an hour or less, and another 5 million can buy marijuana in a 24-hour period.

The National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse and the American Legacy Foundation reported a strong correlation between cigarette smoking and marijuana use. Their study of 1,987 teens concluded that reducing cigarette smoking by 50% among teens would cut marijuana use by 16% to 28%.

A 2003 CASA study of 1,987 teens aged 12–17 and 504 parents revealed that teens who are highly stressed, frequently bored, or have substantial amounts of spending money are three times more likely to smoke, drink, get drunk, and use illegal drugs. The survey also reported a correlation between school size and drug use. Students who attend a school with more than 1,200 students were twice as likely to be at high risk for substance abuse than students who attended schools with less than 800 students. Eighteen percent of students also reported that drugs were sold, kept, or used at their high schools.

A 1996 study of 1,363 10th-grade students by Ron Hays and Phyllis Erickson cited the contrasting nature of teens who consume alcohol versus teen drug users. The study indicated that alcohol use and misuse were associated with social activities, while use of hard drugs, marijuana, and cigarettes was associated with theft, burglary, and running away from home. The Drug Policy Research Center followed up this study in 1998 by surveying 4,390 high school seniors and dropouts. They concluded that as many as two thirds of these students may be misusing alcohol (feeling sick, missing school, fighting, arrest, engaging in high-risk alcohol behaviors). Given the high prevalence of alcohol use, and short-lived effects of school-based prevention programs, they recommended that efforts should be focused on curbing alcohol misuse.

The White House Office of National Drug Control Policy (ONDCP) is committed to reducing the use of illegal drugs by 12- to 17-year-olds by 10% by 2005 and 25% by 2007. The 2004 fiscal year budget for drug prevention and prevention research is $1.9 billion.
Among the programs and activities supported: ONDCP’s National Youth Anti-Drug Media Campaign, the Drug-Free Communities Support Program, the Department of Education’s Safe and Drug-Free Schools program, state and local prevention programs, and additional funding for juvenile drug prevention activities. Drug Awareness Resistance Education (DARE), the most extensive drug abuse prevention program in the United States, has come under scrutiny over the past decade. In 1997 DARE operated in 70% of the nation’s public schools and cost over $750 million each year. Numerous studies have indicated that DARE does not have any long-term effect on preventing drug use. The program is slowly being replaced by new government-funded and privately funded programs.

Parent involvement appears to make a significant difference in teenage drug use. According to the 2003 National Survey on Drug Use and Health, only 5.4% of youths who believed that their parents would strongly disapprove of their using marijuana once or twice had used the drug in the past month. This is in contrast to 28.7% of youths who perceived their parents would somewhat disapprove or neither approve nor disapprove of their use.

According to this same survey, youths aged 12 to 17 were approximately 7% less likely to have used drugs in the past month if they were engaged in two or more activities (e.g., sports, art, dance).

In 2001, the National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University founded Family Day: A Day to Eat Dinner With Your Children, in response to their research findings. Their study of 1,987 teens aged 12 to 17 found that those in families who ate dinner together five or more times per week were 32% less likely to ever have tried cigarettes, 45% less likely to ever have tried alcohol, and 24% less likely to ever have smoked pot.

PEDDRO (Prevention, Education, Drugs) was founded in 1994 by UNESCO and the European Commission project for worldwide networking of information in the field of drug-abuse prevention through education. PEDDRO includes (a) an international database and an updated directory of PEDDRO organizations and individuals working in the field of education to prevent drug abuse, (b) a newsletter published three times a year in five different languages, (c) the dissemination of pedagogical material, (d) networking through a fellowship program, and (e) an interactive Web site. Currently, PEDDRO membership comprises representatives from 223 institutions and NGOs from 83 countries.

—Sara Suglia

See also discipline in schools; dropouts; high schools; learning environments; parental involvement; self-actualization; social psychology; suicide, in schools; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools; vandalism in schools; violence in schools

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DU BOIS, W. E. B.

Addressing national and international challenges of race, class, and power, Black intellectual, sociologist, and educational leader William Edward Burghardt (W. E. B.) Du Bois (1868–1963) engaged highly contested, groundbreaking debates throughout his adult life. Du Bois observed in 1900 that race was, in essence, the problem of the coming century—a belief that was fundamental to his vision for a democratic U.S. society. This view put him in opposition to the leading educator of the era, Booker T. Washington,
who downgraded equality and civil and political rights in the list of Black priorities. Washington’s leadership supported an agenda of industrial education, racial solidarity, institution building, and small business development. In one of his most noted speeches given at the Atlanta Exposition, 1895, Washington argued that agitating for social equality was an extremist folly, and that Black people must continue to struggle rather than artificially force a socially just society.

Opposition to this accommodationist view was expressed by many, including Du Bois, William Trotter, founder of the Boston Guardian, and members of the Niagara Movement, an activist group of professionals and college-educated African Americans that demanded an end to racial discrimination not only in education but all aspects of public life. Washington’s voice dominated the national discourses about Black education and social place, especially in the South. Du Bois attacked Washington’s beliefs directly in his text *The Souls of Black Folk*, published in 1903, and continued to mount the fight against Washington’s views from 1903 to 1915. In *The Souls of Black Folk*, Du Bois expressed the characteristic dualism of Black Americans.

Born in Barrington, Massachusetts, on February 23, 1868, Du Bois studied at Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee, teaching in rural school districts during the summers. He was editor of the *Fisk Herald* and earned a BA in 1888. He attended Harvard from 1888 to 1892, receiving a BA cum laude. After studying at the University of Berlin from 1892 to 1994, he taught Latin and Greek at Wilberforce University in Ohio. Du Bois received his PhD from Harvard in 1896; his dissertation, *The Suppression of the African Slave Trade*, was published by Harvard University Press. He was an instructor of sociology at the University of Pennsylvania and in 1899 published *The Philadelphia Negro*, a study of Black urban life, the first case study of a Black community in the United States.


In 1905 Du Bois took the lead in founding the Niagara Movement, an organization dedicated chiefly to attacking the platform of Booker T. Washington. The organization met annually until 1909 but folded because of internal problems and Washington’s opposition. The Niagara Movement served as an ideological forerunner for an interracial group of activists, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), founded in February 1909 to renew the struggle for civil liberty. This group included the leadership of Du Bois, journalist Ida Wells-Barnett, and Oswald Garrison Villiard (grandson of the noted abolitionist William Lloyd Garrison). From 1910 to 1934 Du Bois served as director of publicity and research, as a member of the board of directors, as well as the founder and editor of *The Crisis*, the monthly magazine of the NAACP. In this role, he wielded a critically important influence among middle-class Blacks and progressive Whites as the voice and conscience for Black protest.

Du Bois resigned from the editorship of *The Crisis* and the NAACP in 1934 and returned to Atlanta University, where he devoted the next 10 years to teaching and research. In 1940 he founded the magazine *Phylon*, Atlanta University’s “Review of Race and Culture.”

Du Bois became a member of the Communist Party in 1961 and was invited to Ghana by President Kwame Nkrumah to edit the *Encyclopedia Africana*. As an active organizer of five Pan African congresses, he left the United States to become a citizen of Ghana in 1961, returning to the land of African American heritage. Du Bois’s vision for African Americans was to continuously work at the reconciliation of being both Black and American. The core of Du Bois’s politics, a commitment to a democratic society, was defined by social justice and racial equality for all groups and classes. He died in Accra, Ghana, in 1963.

—Khaula Murtadha

*See also* affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; at-risk students; Black education; civil rights movement; critical race theory; critical theory; cultural capital; cultural politics, wars; desegregation, of schools; determinism, sociocultural; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; eugenics; grades, of students; minorities, in schools; Office of Economic Opportunity; resiliency; Washington, Booker T.
Further Readings and References


DYSON, MICHAEL ERIC

Michael Eric Dyson (1958–) has emerged as one of the nation’s premier public intellectuals. His work has pushed the envelope of theory to practice, critical perspectives, and social justice. Dyson was born in Detroit, Michigan, on October 23, 1958. He was adopted and became the youngest in a family of five boys. He was influenced and largely shaped by his African American working-class community. It was in this environment where his family, church, school, and neighborhood fostered a climate of intellectual acumen, spiritual identity, rhetorical engagement, and a worldview based largely on the lived experiences of everyday people.

Dyson’s youth and young adulthood had its share of difficulties. He attended a rather prestigious private school, subsequently encountered racism by some of his classmates, and later was expelled. He returned to Detroit and before long became a father and married a woman 8 years his elder. Dyson then held a plethora of different jobs such as factory worker, hustler, grass cutter, house painter, janitor, and maintenance man. He even found himself on welfare for a time. By his 21st birthday, Dyson decided that he wanted to go to college and get his life together. He also stayed rooted in the church and became an ordained Baptist minister. He would eventually earn a bachelor’s degree from Carson-Newman College, and a master’s and doctoral degree from Princeton.

Dyson’s ascent through the academy has been no less remarkable. His dissertation committee included notable figures like Jeffrey Stout, Albert Raboteau, and Cornel West. His first book, *Reflecting Black*, was published shortly after he completed his dissertation. He would go on to receive tenure in 1 year at Brown University and a full professorship at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill in an unusually short amount of time. He later excelled in other prestigious posts at DePaul University and the University of Pennsylvania.

Dyson has carved a unique niche in the heart of the academy and American culture through his innovative “biocriticism.” He has written biographies of important figures in history and popular culture. These people include Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., Malcolm X, Tupac Shakur, and Marvin Gaye. The biographies are written with consideration of historical context, fairness with regard to human vices, and relevance to the plight of life in contemporary society.

His greatest contribution may very well be his attempts to push the limits of the mind and the heart. His impressive body of work has done much to inform numerous disciplines and test the limits of pedagogy, epistemology, and ontology. The fields of history, philosophy, religion, Africology, sociology, and cultural studies are directly affected by his research. In a like manner, his work has significant implications for education and the humanities. Specifically, his thoughts on antiracist ideology, critical race theory, multiculturalism, postmodernism, youth culture, and gender issues can inform multiple academic audiences.

Dyson’s story is one of tragedy and triumph. It combines the very best in self-reliance and self-sufficiency with community engagement and social responsibility. He traverses several landscapes (university, pulpit, street corner), navigating them by utilizing intellectualism and rhetorical agility. He inspires others as a public intellectual, professor, lecturer, minister, thinker, writer, husband, father, and African American.

—Floyd D. Beachum

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; at-risk students; Black education; civil rights movement; critical race theory; critical theory; cultural capital; cultural politics, wars; desegregation, of schools; determinism, sociocultural; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; eugenics; grades, of students; minorities, in schools; Office of Economic Opportunity; resiliency

Further Readings and References

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Early childhood education (ECE) addresses the education of young children from birth through age 8. Kindergarten, the educational approach used in formal school settings, has existed for more than a century and offers education to the 5- and 6-year-old population. The education of 7- and 8-year-olds is usually provided in a formal setting also. However, at the time of the 2000 census, there were 23 million children 5 years of age and younger in the United States whose educational opportunities could be influenced by educational settings. This segment of children represents one third of the entire population of children under the age of 18. For children not yet entering formal schooling, ECE opportunities are offered through various types of center-based programs that provide myriad learning opportunities. Forty-five states funded prekindergarten programs in 2002. State support is in four main areas: state supplement to Head Start only, support only in public schools, public schools that contract with community providers, and all settings in which standards are met. Six states provide no investment in Head Start or prekindergarten.

INvolvement in center-based early childhood programs

The U.S. Department of Education estimated that, in 2001, 54.6% of children age 3 and 4 were enrolled in center-based early childhood programs. Of the enrolled population, 43% were 3-year-olds and 66.2% were 4-year-olds. Center-based programs can be classified as either formal or informal. Formal programs include the federally funded Head Start and state prekindergarten programs. Informal programs include child care centers, preschool, nursery school, and other early childhood programs.

HEAD START

The Head Start program has a long history of providing services to early childhood students. The Head Start Bureau reported that more than 505,000 children were enrolled in Head Start in 2001. Seven percent were under 3 years of age, 89% were 3- and 4-year-olds, and 4% were 5 years and older. These services were offered through 1,545 Head Start grantees, 18,734 Head Start centers, and 48,512 Head Start programs. Grantees are recipients of grants from the Administration for Children and Families (ACF) regional offices and the Head Start Bureau’s American Indian and Migrant Program branches that award grants directly to local public agencies, private organizations, Indian tribes, and school systems for operating Head Start programs at the community level.

INFORMAL ECE PROGRAMS

Informal ECE programs also are a part of the center-based programs defined by the government. A major setting is early child care programs for the child aged birth to 8. Early child care programs provide a substantial amount of care and may or may not provide educational opportunities that appear to vary considerably across settings. In 2002, there were 113,298 licensed child care centers in the United States providing care to more than 420,000 young children.
Another informal setting in which young children birth to 6 receive services is the small or group family child care home. The Children’s Foundation defined a small home as a child care arrangement in which up to six children, including the caregiver’s children under age 6, are cared for in the home of the provider for compensation. A large, or group, family child care home was defined as a child care arrangement in which a provider cares for 7 to 12 children, including those of the provider and any assistants, in the home of the provider or in another facility with one or more assistants. In 2002, there were 262,327 small family child care homes, and the group family child care homes enrolled 44,473 young children.

Several sociological family factors influence the burgeoning involvement of families with ECE programs. Two-parent families with two working parents and single-parent families with one parent working contribute to the reliance on early child care. For example, in 2001, 64% of mothers with children under age 6 were in the workforce, and in 2000, 55% of mothers with infants (under age 1) were in the labor force.

In 1999, nearly three quarters (73%) of children under age 5 with an employed parent or primary caregiver were in an arrangement other than care by a parent. The organization provided the following profile for these children:

- Eight percent were in before- and after-school programs.
- Nineteen percent were primarily cared for by relatives.
- The use of family child care and nannies or baby sitters was comparable to the patterns seen among pre-school-age children.

**ECE FOR THE DISABLED**

The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) reported that during the 1999–2000 school year, 588,300 children with disabilities ages 3 to 5 years received services under Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B. This number represents approximately 5% of the total population of preschool-age children in 2000. The number of preschool-age children served rose 2.5%, compared to the previous year, and 205,769 children ages birth to 2 years received early intervention services under IDEA Part C. This number represents approximately 1.8% of the total population of infants and toddlers in 2000.

**PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD**

The NAEYC, dedicated to improving the well-being of all young children, focuses on the quality of educational and developmental services for all children from birth through age 8. Founded in 1926, NAEYC is the world’s largest organization working on behalf of young children, with more than 100,000 members, a national network of nearly 450 local, state, and regional affiliates, and a global alliance of like-minded organizations. The organization provides a Web site and is engaged in the accreditation of early childhood centers. Policies are intended to reassure families, educators, and employers that high-quality learning experiences are offered in the accredited agencies. The NAEYC is currently engaged in new policy development addressing standards for programs serving children from birth through kindergarten, criteria for accreditation performance for each standard, and development of assessment instruments.

**ISSUES RELEVANT TO EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

Superintendents and principals engaged in and dedicated to offering programs or integrating community
programs into public and private formal school settings have a stake in the development of programs and professional staff for early childhood education. M. J. LeTendre wrote in 1999 that legislation now links Title I districts and schools with early childhood and family literacy programs. Preschool programs can be funded under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act’s Title I Part A program in a variety of ways. Local districts that receive such funding are required to describe how integration between Head Start, Even Start, and regular program services occurs. Furthermore, issues of staff development and certification have emerged. This section addresses the current status of professional staff for ECE programs with regard to number of providers, training requirements, certification and salaries.

The estimated number of paid teachers and caregivers who provide services to children from birth to 5 years of age is 2.3 million. This includes 550,000 (24%) teachers and caregivers working in center-based settings, including private and public child care centers, Head Start programs, and prekindergarten programs, 650,000 (28%) family child care providers, 804,000 (35%) paid relatives other than family child care providers, and 298,000 (13%) paid nonrelatives other than those working in center or family child care programs (e.g., nannies).

For those in education, the qualifications and training requirements for teachers and directors in child care centers is of grave concern. Thirty states or municipalities (including Washington, D.C., New York City, and the 50 states) do not require early childhood teachers to have any specialized training prior to working with young children in child care centers. The remaining states vary the preservice requirements and annual ongoing hours by role: teacher, master teacher, and director. Furthermore, the number of states with preservice requirements and annual ongoing training requirements for family care centers is less and varies with type of care center.

CONCERNS ABOUT THE EDUCATION LEVELS OF ECE TEACHERS

Survey results from 1995 indicated that most teachers working in child care centers (80%) had some college-level education and one third had a bachelor’s degree, and most center directors (69%) had a bachelor’s degree or higher level of formal education. In 1992, more than half of family child care providers (55%) had some college-level education. In 2001, there was an average national turnover rate of 30% for all teaching staff in early childhood education, and the 2000 average hourly wage for teachers in early childhood programs was between $7.43 per hour (child care workers) and $8.56 per hour (preschool teachers).

State departments of education and state legislatures have taken some initiatives to implement elements of a career development system for the early childhood workforce.

According to a 2001 survey,

- 29 states are implementing a career lattice.
- 31 states are implementing core competencies (defined as observable skills teachers need to work with young children).
- 34 states are implementing core knowledge areas (defined as specific knowledge teachers need to work with young children).
- 22 states are implementing a computerized practitioner registry.
- 26 states are implementing a training approval process (established standards for the content of training).
- 25 states are implementing a trainer approval process (established standards and qualifications for trainers).

Furthermore, according to Anne Mitchell and the NAEYC in 2002, nine states have publicly funded initiatives to improve compensation and retention (California, Georgia, Illinois, New York, North Carolina, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, and Oklahoma). Twenty-two states implemented the TEACH Early Childhood Project in 2003.

- Thirty-one states and the District of Columbia received grants from the U.S. Department of Labor to implement statewide child care apprenticeship programs.

Education professionals, educational organizations, and state legislatures increased the attention given to ECE in the latter part of the twentieth century. National organizations, both curriculum-centered and leadership-centered, offered critiques of late twentieth-century curriculum and teaching methods of early childhood education. Sue Bredekamp, Randy Knuth, Linda Kunesh, and Debby Shulman wrote that these organizations stressed that schooling for early childhood should place emphasis on (a) hands-on learning, (b) conceptual learning that leads to both understanding and acquisition of basic skills, (c) relevant learning experiences, (d) interactive teaching and cooperative learning, and (e) a broad range of relevant content integrated with traditional subject matter. In response,
the NAEYC, in 1990, issued position statements that
defined developmentally appropriate practices (DAP)
for young children. The authors summarized theoreti-
cal principles that emerged from the study of child
development and learning by Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky,
and Erik Erikson.

These principles, about children’s construction of
knowledge, ways of learning, and need for variation,
formed a basis for NAEYC and affiliates establishing
Guidelines for Appropriate Curriculum Content and
Assessment for Programs Serving Children 3 through
8 to assist teachers and administrators in their selec-
tion of content and methods of assessment of progress
among young children.

CURRICULUM GUIDELINES

- Promote interactive learning.
- Encourage construction of knowledge.
- Encourage development of positive feelings and
dispositions toward learning.
- Are meaningful to children and relevant to their lives.
- Have realistic expectations that are attainable at the
early childhood level.
- Are interesting to both children and teachers.
- Are sensitive to cultural and linguistic diversity.
- Build on children’s current knowledge.
- Facilitate integration of content across traditional
subject matter areas.
- Encourage active learning.
- Foster children’s exploration and inquiry.
- Promote development of higher order abilities.
- Respect children’s physiological needs for activity
and stimulation.
- Promote feelings of safety, security, and belonging.
- Provide experiences that promote feelings of success,
competence, and enjoyment of learning.
- Permit flexibility for children and teachers.

ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES

- Base assessment procedure on goals and objectives
of specific program curriculum.
- Use assessment results to benefit children.
- Address all domains of learning development—social,
emotional, physical, and cognitive.
- Provide useful information to teachers.
- Rely on teachers’ regular and periodic observations
and record keeping of children’s everyday activities.
- Occur as part of the ongoing life of the classroom.
- Rely on multiple sources of information about children.
- Reflect individual, cultural, and linguistic diversity.
- Permit children to be comfortable and relaxed during
assessment.
- Support parents’ confidence in their children and in
their ability to parent.
- Examine children’s strengths and capabilities.
- Train the teacher to be the primary assessor.
- Involve collaboration among teachers, children,
administrators, and parents.
- Provide opportunity for children to reflect on and
evaluate their own learning.
- Provide a systematic procedure for collecting assess-
ment data.
- Provide a regular procedure for communicating
assessment results to parents.

—Barbara Y. LaCost and Marilyn L. Grady

See also accreditation; administration, theories of; alignment, of
curriculum; at-risk students; attitudes; behaviorism; Binet,
Alfred; child development theories; children and families in
America; climate, school; communities, types, building of;
compensatory education; Department of Education; Freud,
Sigmund; gender studies, in educational leadership; Head
Start; intelligence; learning environments; Mann, Horace;
Maslow, Abraham; Montessori, Maria; parental involvement;
personality; Piaget, Jean; self-actualization; sexuality,
theories of; Skinner, B. F.; social capital; special education;
derunderachievers, in school; workplace trends

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ECONOMICS, THEORIES OF

The economics of education describes how economic theories and models have been applied to a wide range of education issues. Economics as a discipline is particularly well suited to help understand the decisions made by students regarding their education and to understand the behavior of schools, districts, states, and nations in meeting the education needs of their constituents. The contributions of economists to the field of education have been numerous. In particular, economics has been helpful to decision makers at the state level in understanding how to raise and distribute funds for public schools in an equitable manner for both schools and taxpayers and to researchers through their analyses of the effects of school spending and teacher compensation/training on student outcomes.

More recently, economics has provided important insights into topics of debate within the education field, including the use of vouchers to subsidize student attendance at private schools, and how to measure the impact of schools and teachers on student performance.

BACKGROUND

Economics is the study of how to allocate scarce resources among individuals or entities when the demands for resources exceed the supply. The three main types of resources discussed by economists are land, labor, and capital. The field of economics can trace its roots back over 200 years to the pioneering work of Adam Smith, and has since been refined and advanced by leaders in the field such as Alfred Marshall, John Maynard Keynes, and hundreds of others. Many readers are likely familiar with the two main branches of economics known as macroeconomics and microeconomics. Microeconomics focuses on understanding the behavior of individuals and organizations, while macroeconomics addresses the activities of larger entities such as the economies of states and nations. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of economic analysis is that it can provide insight into a wide range of situations and phenomena. This is especially true for microeconomics, which has been used to examine many different types of markets, organizations, and entities.

INVESTMENT IN HUMAN CAPITAL

Despite its long history as an academic discipline, it has only been within the past 40 years that the field of economics has been directly applied to education. This work can be traced back to developments in labor economics and the notion of human capital. Theodore Schultz, Gary Becker, and Jacob Mincer are among the first economists to formally develop this notion. To economists, human capital represents the skills that workers possess that will enable them to be more productive in the labor market. Individuals can invest in their human capital in a number of ways, including formal education. Education is viewed as an investment because acquiring education entails both direct costs (tuition, books, etc.) and indirect costs (forgone earnings).

In its simplest form, this model posits that students estimate the expected future income gains from investing in their education and the costs of education, assign levels of satisfaction to each option (referred to as “utility” by economists), and then compare the utility of net benefits of this investment to the utility of net benefits of not investing in human capital. When the utility from investing in human capital exceeds the utility from not making the investment, workers would find it to be in their best interest to acquire more education. This notion has been used to explore issues such as how to increase the college participation rates of high school graduates and reduce the dropout rates of students at various levels of education. Similarly, this work has helped to document the rising return on postsecondary education during the 1990s, due in part to slower wage growth for workers without postsecondary education.

The investment in human capital framework has been broadened by economists to examine not only how much schooling students choose to receive but also where they will receive their education. According to this model, students calculate the expected net
benefits from each school, attach utilities to each choice, and then choose the particular school that would give the student the highest level of utility. The subsequent models focus on calculating the expected net benefits from different types of schools in an effort to explain trends in student demand for particular types of institutions. Researchers have used this framework to determine whether there are differences in the expected net benefits from attending particular types of schools and also to determine whether the higher prices charged by private schools relative to public schools are more than offset by higher future benefits.

It is crucial to note that according to this model, students are assumed to make decisions that will maximize their utility/satisfaction and not necessarily their future income or expected net benefits. It is possible that students may opt to not invest in further education even if doing so would increase their future earnings net of costs. Likewise, two students facing the same options may make different decisions about whether to continue their education, or where to attend school, and yet each would be rational according to the definition of economists if they made their decisions so as to maximize their utility. Finally, the tools of economics are more useful for understanding how an individual’s decision might be affected by changes in the model (such as a reduction in the price of education) than they are for examining why students made their initial choices. This is what economists refer to as marginal analysis.

THE PUBLIC PROVISION OF EDUCATION

Economics has been useful for helping to better understand why governments are involved in the provision of education. The connection stems from the idea that the consumption of education creates benefits for others in society ("positive externalities"). Positive externalities are used to describe situations where the consumption of some goods or services also benefits others who did not consume the good or service. If a good or service leads to positive externalities, then economists have shown that a competitive market will lead to an underproduction of the good, from society’s point of view, because individuals paying the price for the good will not take this into account when deciding how much to consume and how much to pay.

Education is a prime example of a service that is likely to benefit others when it is consumed by individuals. The benefits to society of increasing the level of education include productivity gains from having a workforce with more human capital and less tangible gains such as producing better citizens, reducing crime, increasing civic behavior, and so on. One of the challenges for education advocates is that these benefits are often difficult to quantify. While many economists have attempted to do so, these studies are usually subject to shortcomings and have not been very effective at convincing education providers such as state and federal governments to increase their levels of funding to support education.

THE DEMAND FOR EDUCATION

A related line of economic research has focused on explaining the demand for education among students. Economists use a demand curve to represent how the quantities of a good/service that an individual would be willing and able to purchase varies with the price of the good/service. Demand curves are usually drawn with a negative slope reflecting the notion that as the price rises, individuals would demand less of the good, and vice versa. The demand curve is thought to be affected by factors such as the price of competing goods that individuals could purchase, the ability of individuals to pay for the good, and their tastes/preferences for the good.

Education can be thought of as a service that also is subject to a demand function. Most economists investigating the demand for education have done so for postsecondary education because both public and private institutions charge students a tuition rate to attend. These studies have focused on the effects of financial aid and tuition rates on the demand for selected higher education institutions. However, economists have shown that the concept of a demand curve for education also can be applied to private schools at the K–12 level, as well as public K–12 schools, since students and their families pay for public education indirectly through their property taxes. The price of public K–12 education is also reflected in housing prices. Economists have shown that housing prices are generally higher in neighborhoods where the public schools are thought to be better than in other neighborhoods.

SUPPLY OF EDUCATION

Economists have also studied the supply side of the education market. In general, suppliers are posited to
operate with a supply curve describing the amounts of education they would be willing to supply at various prices. The supply curve is usually drawn as upward sloping to show that firms would be willing and able to provide more goods and services as the price received for each unit of output increases.

In the market for education, the supply side represents the behavior of providers of educational services, which would include schools as well as local communities, states, and nations. The model can be readily applied to private schools, where many Catholic churches, for example, must make decisions about how many spaces to make available for students at church-sponsored schools. While public K–12 schools do not charge students tuition to attend, economists such as Black have shown that the notion of a supply curve can also be used to help understand the behavior of schools and communities. These studies have attempted to estimate supply functions for communities through the use of models showing how the quantity and quality of public schooling vary with tax rates and housing prices.

PRODUCTION MODEL OF EDUCATION

The economic analogy of a firm to a school has also been the subject of discussion among economists. The production model is used by economists to describe the way in which firms in the for-profit world operate. According to this model, inputs are converted into outputs by the firm through their production process, and outputs are used to achieve the goal of maximizing profits. Economists such as Gordon Winston have pointed out that there are many similarities between schools and firms: schools attempt to convert inputs (students) into outputs (learning), schools use their curriculum, teachers, supplies, and other “capital” to produce learning, and schools must acquire enough financial resources to teach students and stay in business.

Schools, however, are unique in several regards. First, as noted by Winston, schools charge students a price that is substantially lower than the average cost of producing education. Schools are able to do this because of the availability of subsidies from governments, private individuals, and other students. Second, students are both inputs into production and part of the production process, meaning that they have to help produce their own learning. Third, most economists acknowledge that schools do not act in ways that are consistent with profit maximization. If schools do not attempt to maximize profits, then what do they do? On this point there is considerable disagreement. Theories offered by economists to explain the behavior of schools range from maximizing costs, minimizing their discretionary budget, balancing their budget (“break even”), or maximizing their utility obtained from different objectives.

DOES MONEY MATTER?

The production function analogy has led to a number of studies that have attempted to find a connection between a school’s financial resources and student outcomes. According to the production model, having access to more financial resources should enable a school to improve its production process and thus create more and better outputs. Schools should be able to use higher levels of funding to hire more and better teachers, purchase more supplies and equipment to help teachers, and invest in better ways of providing instruction. Beginning with the publication of the Coleman Report, however, and continuing to this day, economic studies have not offered convincing support for the notion that “money matters.” In an often-cited review of the literature, Eric Hanushek reviewed over 140 studies and concludes that most of these studies do not find evidence that higher levels of spending lead to greater student achievement. While other economists have found evidence that there is a positive relationship between school funding and performance, the topic continues to be perhaps the area of strongest disagreement within the profession. The policy implications of this work are significant in that state support for education has generally not kept pace with the rising cost of providing education, and education advocates continue to strive for higher levels of funding to help schools increase student performance.

EQUITY IN SCHOOL FUNDING

Equity in school funding is another finance-related topic that has received considerable attention from economists. Economists have studied the ways in which states use taxes to raise funds for education and have evaluated the fairness with which these taxes are imposed on individuals. This work has pointed out that different tax sources (such as property taxes, income taxes, and sales taxes) have their advantages and disadvantages for education funding, and as a result, most states use a mix of sources to raise funds.
for education. Economists have also made important contributions toward the understanding of how equitably financial resources are distributed to public schools. These include measures of whether comparable schools receive comparable levels of funding (“horizontal equity”) and whether schools in need of additional resources to serve particular groups of students receive more funding (“vertical equity”). This work has been helpful to states when crafting their plans for distributing tax revenues to communities for K–12 education and when evaluating whether their method of distribution is fair.

LABOR ECONOMICS

The subfield of labor economics has made a number of significant contributions toward the understanding of the labor market for teachers. It is not surprising that teacher compensation should draw significant attention from economists, given that education is a highly labor-intensive service, with teacher salaries typically accounting for the vast majority of spending in K–12 schools. Drawing from the production function analogy, increases in the quantity and quality of teachers should enable schools to produce higher levels of student learning. Teacher training and continuing education can be viewed as an investment in their human capital, enabling them to become more productive in the classroom. Likewise, higher levels of teacher salaries and benefits should provide incentives for more talented students to pursue education as a career. The evidence here has been more supportive of the notion that there is a positive relationship between teacher quality and student outcomes.

—Robert K. Toutkoushian

See also accountability; decision making; division of labor; enrollment projections; equity and adequacy of funding schools; management theories; organization theories; outputs, of systems; planning models; productivity; quantitative research, history, theories, issues; salary and salary models; schooling effects; strategic planning; taxes, to support education; value added indicators; voucher plans

Further Readings and References


EDUCATION COMMISSION OF THE STATES

Created in 1965, the Education Commission of the States (ECS) is an interstate compact that facilitates exchanges of information and ideas on educational policy among state-level policymakers. Spurred by the vision of former Harvard University president James Bryant Conant, ECS was conceived as both a counterbalance to the growing influence of the federal government in education and an opportunity for state leadership to shape the future of education. Conant’s Shaping Education Policy outlined many of the current and future challenges states would face in shaping their educational systems and called for a mechanism whereby state leaders could learn from one another. He called for a mechanism through which states could exchange information and plans for improving education.

In 1965, leaders from all 50 states and the United States territories endorsed the first draft of the interstate compact. With 36 states participating, the first annual meeting was held in Chicago in June 1966. Terry Sanford, then governor of North Carolina and founding chairman of ECS, gave the opening address, calling attention to the hope that ECS would cause the impetus to develop leadership nationwide. In his view of leadership, everyone from the school administrator to the board member, legislator, and governor, rather than the federal government, had key roles in creatively shaping educational policy.

Today, ECS continues to strive toward this historic vision and mission. With headquarters in Denver, Colorado, the organization is chaired by a governor, alternating between the two major political parties every 2 years. All member states have a seven-member state commission that includes the governor
of that state and six other state educational policy leaders. ECS aims to create opportunities for state and educational leaders to build partnerships, share information, and promote the development of policy based on available research and strategies. Currently, ECS operates three divisions: Information Management and Clearinghouse, Policy Studies and Programs, and State Services.

While ECS offers multiple services to its member states and individual constituencies, its clearinghouse is the centerpiece of its ability to provide timely syntheses of state policies, selected readings and research, and general policy analyses. ECS also convenes an annual forum on educational policy that is well attended by governors, state legislators, state board of education representatives, and others with policy interests. In addition, ECS has initiated several programs since its inception that have focused on specific topics and subject areas of interest to its commissioners. For example, ECS recently convened a State Leaders Forum on the next generation of accountability frameworks within six states. Through this effort and others, ECS helps state leaders work through important educational dilemmas in order to remain on the cutting edge of the field.

—Jill K. Conrad and Rodney Muth

See also accountability; boards of education; Department of Education; reform, of schools; state departments of education

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EDUCATIONAL EQUITY

Three decades following the landmark *Rodriguez* decision in 1973, civil rights attorneys argued successfully on behalf of poor urban and rural school districts and found an opening for fiscal redress. The state supreme courts, for example New Jersey, Texas, and Kentucky, in the early and late 1990s ruled that all students are entitled to a “minimally adequate” education. In *Abbott v. Burke* and other landmark school finance cases, the courts, in issuing its findings, ruled that the special needs of inner city (and rural students) comprised a distinct class of plaintiffs.

Now, with the advent of landmark federal legislation, No Child Left Behind, the administration has sought to institutionalize in everyday practice the notion of “equity” undergirding the flurry of state finance cases of the 1990s. Contextually, the difference is that accountability discourses now replace the notion of equity grounded in person rights with “excellence” as argued entitlement of property rights.

IDEOLOGICAL WORLDS IN COLLISION

Changes in fiscal policy and the roles of the federal and state government in promoting school reform changed markedly during the two previous decades. The overall optimism of the country in the 1980s gave way to the discourses of at-risk and school failure, especially in urban schools. This ideological shift affected the allocation of federal aid, which in turn altered the prism through which educational researchers and policymakers conceived of equity. For example during the flurry of school reform reports in the 1980s, spending for Chapter 1 programs decreased by 12%, on Chapter 2 by 62%, and on bilingual education by 47%. When the nation witnessed unprecedented growth in the economy in the late 1990s, the administration sought to increase funding for public education, focusing on reducing the achievement gap between White students and poor students of color. The promised increases came with an ideological price tag: accountability.

At the state level, urban schools faced the quagmire of reduced allocation and intense political pressure to lift student achievement. When the New York State Legislature apportioned its school aid for the 1987–1988 school year, the largest concentration of children needing the greatest number of special services were enrolled in New York City schools: 80% of all state students with limited proficiency in English, 63% of those students from impoverished families, 61% of those reading below minimum standards, and 54% of the handicapped students. Despite these staggering statistics, the neediest schoolchildren in New York actually received fewer per pupil dollars...
than less needy children. During political squabbles over its finance scheme, the New York State Legislature agreed on a formula in which each New York City pupil was counted as 94/100 of each pupil elsewhere in the state. Financially or otherwise, New York City schoolchildren counted for less.

This compromise formula brought $450 million less funding to New York City public schoolchildren than they would otherwise have received. It meant in part that two in five high school students operated at more than 110% of capacity and that the ratio of high school students to guidance counselors topped 600 to 1, double the rate outside of the city. A junior high school pupil, for example, had an average of 20 minutes during the entire year to discuss the choice of high schools with a guidance counselor, and 90% of the elementary school children had no library available to them.

The passage of countless school reform measures and geography do not seem to matter much for poor students of color. In Chicago the economic shift from manufacturing to service/information employment had dramatic results on the realization of equity. From 1967 to 1990, the number of jobs in manufacturing fell an astounding 41%, from a total of 546,500 to 216,190. In comparison, nonmanufacturing jobs rose by an equally impressive 59%, rising from 797,867 to 983,580. Most significantly, as the Chicago Tribune reported in 1999, the trend saw manufacturing employment with median salaries of $37,000 replaced by service jobs whose wages paid $26,000. Because 23% of workers in the city belong to a union, the impacts on the working class have been even more severe, often resulting in the loss of health insurance and pension benefits. This economic transformation has led to the production of educational inequity. How is this so?

In brief, the efforts of two generations of mayoral rule by the Daleys (Richard M. Daley, son of Richard J. Daley, was recently elected to a third term) have resulted in the marketing of Chicago as a world-class (global) city that aggressively attracts business in the new knowledge economy. In order to “sell” the city to affluent and well-educated professionals who will staff the kinds of firms the city elite leaders covet, Chicago has embarked on the most ambitious reform agenda in the nation. This reform agenda, moreover, has created a system of high-stakes testing and accountability, college preparatory magnet schools as well as remedial high schools, and a pedagogical culture that rewards achievement on standardized tests. For example, in some of the schools, nearly two months of the academic year were spent in preparation for tests, complete with cheerleading and pep rallies. These everyday cultural practices in the school in the name of educational accountability, we want to argue, may run counter to the notions of equity embedded in current policy such as No Child Left Behind.

THE ROOTS OF THE COLLISION

In the late 1908s and early 1990s, three far-reaching decisions in state court came in Kentucky (Rose v. The Council for Better Education, Inc., 1989), Texas (Edgewood Independent School District v. Kirby, 1989), and New Jersey (Abbott v. Burke, 1990). In Rose the Kentucky Supreme Court thoroughly scrutinized the meaning of an efficient system of public schools and concluded that the state must assume sole responsibility for effecting the court’s detailed development of specific instructional goals designed to equip children for economic and social efficiency. The Rose definition of educational efficiency (a legal synonym for basic skills) included, interestingly, both the notions of educational adequacy and equity. As we will conclude, a progressive conception of equity based on entitlement owing to person rights ultimately gave way a decade later to a conception of equity based on individual achievement anchored in property rights. This ideological transformation culminated with the passage of No Child Left Behind. NCLB embodies a conception of equity based on individual student achievement. It is helpful to briefly review the performance outcomes mandated by these landmark decisions. We use Rose as an example.

The educational outcomes of primary interest to the Kentucky court were

- Sufficient oral and written communication skills to enable students to function in a complex and rapidly changing civilization
- Sufficient knowledge of economic, social, and political systems to enable students to make informed choices
- Sufficient understanding of governmental processes to enable students to understand the issues that affect their community, state, and nation
- Sufficient self-knowledge and knowledge of the students’ mental and physical wellness
- Sufficient grounding in the arts to enable all students to appreciate their cultural and historical heritage
• Sufficient training and preparation for advanced training in either academic or vocation fields so as to enable each child to choose and pursue life work intelligently
• Sufficient levels of academic or vocational skills to enable students to compete favorably with their counterparts in surrounding states, in academics, or in the job market.

Rose concluded that the Kentucky precolligate system in its entirety was educationally inadequate and cited system performance data on average dropout rates, taxable assessments, per pupil expenditures, and teacher compensation using statewide aggregate totals, rather than interdistrict, or as is currently practiced today, within-district comparisons.

The Rose case isolated the specific areas in which funding creates disparities in educational opportunity. It found, for example, that high-wealth districts were able to provide broader educational experiences for their students that included more extensive curricula, more up-to-date technology, better libraries and library personnel, teacher aides, counseling services, lower student-teacher ratios, better school facilities, parental involvement programs, and dropout prevention programs. In contrast the Court found that poorer districts offered few or none of these advantages. The Court went on to list even more specific educational programs and services routinely found in schools in wealthier districts that were missing in poorer schools, such as foreign languages, prekindergarten, chemistry, physics, calculus, college preparatory or honors programs, and extracurricular activities, including band, debate, or football. Furthermore, the Court was presented with evidence that the combination of state aid and local revenues in the poorest districts was insufficient to meet the costs of the state-mandated minimum educational requirements.

One year after Kirby, the New Jersey Supreme Court in Abbott (1990) extended the construct of educational adequacy to include the notion of “educational need.” The court grappled with the concepts of “thorough and efficient” (read: basic) in the state constitution. It also discussed more explicitly than any other court before it the condition of poor children of color in inner-city schools, commenting that the inadequacy of the present education of poor urban students, measured against their needs, was glaring. Urban school systems, it found, were offering science classes in such dilapidated labs that sinks had no running water and microscopes were unavailable. Testimony cited in the decision also noted that in some urban schools, children ate lunch in the hallways or in a boiler room and that classes were held in closets and bathrooms. These educational inadequacies superseded the standard kinds of curricular disadvantages other courts had cited before Abbott: that students in the poorer districts had limited or no exposure to computers, biology, foreign languages, music, art, industrial arts, physical education, and special education.

THE SOCIAL RELATIONS OF EDUCATIONAL ADEQUACY AND NEED

A distinctive theme in Abbott is its explication of “educational need” as a legal criterion of adequacy. This legal discourse, we assert, cements the social relations between the two phenomena inasmuch as social relations, when unpacked, define the institutional boundaries of its sister construct—equity. The complex argument proceeds as follows. Educational need constitutes a variant of educational adequacy, because higher-cost education, even if funded equally with “regular” or lower-cost education, would be inadequate for the high-need student. Or put differently, such discrepancies would mean, in effect, inequity for these students. While the set of factors on which children’s needs differ may include such characteristics as sex, race, religious beliefs, and sexual orientation, the pedagogically more compelling differences with consequences for student achievement often include developmental age, languages spoken at home, and mental and physical exceptionalities. The personal and social needs cited by the New Jersey court included basic nutrition, clothing, and shelter, stable family support, community ties, and models to emulate. The Abbott court attributed these special needs to the condition of urban poverty and the violence (and perhaps crime) and despair it spawns. Attaching the concept of extraordinary educational need to provisions in the New Jersey constitution, the Court claimed that impoverished children living in poor urban school districts required more services than did “regular education” to achieve the “thorough and efficient” mandate of the state constitution. These were the prerequisite resources, thus, to provide the legal infrastructure and social support to realize equity.

THE CONCEPT OF EQUITY

Equity, at least in educational terms, remains a socially constructed reality codified in law. With its
conceptual and legal roots in the notion of educational adequacy, equity is \textit{not} synonymous, either in its scholarly conceptions or in everyday practice, with reducing inequality. It remains a contested concept, theoretically and practically.

—Luis F. Miron and Robert K. Wimpelberg

\textbf{See also} accountability; administration, theories of; at-risk students; Black education; bureaucracy; Chicago school reform; critical race theory; critical theory; desegregation, of schools; economics, theories of; equity and adequacy of funding schools; governance; innovation, in education; Kentucky Education Reform Act; Latinos; management theories; minorities, in schools; state departments of education; superintendency; systemic reform; taxes, to support education; underachievers, in schools

\textbf{Further Readings and References}


\section*{EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCIES}

Probably the least visible, studied, and understood component of the K–12 educational system are educational service agencies (ESAs). This term refers to the middle echelon component of the education delivery system (between the state department/state board of education and the local school district). ESAs were defined by E. Robert Stephens in 2001 as \textit{“a regional public elementary-secondary education agency authorized by state statute or administrative code to provide instructional support and management and planning programs and services to local education agencies.”}

A recent national study of service agencies that included responses from 20% of the surveyed ESAs (142 agencies) showed that they spent over \$3.5\ billion directly in support of education, managed \$17\ billion of flow-through money from the federal and state governments, and trained over 1.1 million staff members in the 2001–2002 academic year.

\textbf{NAMES}

ESAs are known by different names in different states, so it is understandable that there is little national consciousness about them. A few names are listed below:

\begin{tabular}{|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{State} & \textbf{Name} \\
\hline
Texas & Regional Education Service Centers (RESCs) \\
Iowa & Area Education Agencies (AEAs) \\
Pennsylvania & Intermediate Units (IUs) \\
Minnesota & Educational Cooperative Service Units (ECSUs) \\
California & County Offices of Education \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\textbf{FORMS}

Three forms of service agencies have been identified by Stephens:

1. \textit{Type A, Special District ESAs:} Service agencies of this type provide programs and services to local districts and also carry out some functions on behalf of the state. Type A agencies are organized to provide services to local districts throughout the state. In a few cases, large cities are exempt from inclusion in an ESA region.

2. \textit{Type B, Regional Offices of the State Department of Education:} These centers tend to be created and eliminated in response to the fiscal condition of state departments and the reliability of federal funding sources for specific programs.
3. **Type C, Cooperative ESAs:** Though authorized under state statute or administrative rule, these agencies are listed as a result of voluntary decisions on the part of local districts to maintain such entities by membership fees, fees for service, collaborative grant funding, or some combination of these funding sources.

**GOVERNANCE**

There are important differences in the governance of Type A, B, and C service agencies. As noted above, Type B agencies are a part of the state department of education and under the direction and control of the governing body of this department. Selection processes used to constitute the governing boards of Type A agencies are prescribed in statute and use alternative election/selection methods from state to state, for example:

- Governing board is elected by vote of constituent district boards.
- Governing board is elected by the public at large.
- Governing board is identified in law (e.g., superintendents of all constituent districts are identified as members of the board, plus others).

Chief executives of constituent districts or their appointees tend to constitute the boards of Type C districts.

**FUNDING**

Type B districts are supported through allocations from state department of education budgets. Type C agencies are often started by a small legislative appropriation to get the agency off the ground and continue to receive limited state support to cover rudimentary infrastructure costs or to promote a function desired by the state.

Significant variation can be seen in the financial features of state networks of special district service agencies (Type A). Some state systems receive significant state aid (formula based) to carry out their functions. In other states, the agency is heavily dependent on the sale of programs and services to maintain revenue, since state support is minimal. Only two states authorize taxing authority for the service agency (Michigan and Oregon). Another state system, California’s, has established 50 of the 58 county systems as fiscally independent. They also have taxing authority.

Equity in financing of service agencies has yet to be achieved in most states. Some states have chosen to have a large number of service agencies so that local districts will be close to the agency and be able to access programs and services conveniently and inexpensively. This often results in many smaller agencies serving smaller, often more rural populations. If the funding for the agency is based on a per pupil formula, resources for small agencies can be restricted. Michigan, for example, has 57 agencies in the state system. Other states have chosen to limit the number of agencies so that existing agencies will have more resources to serve the constituent districts. The ample geographical expanses of Texas are served by only 20 agencies. Minnesota has nine service agencies.

**PROGRAMMING FEATURES**

The programs and services available from any ESA are a function of many factors: its size, its resources, the changing needs and expectations of the constituency, state expectations regarding the essential roles and functions of these agencies, and other factors. Many state systems of service agencies began in the attempt to provide quality programs and services to low-incidence handicapped children in a cost-efficient manner. By aggregating children with such uncommon conditions as blindness, deafness, severe mental impairment, and other such disabilities from several districts in one regional program operated by an ESA, it was possible to ensure a well-trained teacher equipped with modern technology to ensure quality programming, a feat few districts would be able to achieve on their own.

This concept soon spread to vocational/technical education. In many states, service agencies operate a career center to provide state-of-the-art programming, usually on a half-day basis for upper grades from local district high schools. Funding may come from state sources, special tax levies, or voluntary contributions of local districts.

Today service agencies across America are providing an incredible array of programs for special populations including pregnant teens, incarcerated youth, gifted, and talented, as well as special facilities available to all districts (planetariums, science centers, art studios, and so forth).

Equally important to the services provided to students are programs designed to train teachers, administrators, classified staff (school bus drivers,
cooks, maintenance workers, etc.), and others (e.g., parents and board members). Program content for teachers includes such topics as technology utilization in the classroom, curriculum design, student assessment, and other topics necessary to assist teachers and administrators to be successful in a time of intense scrutiny of public schools.

—William G. Keane and E. Robert Stephens

See also administration, theories of; bureaucracy; governance; hierarchy, in organizations; management theories; organizational theories; organizations, types of, typologies; partnerships, interagency; rational organizational theory; role theory; school districts, history and development; special education; state departments of education; systems theory/thinking

Further Readings and References


EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE

Founded in 1947, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) has become the world’s largest tests and measurement company. Conceived by James Bryant Conant, president of Harvard, in the early 1940s, the original intent for ETS was to become an independent, nonprofit test developer for the American Council on Education (ACE), the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the College Board. Henry Chauncey, an assistant dean at Harvard, became the first president of ETS and served in that capacity until 1970. ETS opened its doors in 1948 with 17 previously developed testing programs, 111 employees, and a budget of $1.8 million.

ETS perceives itself to have five broad areas of expertise: research, assessment and development, test administration, test scoring, and development and delivery of instructional products and services. As part of its corporate organizational structure, ETS has a governing board of 16 trustees from education and business venues. These trustees select ETS’s president, establish policy, and determine long-term goals.

A change of direction, including diversification as indicated by three subsidiary companies, has been emerging at ETS following the selection in August 2000 of Kurt Landgraf as the fifth president of the organization. Landgraf is the first president of ETS who does not come from the ranks of educators, having previously served as chairman and chief executive officer of Dupont Pharmaceuticals. The business perspective brought to this organization by Landgraf is evident in the shift from a culture of academics to a culture of “the bottom line.” In fact, there are ongoing questions concerning ETS’s position as a “nonprofit” entity. According to Landgraf, the SAT is still responsible for generating 75% of the company’s surplus revenue.

In its 56th year as an organization, the ETS generated nearly $900 million in revenue in fiscal year 2003. In addition to the main nonprofit testing unit in Princeton, New Jersey, there are now several for-profit subsidiaries. ETS Pulliam provides educational software and professional development for assessments directed toward school improvement. Capstar’s focus is on training, online distance learning, and development and administration of licensure and certification tests. This subsidiary steps outside of the education circle to provide these services to associations, businesses, government agencies, and institutions of higher education. Since ETS has a presence in nearly 200 countries, its third subsidiary, ETS Global BV, attempts to make their services and products more easily available to the European education communities. This group is headquartered in Utrecht, Netherlands. In addition, there are seven regional offices in the United States—three in California and one each in Washington, D.C., Texas, and Puerto Rico. There are nearly 2,800 full-time employees at ETS.

Although ETS administers approximately 11 million tests per year for multiple uses, their most highly recognized assessments include the SAT Reasoning Test and SAT Subject Tests, the PSAT, the Advanced Placement Program, the Praxis Series for teacher licensure, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), the Graduate Records Examination (GRE),...
the Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT),
the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA),
and the National Assessment of Educational Progress
(NAEP). Expanding its area of service to professional
development of educators and a major producer of
educational research, and with the advent of local
school accountability and the No Child Left Behind
(NCLB) legislation, ETS is now moving into the area
of state tests for student achievement. This newest
subsidiary is called ETS K–12 Works. They have also
recently announced a collaborative arrangement with
the International Society for Technology in Education
(ISTE) focused on information and communications
technology, literacy assessment, and professional
development. Through the main company and its mul-
tiple subsidiaries, Landgraf has set a goal of attaining
$1 billion in yearly revenue.

A company as large as ETS is a natural target
for criticism. In addition to questioning its nonprofit
status, critics also question the costs to users, who
are required in most instances to take the exams,
and whether the tests may be culturally biased. As
early as the 1970s, consumer advocate Ralph
Nader and the Public Interest Research Group were
attacking standardized tests and advocating for
“truth in testing.” Recently over 4,000 prospective
teachers were erroneously informed they had failed
their licensure examinations, and many of them are
now involved in a class action suit against ETS. The
ETS retort to those questioning its nonprofit status
generally goes along the lines that as a nonprofit,
the organization must be self-supporting; thus the
need to charge for the assessments. However, ETS
continues to face increasing competition from other
test developers.

There appears to be a chink in the armor of ETS
as illustrated in recent conflict around scoring issues
with its long-time collaborator, the College Board. For
the first time since its founding in 1947, a contractor
other than ETS will conduct the scoring of the new
writing portion of the SAT. New leadership at the
College Board provided by Gaston Caperton, a former
governor of West Virginia, is resulting in an alteration
of the relationship between the two organizations.
Caperton desires to cut costs, while Landgraf desires
to increase revenues.

ETS moved into school leadership assessment
and development beginning in 1996 through a partner-
ship with the Council of Chief State School Officers
(CCSSO) when they were awarded a contract to
develop the School Leadership Series (SLS), three
licensure assessments, one for beginning principals,
one for superintendents, and a portfolio system for
license renewal. Based on the Standards for School
Leaders developed by the Interstate School Leaders
Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), these assessments
were a natural entrée for ETS to publish a two-volume
set geared for professional development of school
leaders. Volume I, A Framework for School Leaders:
Linking the ISLLC Standards to Practice, is designed to
give the reader a thorough understanding of the ISLLC
Standards and how they can effectively apply to practice
in meaningful ways. Case Studies in School Leadership:
Keys to a Successful Principalship, Volume II, explores
how the ISLLC Standards apply to real-life situations
through case studies developed by practitioners for
practitioners. ETS continues to play a major role in
creating a database for multilevel educational decisions
in the United States, from licensure to college
admissions.

—Neil J. Shipman

See also accountability; accreditation; achievement tests;
administration, theories of; attitudes; behaviorism; Council
of Chief State School Officers; cultural politics, wars;
Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; leader-
ship, theories of; management theories; performance
assessment; politics, of education; standard setting; stan-
dardized testing; state departments of education; testing
and test theory development; University Council for
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EFFECT SIZE

In a very large sample almost any, even trivial, difference will be statistically significant. This happens because the standard errors for test statistics become smaller as sample size increases, which makes the test statistic larger (because the standard error is the denominator), and hence has a smaller $p$ value. Effect size is about the distinction between statistical and practical significance, which gets complicated because effect size can be calculated for many different situations and for all levels of data (nominal, ordinal, interval).

One such measure is the Pearson product-moment correlation ($r$), ranging from $-1$ to $+1$, where a value of $-1$ means that two variables are perfectly inversely related, $+1$ means that two variables are perfectly directly related, and $0$ means that there is no relationship between two variables. When $r$ is squared, it is the coefficient of determination, measuring the proportion of variation in the dependent variable explained by one or more regression predictors. Analysis of variance models generally expresses effect size as partial eta-squared, describing the proportion of total variability attributable to a factor.

A good way to compare the results of different models is Adjusted $R^2$, which is the regular $R^2$ value minus the ratio of the number of degrees of freedom for the model and the error times the proportion of variation that is unexplained. This is interpreted as an index (which can be negative) measuring the predictive validity of the model.

In a one-sample $t$ test, effect size is the absolute value of the difference between the data mean ($\mu_1$) and the hypothesized value ($\mu$), measured in standard deviation units. That is, $d = |\mu_1 - \mu| / \sigma$, which is known as Cohen’s $d$. Jacob Cohen proposed criteria for identifying the magnitude of an effect size, with a small effect size between 0.2 and 0.5 standard deviations, a medium effect size between 0.5 and 0.8 standard deviations, and a large effect size greater than 0.8 standard deviations.

When two group means are compared, Cohen’s $d$ becomes $d = |\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2| / \sigma$, where $\bar{X}_1$ and $\bar{X}_2$ are the respective group means and $\sigma$ is the standard deviation of the difference between the two means, calculated as the “pooled” estimate of the population variance. For two independent samples, another commonly used measure is Glass’s delta ($\Delta$), which is set up the same as Cohen’s $d$, except that the standard deviation of just the control group is used in the denominator.

Effect size also can be measured for cross-tabulation tables relating categorical values of two variables. Among the statistics generated in this process that can be taken as effect size measures are Adjusted (Standardized) Residuals and a host of directional and symmetric measures of association. Of particular note is (Cohen’s) kappa ($\kappa$), computed as $\kappa = (\Sigma f_o - \Sigma f_e) / [N - \Sigma f_e]$, where $f_o$ is the observed frequencies on the diagonal and $f_e$ is the expected frequencies on the diagonal, which often is used as an indicator of inter-rater agreement for two judges of the same items. A kappa value of 0.7 or more is commonly accepted as a “good” result.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also quantitative research methods; research methods; surveys and survey results;

Further Readings and References


Efficacy Theory

Models of social cognition promote the notion that individuals are motivated for achievement and that such attainment cannot be quantifiably measured in degrees or scales of performance. The individual is an active and self-regulating agent devoid of biological and environmental conditions whose motivation is akin to a specific situation or setting. The purpose of evaluating an individual’s motivational success is to determine its genesis as means for future replication in similar but new settings. Embedded within social cognition models are various motivational constructs that influence success and include an individual’s feelings, beliefs, interests, and values. Research has identified self-efficacy as the essential motivational construct for students in educational settings, given its positive impact on their academic attainment and quest to accomplish complex tasks.

It is important to distinguish self-efficacy theory from self-esteem and self-concept. The latter terms account for the student’s global beliefs of worth, ability, or competence that exceed cognitive performance (e.g., “I am a good reader; I am a poor learner”). In contrast, self-efficacy beliefs are task specific (e.g., “This reading passage is a challenge, but I know how to look for clue words to understand it”) and not universal.

In theory, students with a positive self-efficacy will engage in challenging coursework throughout their education. The engagement is twofold and consists of cognitive and behavioral components. Cognitive engagement includes the student’s application and development of skills. Students who believe that their repertoire of skills will allow them to accomplish a task are more prone to cognitive engagement. Behavioral engagement accounts for the student’s interests and beliefs that evolve throughout an educational career. Young children may only be interested in the usefulness of a task (e.g., “How will sorting spelling words help me with the test on Friday?”), whereas older students may identify the value of a task in relation to long-term goals and aspirations (e.g., “How will enrolling in advanced literature help me develop an appreciation for the arts?”). Behavioral engagement includes observable actions, such as effort and persistence. Efficacy theorists posit that students need both cognitive and behavioral engagement to excel in academic tasks.

Efficacious theory has received research attention in the behavioral sciences and education. Areas of focus have included individuals’ (a) abilities to overcome addictions, anxiety, depression, (b) athletic endurance, and (c) leadership skills. In the field of education, it has attempted to correlate efficacy with achievement goals. The research, however, cannot account for variables (e.g., class size) that enhance or impede the achievement of goals. Furthermore, most efficacious research has relied upon subjects disclosing their beliefs about their behavioral and cognitive engagement via questionnaires. Varying tasks and settings may have affected the subjects’ responses. Therefore, the questionnaires cannot be normed and generalized. Despite its limitations, research suggests that (a) resiliency, (b) parents, and (c) peers influence a student’s efficacy, and that efficacy impacts career choices. Research further suggests specific teaching strategies that educators may employ to foster a student’s efficacious development.

Resiliency is one tenet that efficacious theory acknowledges as a determinant of a student’s engagement. The student must overcome self-doubt and other forms of adversity. Lack of resiliency explains why certain at-risk populations, such as minority students and students with learning problems, may resist academics and drop out of school. They are unable to maintain a positive self-efficacy. Research has identified anxiety, depression, and peer pressure as stressors that threaten a student’s competence and confidence.

Parental influence is a second tenet of efficacious theory. Parents who assert an important role in their children’s educational growth expect higher educational aspirations that encourage engagement. The role, however, deters the child’s self-efficacy if it results in the child’s dependence on the parent’s approval and affirmations. The role is further weakened when the parent doles out punishments that cause the child to depend on an extrinsic motivational focus.

Peer influence is a third tenet of efficacious theory. The influence results from the student’s observation and comparison of peer behavior and performance. The influence is threefold. First, it might erode the student’s original belief that a particular task is accomplishable. Second, it might serve as a model and inspire the student to pursue a task. Third, it might foster a peer relationship that the student may rely upon for behavioral and academic support and encouragement.

Career aspirations are a fourth tenet of efficacious theory. Students identify and pursue occupations
considered compatible with their perceived skills and competence. Likewise, they deter from occupations that they consider outside the realm of their skills and competence. The matter is most pronounced during the formative years of adolescence and has a lifelong impact.

Teachers’ instructional strategies may foster a student’s efficacious beliefs necessary for academic pursuits at present and in the future. Research supports the assessment of these beliefs as predictors of students’ future academic performances, especially in mathematics and reading.

Before organizing instruction, the teacher should understand that efficacious suggestions provided in the research are not universal and that each situation and each student require constant reexamination of teaching strategies. Overall, to achieve this goal regardless of the setting, teachers should not expect students to complete tasks that are too easy or too difficult. Rather, they should remind students of their past successes associated with the present task (e.g., mastery of multiplication facts before introducing the concept of division) and use them as a starting point to introduce the new, challenging, and accomplishable assignment. Younger students will rely on their teachers’ ability to remind them of their accomplishments, whereas older students should be able to self-identify their past performances. Teachers should also engage in constant, honest feedback throughout the students’ engagement with the task.

Younger students will rely on their teachers’ explicit feedback, whereas older students should contribute a self-evaluation.

Once the instructional task is chosen, the teacher should provide students with opportunities to maximize their choices (e.g., type of book to choose for a reading assignment, choice of essay question to answer about the Civil War, type of artistic format to use for illustrating cell mitosis). After students make their selections, the teacher’s role is to provide direct instruction about strategies the students may employ to accomplish their choice and/or overcome obstacles. In essence, the “how to” of accomplishing the task should be a skill for the students to apply in future academic and career tasks.

—John Palladino

See also attitudes toward work; contextual knowledge; curriculum, theories of; decision making; empowerment; esteem needs; learning environments; locus of control; motivation, theories of; self-actualization

Further Readings and References


EGOCENTRISM, THEORIES OF

Egocentrism is a term used by Jean Piaget to describe the inability of the part of children to comprehend any point of view other than their own. His theory of cognitive development has had a profound influence on educational programming for children from preschool age through adolescence. This stage development theory posits egocentric thinking as normal in pre–school-age children in the preoperational phase of development. Preoperational refers to the inability of children to coordinate two aspects of a relationship (e.g., size and number of an object such as coins) at the same time. An egocentric individual may be described as regarding the self as the center of all things: as having little respect for the thoughts, interests, or feelings of others. A common synonym is the term self-centeredness and is often used to describe attempts to gain personal recognition for oneself.

Piaget developed his theory regarding egocentrism in preschoolers through observing children involved in the now famous three-mountain experiment. He concluded that preschoolers were unable to take another person’s visual perspective. He described this thinking as egocentric, that is, the child was mistaken in thinking that the other person sees the view that they see. He noted in the experiment that it was not until the age of 9 or 10 that the children were able to take the perspective of another.

Child development researchers have conducted similar experiments and have concluded that
preschoolers are in fact somewhat more competent than Piaget concluded. These experiments, coupled with Piaget’s work, have had a significant impact on educational programming for preschoolers and school-age children alike. Allowing children to physically manipulate the material, using simpler and more attractive displays, as well as training and practice, have all increased performance on experimental tasks. Educators have developed curricula and instructional strategies based in part on these findings, and Piaget’s views that cognitive development (e.g., progression from egocentric thinking to consideration of others) may be enhanced and enriched through hands-on, problem-solving tasks.

Egocentrism with regard to adolescents has been cited repeatedly in the professional literature to explain certain aspects of their behavior. One result of egocentrism is that adolescents often think and behave as if others are admiring or criticizing them (imaginary audience), as if they are constantly on stage. A second is the belief that their life is unique (personal fable) and contains a sense of invulnerability (“It will happen to them but not to me”). Piaget theorized that this adolescent egocentrism could be abated through continued intellectual development and through social interactions. Through cognitive maturation and personal interaction experiences, the adolescent learns that others are not as interested in them as they thought, and that others share many of the same feelings, thoughts, and fears. The intuitive appeal of these concepts, however, has been lessened through experiments that generally support multidimensional causes for adolescent behavior. The personal fable proposition has not been consistently linked to risk-taking behavior, and adolescents’ beliefs about others watching them appear to be more grounded in reality than the result of egocentric thinking. Nevertheless, egocentrism remains a term embedded in the child development literature as well as in descriptions of adult thinking and behavior.

—George W. Griffin

See also adolescence; child development theories; cognition, theories of; conditioning theory; disequilibrium, theories of; early childhood education; Piaget, Jean

Further Readings and References


Elastic Tax

State tax systems produce the revenue in a state for providing public services such as municipal services, state services, and, of course, revenue for public education. State tax systems are evaluated so that shifts in taxing policy may be implemented to provide different revenue streams or combinations. Economists use several qualities to assess tax systems. Of major importance to state legislatures and budget developers is an adequate amount of revenue for the provision of public services. Adequacy means that sufficient revenues are available to meet a taxing authority’s responsibilities as determined by law. Stability and elasticity are required to offer adequacy in funding. Stability refers to the ability of tax revenue to avoid great fluctuations from budget year to budget year, to provide the revenue anticipated for expenditures.

Elasticity is an important characteristic that must be assessed so that political policy can be set or changed. Elasticity refers to the ability of a tax to produce revenue at a pace faster than personal income growth over time. Elastic revenues are those that are highly responsive to change in the economy or inflation. As the economic base expands or inflation increases, elastic revenues rise in greater proportional rates than expansion or inflation. As the economy contracts, or during periods of low inflation, elastic revenues may decrease substantially. The volatility of this revenue source can put budgets and programs at risk.

For example, if government revenues increase faster, percentagewise, than do the personal incomes of a state’s taxpayers, that state is deemed to have an “elastic” tax system. Conversely, if tax revenue rises slower than does personal income, then the state’s tax structure, by definition, is inelastic.

In considering school finance reform, a state system that relies heavily on inelastic taxes (i.e., whose revenue grows more slowly than personal income) is likely to be less desirable than one that increases its use of elastic taxes. This would be the premise for some analysts’ admonitions for greater reliance on
Elections, of School Boards, Bond Issues

Elections require eligible voters to cast ballots selecting individuals to policy-making positions and/or governing boards, approving or disapproving fiscal issues, and/or making policy decisions.

Most local school board members are elected officials. However, many states have mixed processes. In states such as California, Illinois, and New York, very large-city school districts such as Chicago and New York City have appointed boards of education. In some states, where school districts have been taken over by the state and/or a mayor has been appointed as superintendent, the mayor appoints the board members. In the district of Ft. Leavenworth, Kansas, the commanding general appoints the school board. In New Jersey, the Newark, Paterson, and Jersey City school boards are appointed by the chief state school officer (CSSO) and the state board of education.

Usually elected school board members run on nonpartisan ballots; however, there is variation between board members elected at large within a district and board members elected to represent a specific region or area with a local district. State board of education members are either elected or appointed. Many times if the CSSO, that is, state school superintendent, is elected, the state board may be appointed by the governor, and if the state board of education is elected, the CSSO may be appointed.

The southern states have a history of electing local school district superintendents. While this practice has been mostly phased out, some districts in Alabama and Florida have some elected local school district superintendents.

Fiscal issues are often decided through the election process; however, recently instructional issues are also appearing on ballots. In the general election of 2002, voters in 22 of the 50 states decided education issues that involved programs for students from bond issues to increases in funding for education in general. Programmatic or instructional issues concerned teaching of English to non–English-speaking students. Other somewhat related issues concerned voter approval of class size/reduction initiatives. Several states had state-level school facility bond issue initiatives. Tennessee voters approved a lottery, dedicating funding to education programs. At least two states allowed voters to decide on the use or nonuse of tobacco settlement funds for education.

Funding for school construction and renovation is most often provided through voter-approved bond issues. Local school district bond issues are allowed in most states. Maryland and Virginia have state bond issues, so school districts do not have the power to sell bonds on their own. In eight states, the voter-approved
bond issue is the only way to garner funding for school facilities. There is wide variation across the states as to whether a simple majority of those voting, a majority of those eligible to vote, or a supermajority of voters is required for a successful bond issue.

When citizens vote on a bond issue, they are approving a set sum of money to be borrowed through the sale of municipal bonds. The ballot will state not only the dollars to be borrowed but also the specific projects the dollars are to be used for. The school district that has a successful bond issue must place the funds in a capital projects fund. At the same time, the district must set up a debt service bond to repay the bonds and interest over a period of time, usually 15 to 30 years. States regulate how much indebtedness a local district can accrue, thereby limiting the amount of the bond issue. The bond’s principal and interest is usually repaid by the levying of property taxes. During the 1990s, only one third or 33% of bond issues were approved by voters.

A few local districts in a few states (particularly in the Northeast) must have voter approval of local school district budgets. Most states have a process for voter approval of millage levies for the general operations of the local school district. Usually a simple majority of persons voting in the millage election is required; however, a few states require a supermajority. Whether the issue is approving the actual budget or requesting mills that provides the funding, elections in which fiscal issues are decided is of critical importance, as these elections determine the resources the district will ultimately have available to provide educational services.

—Catherine C. Sielke

See also accountability; boards of education; capital outlay; class size; community relations; compensatory education; democracy, democratic education and administration; finance, of public schools; governance; politics, of education; property tax; school districts, history and development; superintendency; taxes, to support education; voucher plans

Further Readings and References


ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Elementary education in the United States has an interesting history. During the elementary school’s drastic evolution from the one-teacher, single-room schoolhouses to the comprehensive, multiple-grade campuses of today, our American forefathers unfailingly espoused to promote and preserve ideals such as freedom, democracy, and social civility for future generations through elementary education. They also recognized the gravity that a whole community can contribute to a child’s spiritual, emotional, social, and academic growth, and urged communities to work toward developing intelligent citizens capable of solving the problems common in adult life. Their work was largely influenced by a number of childhood education philosophers, and despite the trends in the last few centuries, elements from these theorists are fundamental in the contemporary elementary school curriculum, instructional methods and delivery, and service framework.

THE RISE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Elementary education was in its infancy stage in the colonial period. In the country’s early days, it was quite common for parents to educate their own children at home. No legislation had been passed requiring the development of a national school system or compulsory education, and only one law in Massachusetts—in 1642—mandated that New England parents educate their children. Children’s education was strictly religious then, and children learned to read, write, and recite biblical scriptures. In fact, Massachusetts passed the Old Deluder Satan Act in 1647 requiring every 50 (or more) households to find someone to teach children the scriptures and keep Satan from deluding them about biblical knowledge.

A group of families often hired a woman, a “dame,” to teach the neighborhood children of varying ages (4 to 7) and academic levels. Often a housewife would teach a group while she worked on her
household chores. These schools—vacant rooms in
the dame’s house, front porches, and churches—
became known as dame schools and flourished in the
New England colonies from 1650 to 1800. While
many children learned reading, writing, religion, and
character and social values, dame schools were inca-
cpable of teaching large numbers of children.

Young children in the middle colonies were
educated in parochial schools because the settlers
believed that churches were responsible for educating
young children. Southern colonists, on the other hand,
commonly accepted the notion that an education was
reserved for the children of noblemen, not the children
of laborers. Consequently, children from wealthy fami-
lies had private tutors or were sent abroad for their
education. Apprentices, poor, or orphaned children in
all colonies received no formal education or had to
attend “pauper schools.” These children came from
families so poor they could not afford a private or
parochial school’s tuition and had to be educated at
public expense. Pauper schools held a stigma so
severe that many children refused to attend.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century,
Lancastrian schools flourished from New England to
the southern states shortly after being introduced into
the New York schools in 1805. Lancastrian schools
gained popularity because of the sheer number of
children that could be educated by a teacher and her
assistants, who were called monitors. As many as
1,000 students could be seated in large halls com-
prised of two large rows of bench seats. The teacher’s
desk was situated on a platform at the end of the hall,
and smaller desks for her monitors were flanked to each
side. About 10 students were seated on each bench,
and after the monitors, usually older children, were
instructed by the teacher, they would help the younger
children.

The daily instruction at Lancastrian schools
resembled the military, and as students were given
commands, they performed accordingly. Most of their
instruction required memorization, and a system of
rewards and punishments was developed to manage
their behavior, including the use of the dunce cap.
Often monitors pulled groups of students into smaller
rooms for longer periods of instruction, which eventu-
ally led to a graded system of instruction. By the 1840s
only a few Lancastrian schools remained.

At about the same time the Lancastrian schools
were developing, a department-style school for reading
and writing came into fashion. Children attended two
separate schools—a reading school and a writing
school—each with its own teacher, curriculum, and
student assistants. The schools were often large halls that
could seat up to 180 youngsters. Some of the schools
were physically separated from one another, often across
town, and the children would alternate their attendance
from one location to another. In other instances, the two
separate schools were housed in the same building,
with one school on one floor and another school on
the other. These reading and writing schools gradually
developed into English grammar schools and required
children to have some basic knowledge of reading, writ-
ing, and arithmetic for admittance.

Primary schools emerged to prepare children for
grammar schools. After the children mastered the
basics, they could progress to English grammar
schools until the age of 12. Primary schools had one
teacher for 30 to 40 students, who varied in age from
4 to 8. Their classes were held in any available space
that was near the students’ homes. These schools were
essentially scattered around town, and some school
committees foresaw the articulation and governing
benefits of combining the primary and grammar schools.
By 1900, many states had united the two schools into
elementary schools.

Grade levels developed through the nineteenth
century. Primary, Lancastrian, and reading and writing
schools commonly classified students into groups and
taught them according to their progress and ability.
But as new school buildings included an increasing
number of small rooms (in addition to a large hall) for
teachers to instruct groups of children, the next logi-
cal step was to assign one teacher who would teach all
the subjects to one group of children of similar age.
The first school to implement this system was Quincy
Grammar School of Boston in 1848. The school
had 12 separate classrooms to seat 55 students (all the
same age) for one teacher.

Many elementary schools were designed like the
Quincy Grammar School—a two- or three-story
building resembling a rectangular box—until as late
as the 1930s. Because schools then were perceived as
places where children came to study, little to no room
was made for offices, gyms, cafeterias, and the like.
But after World War I, a national initiative for school
health and fitness changed the school’s landscape.
Schools were no longer single buildings but campuses
with assorted rooms for health services, playgrounds,
gymnasiums, libraries, cafeterias, and offices.
American and European educational philosophers
began to shape the field of child development in this country, and as childhood professionals took notice, they pushed for attractive schools with large classrooms and areas for a variety of activities.

**CONTRIBUTIONS TO ELEMENTARY EDUCATION PRACTICES**

The initial practices in elementary schools left considerable room for development. The curriculum in the early schools was largely religious and did not include the “secular” subjects like history, geography, and science, which were introduced in schools in the nineteenth century. In fact, the earliest children’s textbook was a hornbook, which consisted of a wooden paddle with a sheet of paper covered by a transparent horn. On the paper were vowels and consonants, syllables, and specific religious references. After students mastered the hornbooks, they progressed to the 17th century. The earliest children’s textbook was a hornbook, which consisted of a wooden paddle with a sheet of paper covered by a transparent horn. On the paper were vowels and consonants, syllables, and specific religious references. After students mastered the hornbooks, they progressed to the New England Primer, which included the alphabet, simple syllable words, the Lord’s Prayer, and the Apostle’s Creed.

The early American schools for children were just as bleak as their education material. Education historians have often referred to the early schools as “prisons” for children, “cheerless” and sterile environments. The schools were seemingly unhappy because there were no blackboards, maps, and so on, and the children often sat idle on rough wooden benches as they waited for scarce materials. Because it was commonly believed that children were inherently evil, many children were severely disciplined on the whipping post. Gradually, these and other types of practices changed as childhood professionals learned about several notable scholars and their work with children.

Education scholars prior to and during John Amos Comenius’s (1592–1671) lifetime focused considerable attention on the learning process of adults primarily because of the influences of Plato and his book the Republic. Comenius, however, was devoted to children, and in his work with them, he found that children acquire knowledge when they experience the environment with their senses. His chief contribution to the modern elementary school curriculum remains that children should have ample hands-on experiences instead of drills and rote memorization of facts. He discussed his ideas about childhood education in the first known picture-book text, Orbis Pictus, which inspired others to study how children learn. Comenius also advocated for the education of all children, including girls and the poor.

John Locke (1632–1704) argued against Plato’s postulation that children are born with innate ideas and agreed with Comenius that children learn when they interact with the environment. Locke claimed that children were born with minds like “shaved tablets” (tabula rasa)—clean and clear—and children’s experiences were etched into their minds and translated into ideas. Although scientific research on the impact that genetics and the environment have on learning (and learning ability) did not occur until centuries later, many scholars and educators grew to believe that if children’s minds were blank tablets at birth, they could be taught anything through effective teaching.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778) was one of the first scholars to emphasize that children were not evil. In his book Emile, Rousseau argued that children come from God and become contaminated and evil through their associations in society. He strongly encouraged teachers to treat children more humanely and advocated for further studies of children and their learning process. Many of Rousseau’s ideas are fundamental in contemporary elementary education, such as the following:

- Children are important individuals.
- Children develop according to their age.
- Children need a variety of learning experiences.
- Children have unique needs that their teachers should meet.

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi’s (1746–1827) work with children had an indelible impact on elementary education. Pestalozzi was inspired by Rousseau’s theories and experimented with them when he taught his own son, Jacques. He later opened a “farm school” for neglected children, monitored their health and well-being, and caringly taught them basic skills and gardening. About a hundred children attended the school in its 5 years of operation. Based on his experiences, Pestalozzi wrote many pamphlets and books on education, and many of his educational theories were captured in a character that cared for her own children, Gertrude, in his books Leonard and Gertrude and How Gertrude Teaches Her Children. Pestalozzi’s theories supported Rousseau’s, but he added that teachers should know child development and structure lessons around objects and places, teach from the concrete (simple) to the abstract (complex), and invite children to observe, inquire, and reason.
Elementary school teachers worldwide apply Pestalozzi’s method of instruction in their classrooms.

Friedrich Wilhelm August Froebel (1782–1852) graced elementary education with kindergarten. As a student of Pestalozzi and teacher at a Pestalozzian school in Frankfurt, Germany, Froebel was enthusiastic about fostering children’s creativity. He believed in play and the idea that children should be taught according to their interests. His students sat in circles, listened to stories, sang, danced, sewed, weaved, gardened, engaged in nature study, dramatics, construction, and so on. Kindergarten teachers today continue Froebel’s legacy and sit their students in circles, read to them, and plan for centers (e.g., drama, blocks and Legos, and watercolors and finger paints) that the children can use in their play.

Froebel opposed formalities in schools and wanted classrooms to have a spirit of joy and informality. He strove for social development among young children and believed that they should be in environments that encourage them to be courteous and helpful to one another. He expected children to play, work, and live together. His first kindergarten opened in 1837 and spread throughout Europe. The first public school kindergartens in this country opened in Boston, Cleveland, and St. Louis from 1870 to 1873, and by 1950 over 1 million children were enrolled in public school kindergartens that were housed in elementary schools.

SIGNIFICANT ISSUES TO IMPACT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Numerous childhood philosophers, education scholars, laws to secure the welfare of children, litigation decisions, and issues such as charter schools, privatization of public schools, bilingual education, home schooling, and high stakes testing have affected the evolution of elementary education. But the two most significant issues to impact elementary education are integration of children of color and mainstreaming of children with special needs.

Enslaved Africans in our early history were not systematically educated. In fact, early campaigns for a school system to improve society and teach a common set of values excluded African and Native American children. Schools were for White children. In 1895, when the U.S. Supreme Court decided that the Fourteenth Amendment’s (of the U.S. Constitution) wording “equal protection” could mean “separate but equal,” segregated education—separate schools based on race—was created. School buildings, teachers, equipment, and other conditions for African American children in segregated society were considered equal but were largely inferior to those of White children. The 1954 Supreme Court decision in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas and later Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act empowered the federal government to mandate desegregation of schools. This had a significant impact on elementary education, because as schools worked toward desegregation, teachers (at White schools) had to adjust to teaching all children, regardless of their skin color. At a time when many Whites believed that the African American children’s lack of “cultural enrichment” would lower the standards of White children and Black children would harm the White children, teachers had the task of teaching all children how to live and work in a society that was growing increasingly culturally diverse.

Children with special needs were not served or educated much better than children of color. Historically there were teachers devoted to children with special needs (e.g., Jean Marc Gaspard Itard, Philippe Pinel, Edouard Seguin, Louis Braille, Thomas H. Gallaudet, Samuel Gridley Howe, Dorothea Dix), but the public school provisions for such children did not occur in this country until the latter half of the twentieth century. The first group of children with special needs to receive a formal education were those who were deaf (in Boston in 1869), followed by children with mental retardation (in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1896), children with physical disabilities (in Chicago in 1899, Cleveland in 1901, and Baltimore in 1913), and children who were blind (in Chicago in 1900). Despite this initial progress, many education professionals falsely believed that the children were “too depressing and nauseating” and would “interfere” with the progress of normal children. For nearly three quarters of the twentieth century, countless children nationwide were excluded from general education classrooms and denied a right to a public education.

The Civil Rights movement, the Brown decision, and President John F. Kennedy’s formation of a federal commission on mental retardation paved the way for the 1975 passage of PL 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act. The act mandated that children with special needs had a legal right to a free, appropriate public education, in a least restricted
environment—the general education classroom. For the first time in our education history, all public elementary school teachers were required to know how to service children with special needs. Every state now mandates that teachers know (a) how to identify and refer children for special education, (b) how to adapt and modify instruction for children with a range of learning, emotional, and physical abilities, and (c) how to work collaboratively (and concurrently) with special education teachers, psychologists, social workers, audiologists, physical therapists, speech pathologists, occupational therapists, and counselors.

—David Campos

See also Bible, as history; Black education; boards of education; child development theories; civil rights movement; classroom management; constructivism; corporal punishment; counseling; creativity, theories of; curriculum, theories of; deaf education; desegregation, of schools; discipline in schools; discrimination; early childhood education; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; ethnicity; Indian education; individual differences, in children; Latinos; Mann, Horace; mental illness, in adults and children; minorities, in schools; No Child Left Behind; Plato; reading, history of, use in schools; reform, of schools; religion, in schools; restructuring, of schools; school districts, history and development; special education; standardized testing; testing and test theory development; textbooks

Further Readings and References


EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCE

Serious emotional disturbance (SED) for special education purposes is defined as a condition affecting learning, interpersonal relations, behavior, and feelings. The condition must be exhibited over a long period of time and to a marked degree while adversely affecting educational performance, and it cannot be explainable by intellectual, sensory, or other health factors. There have been three major issues related to the official definition. One was the inclusion of autistic children who were later excluded. Second is the exclusion of socially maladjusted children from service unless they otherwise meet the definition for SED. This exclusion continues to be an issue. Finally, there has been much debate about the label. Many states and professional groups have adopted the label emotional/behavior disorder (EBD) as both more descriptive and inclusive.

George Albee, in a 1968 address before the National Association for Mental Health, discussed the mental health needs of the American population and especially of children and adolescents. The model favored by Albee to meet these needs was an educational model. The proposed educational model employed three components to provide needed services: a new class of professionals more like schoolteachers than psychologists, a new type of service delivery more like a school than like a clinic, and interventions more like rehabilitation than like therapy. An approach similar to what Albee suggested is special education for seriously emotionally disturbed children and adolescents mandated by PL 94-142 in 1975 and its subsequent reauthorizations that are now referred to as IDEA.

In 2001, the school-age population of the United States and its territories was 50,223,669, of which 473,663 were classified as EBD. This suggests a prevalence of 0.94% based on identification for services. Research-based estimates, using the SED definition, for the actual prevalence of EBD range as high as 10%, which suggest that EBD students are grossly underidentified and underserved. Students classified as EBD comprise about 8% of the students in special education.

There are two major types of classification systems: qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative approach to classification has a clinical basis. One example of such a system is the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual IV-TR developed by the American Psychiatric Association. The quantitative approach bases categories on statistical procedures that identify behaviors that occur together and form a distinct
pattern. One example of such a system is the Child Behavior Profile developed by Thomas Achenbach and Craig Edelbrock.

The following two categories exist in teaching about EBD:

1. Conduct problems: Seen in (a) undersocialized aggressive children who are characterized by fighting, disruption, argumentativeness, destructiveness, selfishness, and defiance due to insufficient socialization, which may be exacerbated by temperament; (b) socialized aggressive children (aka socialized delinquents or socially maladjusted). The problems seen in this group are similar to those given for the undersocialized aggressive. What distinguishes this group is that problem behaviors usually represent adaptive behavior that takes place in a group context. Problems are due to deviant socialization that often takes place in a deviant peer group; (c) hyperactive children who have problems associated with high activity level and inadequate focus of attention, which are probably related to deficient arousal levels in the neocortex. Some of the problems typically seen include restlessness, nonpurposeful motor activity, and impulsiveness.

2. Emotional problems: Children with affect-based problems are often characterized by anxiety and avoidance behavior. These behaviors are believed to be due mostly to the interaction of biological predisposition, such as temperament with experience. Problems typically seen include fearfulness, phobic avoidance, social withdrawal, depression, compulsiveness, hypersensitivity, self-consciousness, and secretiveness.

One important question about EBD is, Where does this behavior come from? There are three major influences on all behavior. First, there are biological influences that occur before birth such as genetically transmitted predispositions like temperament. There are also influences that occur during or after birth such as disease (e.g., encephalitis) or brain damage caused by birth complications (e.g., anoxia). These influences are often thought to contribute to the development of behavioral disorders but not to directly cause them. Second, there are environmental influences such as culture, including ethnicity and social class. Home influences such as marital discord, adequacy of parenting skills, parental mental health, and the influence of siblings also influence the development of behavior. School likewise plays an important role in the development of behavior through teacher expectations, differential treatment of students by teachers, and school success or failure. Peers contribute to the socialization of sexual attitudes, sexual behavior, aggression, moral standards, and emotional expression. Third, there is the influence of self-agency or volitional choices made to achieve consistency between behavior and personal values and goals.

When looking at the types of problems observed in students with EBD, this writer classifies most problems into one of three domains. These domains are academic learning, social behavior, and emotional behavior. There are two basic approaches that can be taken to programming for problems in each domain. Reactive approaches are best suited to dealing with immediate presenting problems. These are problems that need to be addressed as they occur. Proactive approaches are more developmental in nature and are best suited to preventing future problems. They usually have little immediate impact on current presenting problems.

For the academic domain, a highly recommended reactive approach is direct instruction or precision teaching. The reactive approach recommended for social behavior is behavior modification based on operant learning theory. The reactive approach recommended for the emotional domain is behavior therapy based on respondent learning theory. For the longer term and with prevention in mind, a recommended proactive approach for the academic domain is learning strategies or study skills. Proactive programming in the social domain includes social skills instruction and character development activities. The recommended proactive strategy for the emotional domain is rational emotive education.

—David Center

See also affective domain; affective education; at-risk students; behaviorism; bullying; character education; classroom management; discipline in schools; dropouts; drug education; esteem needs; expulsion, of students; individual differences, in children; instructional interventions; mainstreaming and inclusion; mental illness, in adults and children; perceptual control theory; personality; special education; suicide, in schools; Three Factor Model; violence in schools

Further Readings and References
Empiricism

Empirical research often is associated with systematic scientific methodology based on observation and fact-based interpretation and frequently is contrasted with normative, or philosophical and value judgmental, research that empirical researchers often regard as anecdotal and unsystematic, which is more common in the humanities. Education research has a rich tradition of both quantitative and qualitative methods, both of which could be considered empirical in nature, although qualitative research may be regarded as having both empirical components (based on systematic analysis of data derived from focus groups, interviews, or documents) and a normative core of value-based interpretive inquiry. A solid discussion of the full spectrum of empirical research methods in education and related disciplines was provided by David Krathwohl in 1998.

Empiricism affirms that all knowledge is based on experience and denies the possibility of spontaneous ideas or a priori thought. The ideas motivating empiricism are traceable most directly to the English philosophers John Locke and Francis Bacon and are contrasted to the principles of rationalism, represented by René Descartes, Baruch Spinoza, and Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz, which asserts that reality may be recognized by pure reason independent of experience. In the United States, leading proponents of empiricism included William James and John Dewey, whose perspectives on society are integral to the development of education administration and research. Empiricism today refers particularly to the method of observation and experimentation that is used in the natural sciences.

One of the fundamental tenets of empiricism is that all knowledge is tentative and probabilistic, subject to continued revision and falsification. Skepticism, careful experimentation and observation, and the accurate collection and analysis of data are among the hallmarks of empirical research. Wholesale revision of dominant (paradigmatic) worldviews happens through the accumulation of new empirically derived evidence that contradicts previously held conclusions. The epistemological basis of empiricism lies in holding that knowledge is entirely a posteriori and does not exist without sensory experience. Furthermore, the tenuous nature of knowledge leads to the conclusion that some realities may be unknowable because they are not capable of being experienced.

The gold standard for education research to be acceptable to the U.S. Department of Education, as provided for in Public Law 107-110 (the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001) and the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002, is a contemporary application of the tenets of empiricism. The premise of federal requirements for education research to be fundable is that it come as close as possible to the medical model of clinical trials. That is, education research must establish “strong” evidence that it includes randomized controlled trials that are well designed and implemented, and the quantity of evidence needed spans trials showing effectiveness in two or more typical school settings, including a setting similar to that of schools/classrooms. “Possible” evidence may include randomized controlled trials whose quality/quantity are good but fall short of “strong” evidence and/or comparison-group studies in which the intervention and comparison groups are very closely matched in academic achievement, demographics, and other characteristics.

Rigorous evidence for identifying and implementing educational practices includes the use of randomized controlled trials, which, when well designed and implemented, are considered the gold standard for evaluating an intervention’s effectiveness. Evaluating whether an intervention is backed by “strong” evidence of effectiveness hinges on randomized controlled trials that are well designed and implemented, demonstrating that there are no systematic differences between intervention and control groups before the intervention, the use of measures and instruments of proven validity, “real-world” objective measures of the outcomes that the intervention is designed to affect, attrition of no more than 25% of the original sample, effect size combined with statistical significance, an adequate sample size to achieve statistical significance, and controlled trials implemented in more than one site in schools that represent a cross section of all schools. Enforcement and interpretation of these canons of contemporary education research is guided by the Institute of Education Sciences.

—Mack C. Shelley
Empowerment is described as the opportunities a person has for power, choice, autonomy, and responsibility. The literature on organizational management and sociology of work indicates that empowerment is an alteration in the distribution of power in the workplace.

The process of empowerment allows individuals to develop the competence to be responsible for their own growth and to resolve their own problems. The process also allows individuals to participate in a more active manner, one that influences community governance and social concerns. With empowerment, individuals are free to do what makes sense, as long as the decisions embody the values shared by the community.

Six aspects identified as strengthening empowerment include (1) decision making—involvement of teachers in decisions that directly affect their work, (2) professional growth—the school provides teachers with opportunities to grow and develop, (3) status—teachers have professional respect for each other and have the support of their colleagues, (4) self-efficacy—teachers perceive that they have the skills and ability to help students learn, (5) autonomy—teachers believe that they control certain aspects of their professional life, and (6) impact—teachers have an effect and influence on school life.

TEACHER EMPOWERMENT

Teacher empowerment supports increasing teacher involvement in decisions that affect the school as a whole as well as the classroom, creating organizational arrangements that involve teachers in decision making, and establishing a sense of autonomy for teachers. Teacher empowerment has had a demonstrated effect on the following: enhanced teacher self-esteem, increased teacher knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy, enhanced staff collegiality, improved curriculum and instruction, and higher student achievement.

As a component of empowerment, shared decision making becomes an integral part in understanding the principal’s use of power and teacher empowerment. Principals act as facilitators rather than using their position to exert or influence decisions. Teachers, in turn, need to be comfortable participating in the decision-making process and to realize their input is valued. The relationship between principals and teachers also plays a role in empowerment. Teachers’ perceptions of principals’ trustworthiness, credibility, and competence influence the aspects of empowerment.

Complex change in education sometimes requires top-down or external initiation, but if change is to occur and be sustained, there needs to be shared control and decision making. While the initiative often comes from the principal, shared decision making is critical from that point onward. Principals support and stimulate initiative taking by others; organize cross-hierarchical groups involving teachers, administrators, parents, and students; and delegate authority and resources to the groups.

There are three other points of consideration involving empowerment. First, the development of groups responsible for significant tasks results in a peer interaction that enhances both pressure and support for accomplishing tasks. This type of peer interaction proves to be more powerful than the traditional hierarchical process. Second, empowerment involves more time, money, and personnel, necessary resources for the results. Third, empowerment requires developing a different mindset about the roles of diversity, conflict, and resistance. Diversity encourages a broader range of ideas and solutions. Because conflict is necessary in working out new productive skills, conflict
management skills are essential. Resistance, which may occur with various individuals, can be minimized by listening and being open to new possibilities.

—Jean M. Haar

See also creativity, theories of; governance

Further Readings and References


ENGAGEMENT

Engagement is a complex psychological concept with important implications for schools and student learning. Simply defined, engagement is a term describing involvement, commitment, or investment. School engagement refers to the student’s psychological investment in learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that is focused on academic work.

Engagement is multifaceted with behavioral, cognitive, and emotional dimensions. Behavioral engagement has three dimensions: positive conduct, involvement in learning and academic tasks, and participation in school-related activities. Students who are engaged behaviorally will follow rules, adhere to norms and demonstrate effort and persistence, concentrate, be attentive, ask questions, and contribute to class discussion.

Emotional engagement refers to the student’s affective experience in the classroom. Students with a high level of engagement, for example, may find the classroom interesting and experience enjoyment, excitement, and a sense of accomplishment, empowerment, and belonging. For students with low engagement, the classroom may be associated with feelings of boredom, sadness, anxiety, failure, powerlessness, rejection, and alienation. Cognitive engagement refers to psychological investment in learning and use of self-regulating learning strategies. Indicators of cognitive engagement include a desire to go beyond the requirements, a preference for challenge, flexibility in problem solving, positive coping, or resilience.

In general, engagement is associated with intrinsic motivation; the desire to succeed reflects a value for learning and mastery rather than simply an effort to achieve extrinsic rewards. While some dimensions of engagement are observable, others are not. Similarly, not all observable behaviors are reliable indicators of engagement. Students twiddling their thumbs, for example, may be deeply absorbed in the class. In contrast, students who raise their hands regularly and complete all assignments on time may have little real investment in learning. While engagement can vary in intensity and duration, being short term and situation specific or long term and stable, it most likely builds on itself. At the same time, it is malleable.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ENGAGEMENT

Engagement is a precursor for learning, but not necessarily for academic success. Disengagement, associated with behavioral problems, academic failure, and school dropout, is a pervasive problem in secondary schools but particularly so for urban, low-income students. Levels of engagement, and motivation, decline steadily as students progress from elementary to middle and high schools, with from 40% to 60% of high school students being chronically disengaged.

WHAT ACCOUNTS FOR ENGAGEMENT?

Engagement is the result of an interaction involving an individual in context in which there is response variation. In terms of student engagement, the school context makes a difference. Research underscores the powerful effects of students’ demographic and social circumstances on their educational attainment and achievement.

The effect of the educational context on engagement is partially mediated by psychological variables, particularly students’ beliefs about competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Learning situations will be more engaging to the extent that they address students’ needs for competence, autonomy, and belonging. Simply explained, in the learning situation, students need to believe they are able to
succeed, that they have personal control in the environment, and that they are respected, valued, and cared for by adults and peers. While distinct, these needs are integral and interdependent, and engagement will be more evident to the extent that the needs are met. Because the needs are situation specific, students may be highly engaged in one classroom and not another, and levels of student engagement may differ noticeably between schools. Students’ beliefs about themselves as learners grow out of their experience in schools and classrooms. While deeply embedded negative beliefs may be difficult to counteract, changes in context can facilitate change and revitalize students’ beliefs and enthusiasm.

How can schools promote students’ sense of competence, autonomy, and belonging? Within classrooms and schools, a number of factors enhance students’ psychological experience and facilitate engagement. In general, these relate to the nature of the work and the quality of interpersonal relationships within the workplace.

The term academic press refers to a comprehensive and focused emphasis on student learning. In schools and classrooms, there are high expectations that all children will succeed and a curriculum with tasks that are challenging but achievable and authentic. Expectations are clearly defined, and instruction is explicit but flexible, permitting and supporting different approaches to learning. Adequate resources support learning goals, and assessment procedures reflect clearly defined criteria and provide timely, frequent, and useful feedback to guide and encourage self-assessment, self-regulation, and improvement. The culture emphasizes task performance rather than ability, with emphasis on individual improvement, mastery, and creativity rather than high grades or other extrinsic indicators of success.

Where student engagement is high, classrooms and schools function as learning communities. The culture is characterized by shared values, a common purpose, clear and consistent goals, and a commitment to student learning. There is an ethic of caring, and relationships among adults and students are marked by personalized support, respect, fairness, and trust. The culture is empowering, encouraging student responsibility and initiative, and providing opportunities for choice, participation in problem analysis and decision making, and self-determination. The culture also ensures opportunity for collaborative and supportive interaction among peers, within and between classes.

Organizational arrangements, like block scheduling, looping, learning communities or schools within a school, and teaming, do not contribute to engagement, but they establish conditions that may improve learning and facilitate the development of personalized and supportive relationships. School size is also linked to engagement, again because it is difficult to create the conditions necessary to address students’ psychological needs in large schools that are highly bureaucratized and impersonal, employ tracking, restrict choice and participation, and adopt rigid authoritarian, punishment oriented or inequitable disciplinary policies.

Schools, while playing a direct and important role in shaping student engagement, benefit from the involvement of family and the larger community. By reaching out to and working closely with families and community organizations and representatives, schools can help to ensure a full range of services designed to meet the physical, psychological, social, and educational needs of students and thereby support student engagement.

—Karen F. Osterman

See also action learning; affective domain; affective education; at-risk students; attitudes toward work; authority; belonging; child development theories; classroom management; class size; climate, school; cognition, theories of; collaboration theory; communities, types, building of; competition, forms of, in schools; consideration, caring; democracy, democratic education and administration; discipline in schools; discrimination; dropouts; empowerment; equality, in schools; esprit (school climate); esteem needs; expectations, teacher and student cultures; feedback; flow theory; high schools; individual differences, in children; middle schools; minorities, in schools; motivation, theories of; partnerships, interagency; peer interaction/friendships; school size; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References
ENROLLMENT PROJECTIONS

Accurate enrollment projections provide a cornerstone for the development of short- and long-range plans of school districts. At a minimum, successful forecasting of enrollments will guide the development of facilities, hiring of staff, the acquisition of equipment, and provide crucial information for budget development.

NATIONAL PROJECTIONS

National forecasts are published by the National Center for Education Statistics, and typically these projections are made for 10 years from the year of publication. The predictions are useful for those who are concerned with national educational policy and practice. The most recent publication at the time of this writing—in 2003 from the National Center for Education Statistics—includes projections of enrollment (kindergarten through 8th grade, and 9th grade through 12th grade) through 2013, public and private school teachers through 2013, and expenditures per pupil of public elementary and secondary schools.

Typically, these projections are quite accurate. The most accurate projections are those made for 1 and 2 years from the date of publication, while those for 5 and 10 years from date of publication are slightly less accurate. For example, the mean percentage errors for public K–8 enrollment over 20 editions of the publication were 0.3%, 0.6%, 1.1%, and 2.7% for projections 1, 2, 5, and 10 years from date of publication. A pocket-sized edition of the publication also is available. These publications are available without charge and can be downloaded from the National Center for Education Statistics web site (http://nces.ed.gov).

STATE PROJECTIONS

The U.S. Census Bureau provides projections of population change for the various states. This information would be helpful to people involved in planning activities for state governments, education agencies, and the like. A variety of Web sites are available that provide information about the population of each state and political subdivisions therein. For example, information at http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/index.html allows the user to access information related to the population of the 50 states, as well as each county, by age and other factors. The American Community Survey Web site (http://www.census.gov/acs/www/Products/Profiles/Single/2002/ACS/index.htm) provides information that also can be useful in understanding the characteristics of the population of a state. Data organized by state, congressional districts, counties, and some metropolitan statistical areas are included on this Web site.

SCHOOL DISTRICT PROJECTIONS

Predicting enrollments in local school districts can be a complex task. A common approach used by school districts to project enrollments from 1 year to the next is the cohort survival rate. One study demonstrated that this technique was more accurate than the Percentage-Survival Method or the Law of Growth Method of Forecasting. Several examples below illustrate how the cohort survival technique has been used to forecast enrollments.

The New England School Development Council uses the cohort survival rate and points out that it takes into account several factors that are crucial in projecting enrollments:

- Migration, in or out, of the schools
- Retention in the same grade
- Changes in the school program
- Dropouts, transfers, and so on
- Births and deaths
- Housing growth

One must also add private/parochial school memberships and special education student memberships to this list of factors. In contemporary society, decisions to homeschool students also can affect enrollment projections.

The cohort survival technique was used by the East Haddam, Connecticut, Board of Education in developing a long-range facilities plan. Kindergarten enrollment is based on births 5 years prior to the enrollment projection year, and a persistence ratio is calculated for each succeeding year. This is done by dividing 5 years of a specific grade’s enrollment by a second sum of 5 years’ enrollment, offset by one year. The resulting ratio is the persistence ratio. For example, if 600 students enrolled in second grade districtwide in 2004, and 550 students enrolled in first grade the year before, the cohort survival rate would be 1.09, meaning that more than one student who had enrolled in first grade the previous year enrolled in second grade the year before. That means that the net additional students
came from some source other than the previous grade, such as a new housing development, the merger of two school districts, or some other source.

The Williamsburg-James City, Virginia, County Public Schools uses an approach that includes building a cohort survival rate based on 3 and 6 years of history. The planning document asserts, however, that projections of future enrollment are only an estimate, and that predicting an entire district’s enrollment is likely more accurate than estimates for particular grades in specific schools.

The Miami-Dade County, Florida, School Board is challenged to project enrollment for several reasons. The district is large, and the population within it is fluid. The district predicts that it will need 13 new elementary schools, 20 middle schools, and 12 high schools over a period of 15 years. Miami-Dade’s situation also includes several factors that can completely upset enrollment projections—the effect of Hurricane Andrew (a natural disaster), an unexpected wave of immigrants, or the children of migrant workers. These factors can render the best developed plan inaccurate.

Buffalo, New York, has just the opposite problem. The enrollment of its schools is declining. Buffalo has experienced a decline in the child-bearing population, old housing (the majority of Buffalo’s housing was constructed prior to 1939), the highest percentage of vacant housing (16%) in the city’s history, and a growing charter school movement. Buffalo decided to develop plans for a 12% decline, but added that it planned to monitor student locations, charter school enrollments, housing, and employment data in forecasting enrollments.

A variety of factors can confound the cohort survival rate approach to projecting enrollments. Among the variables identified by G. Kent Stewart in 1999 are such factors as the presence of foster and group homes, multifamily homes, mobile home park developments, young families returning home temporarily, farm consolidation, highway development, corporate changes, and the impact of good schools. All of these factors will influence enrollment, in some cases resulting in an enrollment increase, while in others, enrollment could decline.

In the final analysis, forecasting enrollments is a complex activity. Nevertheless, careful thought and attention to detail can result in very accurate predictions and build a foundation for the district’s programs and services.

See also accountability; class size; planning models; staffing, concepts of

Further Readings and References


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Entropy

Entrophy is the term used to describe how natural and social systems move from a state of order to disorder. While the concept may seem esoteric, entropy means a “change in state” (from the Greek entrope, change). It is used to describe what would appear to be the spontaneous movement of naturally occurring systems from higher to lower states of order. The concept has been borrowed by social scientists to explain why social systems such as formal and informal organizations exhibit similar tendencies and to provoke thought on what can be done to counteract such tendencies when needed.

ENTROPY IN NATURAL SYSTEMS

To help understand the concept of entropy from a social science perspective, its origins in systems theory and the natural sciences must be considered. While the most common meaning of entropy in the natural sciences is the spontaneous dynamic and flow from order to disorder, the concept has also been used in reference to the following: a system’s inability to do work, the measure of disorder in a system, or a system’s tendency to enter a more probable state.
Natural scientists use entropy to explain the breakdown of natural systems. The irreversible increase of nondisposable energy in the universe is what physicist Rudolf Clausius first described as entropy in 1865. The first and second laws of thermodynamics provide a further context for understanding this concept. As the principle of the conservation of energy, the first law states that the total quantity of energy in the universe remains constant. The second law of thermodynamics states that the quality of this energy is degraded irreversibly (i.e., the principle of the degradation of energy). Thus understood, entropy is derived from the second law of thermodynamics called Carnot’s principle. This law states that there is a hierarchy of energy forms and an imbalance of energy transformations within the universe. Regardless of the form energy takes, the amount of energy in the universe remains constant. While other forms of energy can be changed into heat, the reverse—changing heat into physical energy—cannot occur without outside help or without a loss of energy in the form of irretrievable heat (the most degraded form of energy). While this does not mean that the energy is destroyed, it does mean that such energy is unavailable for producing work.

As a concept, entropy is not limited to discussions of energy. Within the context of statistics, it can also be conceptualized in terms of probable states, that is, statistical entropy. Convention holds that because the number of orderly states in a system are relatively fewer than the number of disorderly states, random change to a system will more likely reduce rather than increase its order. This is the basic principle behind gambling and other systems that capitalize on the higher relative chance of outcomes that fail to produce an orderly pattern. Orderly outcomes are commonly assumed to express some sort of regularity. However, regularity often depends on context. Orderly patterns and their relative number depend on who makes the observation. Order depends upon the environment in which it occurs and thus can be understood as the interaction between an observer and the system or a relationship shared between subject and object.

ENTROPY, SELF-ORGANIZATION, AND HOMEOSTASIS IN SOCIAL SYSTEMS

Within the context of these conceptualizations from the natural sciences, entropy has been used by social scientists to describe interactions within various kinds of social systems. It is one of several defining concepts associated with systems theory (e.g., homeostasis, equilibrium, environment). Entropy describes one of two mutually connected forces that govern the creation and dissolution of order within social systems. The second force—self-organization (also known as autopoiesis or negentropy)—refers to the spontaneous emergence and maintenance of order from a disordered context. Using the character of the relationship shared between an organization and its environment as the basis for differentiation, such organizations can be conceptualized as closed, natural, or open social systems. Within each of these frameworks, systems tend toward a state of homeostasis or balance between the countervailing forces of entropy and self-organization in different ways.

Looking at organizations as closed systems, systems in advanced states of order become inflexible as overly ordered system elements lose their ability to interrelate. Entropy functions to counteract this tendency by driving overly ordered systems back toward homeostasis. Similarly, those systems in advanced states of chaos become limp and relationally incompetent, and self-organization prevents this by driving overly chaotic systems back toward homeostasis. Looked at in terms of probable states, closed systems achieve homeostasis when the tendency toward greater order has the same probability of occurring as the tendency toward greater chaos.

Within a natural open systems framework, the external environment plays a key role in organizational survival. In terms of entropy, an organization survives to the extent it can imbibe energy from the environment within which it resides. Both overly ordered and overly chaotic social systems are forced to adapt to a changing environment by changing to meet its demands.

An open systems perspective recognizes that organizations both respond to and influence the environment within which they reside. In order to achieve homeostasis, open systems must both receive energy from the environment and expel energy into the environment. Entropy and self-organization play into this perception of organizations in terms of the likelihood of the organization remaining in its current state within the environment relative to the likelihood of it changing as a result of pressures the environment places on the system or, more important, pressures the system places on the environment. Entropy in open systems thus becomes a vital force for change within organizations as they expel energy that is no longer useful for their functioning into the environment.
(where it is presumably absorbed) and as they take in useful energy from the environment.

**ENTROPY, EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS, AND LEADERS**

Entropy as conceptualized in each of the above frameworks has different properties and effects on organizations. However, with each approach, entropy serves both destructive and constructive functions. The concept of entropy helps explain why organizations seem to change gradually over time and why organizational change efforts often meet with resistance and require energy/effort. For school leaders, entropy may help explain why change initiatives lose their effectiveness with time, why teachers resist change efforts, or why unanticipated consequences arise from change efforts. It may also be used to inform leadership decisions regarding the most appropriate response to change dynamics with the larger school organization.

—Michael A. Owens and Bob L. Johnson Jr.

See also boundaries of systems; bureaucracy; management theories; organizational theories; systemic reform

**Further Readings and References**


**ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY**

Environmental sustainability involves the adoption of a new vision and practice that responds to the profound challenges posed to contemporary societies by short-term and environmentally destructive practices. The first worldwide forum that combined environmental sustainability and education took place at the 1975 International Workshop on Environmental Education held in Belgrade, Yugoslavia. The workshop, sponsored by the United Nations, put forth a document known as the Belgrade Charter that offered a global framework for environmental education. Since then, numerous international declarations have exhorted governments and organizations worldwide to redirect their educational efforts toward protecting the integrity of the environment and its natural resources for present and future generations. In practice, the vast majority of educational institutions have focused on complementing the study of the natural sciences with outdoor education as a way of expanding classroom instruction. Since the 1990s, however, a growing number of academic institutions have extended this focus to include an overall philosophical umbrella centered around “place”; this focus includes, among other areas, the convergence of multiple disciplines along environmental themes, the promotion of environmental protection in career and technical education, and the greening of the day-to-day operations of K–16 campuses.

**EARLY PEDAGOGUES AND THE ENVIRONMENT**

The efforts by the United Nations and other international organizations to promote environmental sustainability are the most recent manifestations of theory and practice advocated by educational leaders worldwide since at least the eighteenth century. Swiss educators Jean-Jacques Rousseau and Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi were two of the earliest pedagogues who advocated that children should have direct sensory contact with the natural world to develop a healthy personality. German educator Friedrich Froebel, the founding father of the kindergarten movement, further developed these ideas. Influenced by Christian ideals, Froebel believed that God was the unifying force that brought together humankind and nature, and it was incumbent upon educators to nurture in children a strong sense of continuity with the natural world. Froebel was one of the first to discuss a pedagogy of place as a way of promoting individual autonomy and ensuring the unity of selfhood with the living and nonliving world. Another leading educator who
recognized the pivotal role that the natural environment plays in enhancing the cognitive and emotional well-being of children was the Italian pedagogue Maria Montessori. Without subscribing to the romanticism and mysticism characteristic of Froebel, she nonetheless agreed that involving children in real stories of the universe opened endless possibilities that would inspire their imagination.

For Montessori, the universe story provided the background for much of the content of the elementary curriculum. According to her, this content helped facilitate a biological and psychological connection between children and nature, and ultimately satisfied children’s search for a sense of meaning and purpose in the world. A contemporary of Montessori’s from a different part of the world was the poet and educator Rabindranath Tagore. He challenged the anthropocentrism of his contemporaries by stating that to take destructively and wastefully from nature was in fact severing humanity from itself. Founding Santiniketan, a school near Calcutta, India, in 1901, Tagore believed that learning should integrate the intellectual, emotional, physical, and spiritual domains. Like Froebel and Montessori, Tagore supported gardening as a key strategy for allowing children their first glimpses of the wonders of nature, the interdependence of living things, and an incipient sense of responsibility and duty. Gardening also was a way to involve children in the ongoing cyclical process of birth, growth, decay, and rebirth of life. He also encouraged the idea that in order to love something, one needed to truly know it. For instance, children could not learn to care for the forest from afar; they needed to walk, sing, eat, meditate, laugh, and sleep in its midst. Tagore even suggested that children should walk barefoot in the forest, as feet were the limbs best adapted for intimately knowing the earth by their touch.

Froebel, Montessori, and Tagore were certainly not the only educators to advocate the integration of nature in schooling, but they are emblematic of those who considered the experiences of children incomplete if they were not associated with the mysteries of the natural world. Whereas their philosophies have greatly influenced primary-level education, they have yet to exert any widespread influence at the secondary and tertiary levels.

A PEDAGOGY OF PLACE

A pedagogy of place has been variously called ecological education, place-based education, community-oriented schooling, and environmental education. Advocates of this pedagogy have put forward four main reasons for the inclusion of place and environmental protection in modern education. First, place and the environment unveil a key omission in modern education: it celebrates everything human but fails to acknowledge the complete dependency of the social world on the natural one. As a result, students grow up without an understanding of the importance of the environment. Second, place helps overcome the fragmentation of knowledge typical of modern education. This fragmentation prevents children from understanding the complexity and diversity of natural places, such as wetlands—among the most important ecosystems on earth, wetlands are vital for filtering water and air, preventing floods, providing a habitat for a wealth of flora and fauna, and reinvigorating the economy—which can only be responsibly analyzed through an interdisciplinary curriculum. Third, place challenges the abstractness of modern education by lending specificity to the theoretical and intangible concepts learned in the classroom. And fourth, place offers students the opportunity to develop a sense of stewardship toward nature through experiential activities (e.g., field trips, community service, service learning) that have the environment as its main focus.

Gardening offers a clear illustration of a pedagogy of place. Following the teachings of early pedagogues of nature, schools worldwide have set up organic gardens maintained by staff and students. Thereby, students learn the manual skills related to cultivation and harvesting and, depending on the program, may also learn skills related to food preparation and entrepreneurship (through selling the produce or prepared foods). Often, schools adopt the garden as a thematic unit for the curriculum:

- In natural sciences students explore plant and insect identification, biology, and ecosystem functioning.
- In math they average crop yields, calculate volume and weight of seeds and produce, and measure quantities for recipes.
- In social studies they analyze the social and economic consequences of capital-intensive versus labor-intensive farming and of synthetic-based versus natural-based agriculture.
- In language arts they focus on ancient and modern stories, poems, and legends around food cultivation and harvesting.
In fine arts and performance arts they deal with painting, dance, theater, sculpture, and other art forms that center on gardens and food.

Through community service students donate the harvest, share their knowledge and skills, and make exhibits for various community events.

School gardens can also bring together the school and community in ways that privilege ancestral knowledge and practices, some of which may originate in indigenous communities. The role of elders is particularly important given that often they are the sole repositories of a community’s lore. Through such collaborations, schools have recovered and included in their regular schedules festivals, dances, games, and other communal celebrations that acknowledge the relationship between the community and its surroundings; legends, stories, and poems that describe the dramatic transformation suffered by natural habitats under industrialization and the expansion of urban areas; and other noncommodified forms of knowledge such as ethnobotany, which values plants for other than their edible use. Students thus learn to cultivate plants that can be used for medicines, clothing, shelter, household goods, and religious ceremonies.

**ECOLOGICAL CAREER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION**

In addition to organic gardening and agricultural skills, proponents of connecting schooling and nature support making other vocational activities an integral component in the development of an ethic of care. Introducing students to career and technical activities that help preserve the natural environment prepares a new generation of adults with vital skills for preserving the integrity of the natural environment. This is particularly important for children from low-income families—generally the chief enrollees in vocational education programs—who tend to live in rural and urban neighborhoods that are disproportionately exposed to dangerous environmental conditions (e.g., water and air pollution; hazardous levels of asbestos, lead, and other materials in homes; inadequate sewage systems; heavy deforestation). With their newly acquired skills, students can pursue postsecondary education or employment opportunities that can ameliorate these conditions.

Some examples of alternative occupations being taught in secondary-level vocational education are ecological architecture, through which students learn to design, build, and renovate homes and other buildings using sustainable, recyclable, and energy-efficient materials; ecotourism, in which they learn to promote the cultural and natural beauty of the area while minimizing the human footprint; self-sufficient, organic farming that integrates livestock and agriculture; outdoor education for young children to teach them to appreciate nature; the design of energy-efficient computer and electronic equipment; solid waste recycling; and park management.

Just as in any form of economic production, each of these examples involves a transformation of energy and matter, which inevitably carries with it an environmental impact. Teaching students how to do life-cycle assessments—which measure the environmental cost of a product from the moment the raw materials are extracted to the moment the product is thrown away and decomposes—and to come up with less damaging alternatives can greatly increase their ecological awareness and skills while increasing their future employability.

**GREEN CAMPUSES**

Academic institutions consume vast amounts of water, food, energy, toxic materials, and other products, and generate large quantities of organic and inorganic waste. Yet increasingly around the world educational institutions are recognizing that they can model the art of living responsibly by minimizing the environmental impact of their physical campuses. Perhaps the earliest international effort in this regard occurred in Talloires, France, in 1990, where representatives of universities worldwide got together to discuss ways in which their institutions could use their daily operations, teaching, research, and outreach to implement programs that promote resource conservation, energy efficiency, recycling, and waste reduction. This movement has been influencing K–12 schools to follow suit. Some of the targeted areas include the following:

- Water and energy: Reduction of water and energy consumption through campaigns that address the behavior of students and staff; the installation of water- and energy-conserving fixtures (e.g., low-flow toilets and faucets, room-occupancy sensors); the use of drought-tolerant plants and native species in landscaping; and the incorporation of passive solar building design into future buildings.
• Food: Offering food services that privilege organically and locally grown items, that use fewer processed foods, and that offer more vegetarian menu options.
• Procurement: Purchasing reusable, recyclable, and nontoxic products and those made from recyclable materials; buying non–chlorine-bleached paper; acquiring energy-efficient computers and other electronic equipment; and purchasing wood products harvested sustainably.
• Solid waste: Reduction of solid waste generation through the composting of food waste from cafeterias and a campuswide recycling program that covers paper, glass, aluminum cans, and plastics.
• Transportation: Offering reduced-price and preferential parking for carpools, subsidizing staff and student use of public transportation, and retrofitting fleet vehicles to use clean fuels (e.g., solar energy, natural gas).

In terms of a pedagogy of place, K–16 school campuses offer myriad possibilities for studying their locality. Teachers and students can explore such questions as, Where do the water, electricity, and food used on campus come from, and at what environmental cost? How clean is the water? What are the principal sources of energy (e.g., hydroelectric, coal, natural gas, methane)? How much water and electricity are consumed annually and at what financial cost? How does this campus compare with institutions of similar size? What forests were cut down to supply the institution with paper? How many vehicles travel to campus daily and how much pollution is generated? Where do the campus garbage and sewage go? How much of the garbage is deposited in a landfill, incinerated, recycled, and composted? The sources of the energy and materials that enter the campus, and the sites where the wastes are eventually deposited, are some of the least discussed issues in the curriculum, yet they constitute exceptional opportunities to discuss from an interdisciplinary perspective the relationship between the student, the campus, and the larger ecosystem.

—Alberto Arenas

See also adolescence; aesthetics, in education; affective education; child development theories; civics, civic education; community education; contextual knowledge; curriculum, theories of; elementary education; extracurricular activities; learning, theories of; life-span development; middle schools; Montessori, Maria; motivation, theories of; philosophies of education; reform, of schools; science, in curriculum

Further Readings and References

EQUALITY, IN SCHOOLS

Equality connotes sameness and the absence of discrimination, while equity refers to fairness and social justice. By the twentieth century, schooling had been identified as crucial in connection with an individual’s economic and social success; consequently, schooling assumed an importance for fulfilling the practical expression of equality.

Beginning with the 1954 U.S. Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. Board of Education*, and continuing with a steady increase in federal government programs in the 1960s and the education finance reform efforts in the 1970s, a major portion of mid- and late-twentieth-century education policy was directed at achieving greater equality. Equity in education has revolved around such issues as gender, race, socioeconomic status, disabilities, and fiscal equity.

GENDER

The goal of gender equity is to build learning environments where neither boys nor girls feel confined by stereotypes and expectations about who they are. Both boys and girls exhibit different strengths and have different needs; thus gender stereotypes can shortchange both genders. The research findings on the cost of gender bias are (a) concerning grades and tests, females receive better grades; males receive lower grades and are more likely to be grade repeaters, (b) with academic enrollment, females have increased their enrollment in science and mathematic course in recent years; however, male enrollment is higher in physics, calculus, and more advanced courses, (c) college programs
remain highly segregated, with women obtaining the majority of degrees in education, nursing, home economics, library science, psychology, and social work; men lag behind women in degree attainment, with particular underrepresentation of African American and Hispanic males, (d) concerning academic interactions, females have fewer academic contacts with instructors, while males tend to receive more teacher attention. Females are more likely to be invisible members of classrooms; males receive more attention, but that attention may be negative. One federal regulation that has affected gender equity is Title IX. In 1972, Title IX influenced gender issues involving equality with academics and extracurricular activities. Title IX states, “No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, denied the benefits of, or be subject to discrimination under any educational programs or activity receiving federal financial funds.”

RACE

The continuing segregation of students on the basis of race and ethnicity is a trend that has been escalating. Issues surrounding segregation include (a) African Americans experiencing the largest backward movement toward segregation since the Brown v. Board of Education decision, (b) Latinos becoming the most segregated of all ethnic groups—not just in race and ethnicity but also poverty, and (c) minority students being overrepresented in the public school special education population. The achievement gap between White students and students of color is also growing. Although the gap was reduced by about half between 1970 and 1988, it has been widening since then. The reversal is evident in grades, test scores, dropout rates, and other indicators, and it has taken place in every type of school district and in all socioeconomic groups.

SOCIOECONOMIC

Issues of equity also surface concerning low-income students. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was established to improve schooling in high poverty areas and to close the achievement gap between students of low and high socioeconomic status. Research provides evidence that Title I students demonstrated the greatest improvements during the 1960s and 1970s. Improvements were not as notable in the 1980s and 1990s; however, in January 2002, Title I received the largest funding increase in its history. The new Title I requires stronger accountability mandates, holds schools and districts responsible for achievement outcomes, and expects schools to use scientifically based research.

DISABILITIES

In an effort to address equity for children with disabilities, the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) was established. The intent of IDEA is to provide a free appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment for children with disabilities from ages 3 through 21 and early intervention services for infants and toddlers from birth through age 2 and their families.

The Special Educational Needs and Disability Act of 2001 makes it unlawful for schools, colleges, and other education providers to discriminate against disabled people. The main provisions became effective in September 2002 through an amendment to the Disability Discrimination Act. Schools must take reasonable measures to amend any policies, procedures, or practices that may discriminate. Ensuring that staff is adequately trained, ensuring that facilities are in place, and auditing the physical environment and planning for improved access are areas that educators need to address. Disabled students may not be treated less favorably or placed at a substantial disadvantage.

FISCAL

States usually delegate responsibility for K–12 education to local school districts and then design complex formulas to govern how state funds are distributed. The result is an unequal distribution of funds, because wealthy districts can raise large amounts of money with lower tax rates than poorer districts.

Fiscal equality is often viewed from three principles: horizontal, vertical, and equal educational opportunity. Horizontal equity assumes that all students have the same educational needs and that equity is achieved when they receive equal resources. Vertical equity considers discrepancies in school funding equitable when they are due to factors related to educational needs, such as conditions of poverty and/or physical or mental disabilities. Equal education opportunity exists when no unjust differences exist among expenditures based on race, gender, or national origin.

—Jean M. Haar
Equity and Adequacy of Funding Schools

Equity in funding education in America has become one of if not the most critical issue over the past decade. Litigation based on state constitutionality of funding systems for education is prevalent in state and federal courts across the nation. Both sides, property poor and rich public school districts, have banded together, forming coalitions to challenge the legality and constitutional appropriateness of state educational funding formulas and methods of financial resource distribution. In federal courts, litigation has been filed based on the Fourteenth Amendment, equal protection under the law clause, resulting in little effect on fairness in funding education.

Over the past three decades, public school finance court decisions have been predominantly in favor of the property poor plaintiffs. The initiative to reform school finance in many states has fallen victim to political pressures, legislative manipulation and lobby interest. As a result, two camps of judicial theory emerged in the 1990s: (1) those courts that ruled their states’ school finance systems invalid and called for a quality education and (2) those courts that upheld their states’ school finance systems, thus validating the provision of a minimal, basic education to their citizens. Case law once based on the issues of educational “equity,” “equality,” and/or “efficiency” has recently turned toward a more accountable standard known as “adequacy” of funding for education. After three distinct waves of challenges and litigation on the issues, the attempt to equalize funding has resulted in minimal impact on schools in states that continue to rely on real property as a major source of tax base.

Beginning with Texas in 1989, state courts have been influential in establishing a new wave of decisions based on standards of inputs and outputs. Ground-breaking decisions in Kentucky, Montana, Ohio, and New Jersey have opened the door for a higher standard focusing on quality of education. This wave of decisions initiated and shaped advancements in constitutionally required standards for quality of education. In addition, court-established standards of measurement for inputs and outcomes resulted from these cases. As a final point, adequacy over and above equity emerged as the expected measurement of excellence in school finance reform and the benchmark test for the courts.

EQUITY

Equity refers to the fairness in funding of education. However, many definitions of equity have emerged through legal challenges and court decisions. Making determinations about equity for school finance policy involves value judgments that are embodied in the equity concept employed. Decisions based on equity, without a doubt, have significant consequences, and the definition is of stellar importance. Entrenched beliefs, mores, attitudes, and opinions play a vital role in the development of valid definitions of equity, which ultimately creates the basis for debate of the issue.

One of the most significant challenges related to school funding originated in Texas, where five court challenges were litigated in federal and state courts during the 1980s and 1990s. Originally filed in federal court and heard by the U.S. Supreme Court, San Antonio v. Rodriguez resulted in a verdict yielding the state of Texas public school funding system as constitutional under the Fourteenth Amendment equal protection standard. Though constitutional, the state
was warned by the Supreme Court that the system was marginally sufficient. In subsequent litigation in 1989, the Mexican-American Legal Defense and Education Fund (MALDEF) filed the original Edgewood Independent School District v. Kirby case challenging the constitutionality of the state of Texas public school funding system. The Edgewood litigation resulted in four sequential cases, known as Edgewood I–IV, challenging the constitutionality of the legislature’s attempts to find an efficient and equitable system for funding Texas public schools. Fundamentally, the reason for Edgewood I–IV was the issue of equal access to financial resources for the states’ more than 1,000 public school districts. Wide variations in property values across the state and the overdependence on local property taxes were the underlying justifications for the challenges. As a result of this wave of legal actions against the state of Texas, Senate Bill 7, widely referred to in the media as the “Robin Hood” plan, emerged in an effort to redistribute or equalize funds among property wealthy and property poor public school districts.

While effective in more equitably funding public schools, Texas’s Robin Hood plan has resulted in litigation alleging a state-mandated property tax, which was found unconstitutional in September 2004 by a state district court in the West Orange Cove v. Alanis case. District Court Judge John Dietz proclaimed that the current system was illegal and failed to adequately fund poor school districts. Currently on appeal, this case is making a significant impact on the Texas legislature’s attempt to fund public schools in a more adequate manner. Thus, we see a shift from “equity” to “adequacy” of funding in public schools in yet another state.

More than 30 state systems for financing education have been challenged over the past 20 years. An overwhelming majority of states have been unwilling thus far to abandon their dependence on property tax to fund education. Progressive states such as Michigan and Wisconsin have emerged from the challenge to overcome political pressure and now fund education with a more progressive approach. In light of surges of taxpayer dissatisfaction with property taxes, the Michigan legislature abolished dependency on local school property taxes in 1993. The abolishment of the property tax system of school revenue generation was replaced by alternative sources of funding. Michigan’s new finance approach approved in 1994 obtains revenue for funding education from a variety of other innovative tax sources, leaving the door open for debate targeted toward educational adequacy of the state’s funding system.

**ADEQUACY**

The shift to “adequacy” requires analysis of three functions in educational funding: inputs, processes, and outcomes. Adequate financing may be defined as having sufficient resources to ensure students an effective opportunity to acquire appropriately specified levels of knowledge and skills. Establishing the standard of adequacy entails establishing specific inputs considered necessary to achieve educational acquisitions or processes resulting in defined outcomes. Linkages or connections between the established specific inputs, processes, and outcomes present a whole new set of problems for state legislatures, court systems, and public schools to distinguish components and standards of educational adequacy.

Public school challenges based on educational adequacy have emerged as a new strand and perpetual wave of finance litigation. Conflicts between litigants predicated on adequacy have now charted a more dynamic course for challenging state finance systems. Adequacy debates may surface in light of the fact that equity litigation and equalization efforts have lessened disproportionate funding. States are still faced with the charge and responsibility to provide sufficient levels of funding aimed at delivery of an established standard of educational adequacy. According to the National Center on Education Finance, many state education clauses refer to the provision of a thorough and efficient education, and plaintiffs have found fertile ground for litigation in these clauses.

As a result of the plethora of cases based on adequacy, states have developed rigorous standards for spending in education. One outcome of the last wave of litigation is that education funding can no longer be a political product nor can it be based on politically motivated appropriation or underlying legislative agendas. In adequacy cases, courts have ruled that legislatures must provide evidence that the amount of funding appropriated to education is enough to ensure an adequate education, according to the National Center on Education Finance. As a result, states are saddled with establishing consistent exemplars for appropriations of adequate educational funding.

Proponents of the adequacy movement boast that the advantages are apparent. Arguments in favor of
Elevated levels of funding include more “highly qualified” teachers, reduced student-to-teacher ratios, improved facilities, and addition of programs targeted toward improvement of at-risk and special needs student achievement. According to the opinion of Alfred Lindseth, a senior partner with Sutherland Asbill & Brennan LLP, adequacy lawsuits have other, more disturbing ramifications that courts, policymakers, and the public should also be aware of and consider. Although court rulings on adequacy-based cases seem to yield positive results for adults associated with educational entities, the ultimate determinant will be whether these decisions provide utility for public school children. Until this question is addressed, there is little hope that the future will be any different from the past, regardless of how much spending on education is increased.

THE FUTURE OF FUNDING EDUCATION

Lawmakers have long faced the monumental task of legally funding education to meet the requirements of efficiency, equity, and adequacy. Even though it seems to be a recurring debate, school funding issues will likely continue to be in the forefront of every state’s legislative agenda for at least the foreseeable future. Futuristic approaches to funding schools that factor out continued reliance on the historic property tax will likely emerge as a standard approach. State legislative bodies inevitably face tough decisions on the sensitive issue of taxation to adequately and equitably fund their state’s public school systems.

Currently, courts are tending toward assessment of adequacy in educational funding in a context of dollar amounts. In some instances, state courts have charged legislators with the task of employing a team of experts to generate a cost figure for an “adequate education.” Future litigation may follow this same path, with courts requiring not only an adequate education but also following up with the proper levels of funding that is justly adequate.

Results of three decades of public school funding litigation and adoption of new standards have driven the costs of providing an “adequate education” substantially upward. With adoption of state standards for student assessment and mandated implementation of NCLB, the trend of rising costs is likely to continue well into the next decade. Grappling with innovative new approaches for funding schools will likely become a way of life among the states for at least the near future. Litigation, disputes, and challenges are almost unavoidable in this process to fund the future of schoolchildren. Even as the costs of an “adequate and equitable education” continue to rise, investing in the education of America’s next generation has a high propensity for being fiscally sound.

FUTURE OF VOUCHERS

In Zelman v. Simmons-Harris, the Cleveland, Ohio, school voucher case, the U.S. Supreme Court issued its ruling allowing parents to use publicly funded vouchers to pay tuition at private schools—including religious schools. In a 5–4 decision, the justices ruled that school vouchers do not violate the U.S. Constitution’s prohibition on governmental establishment of religion. The Court majority held that the program was “neutral in all respects toward religion,” that any tax funds flowing to religious schools did so because of individual choice, and that the program provided genuine secular schooling options (school vouchers). Historic and enduring conflicts have been eliminated, while other debates are sure to emerge as a result of this groundbreaking decision. To a certain extent, the Supreme Court has reassigned issues related to implementation of school choice together with vouchers to the burden and digression of the states.

Recent research focusing on vouchers fails to provide succinct proof for predicting the outcome of comprehensive and across-the-board implementation of school vouchers. Experts along with researchers in the field suggest that inventive, well-organized voucher programs that create competitive environments could possibly transform public education. Patrick J. McEwan, school vouchers researcher and professor of economics at Wellesley College, advocates exploration of four main concerns in the evaluation of voucher programs: (1) whether private schools improve voucher students’ achievement, (2) whether vouchers stratify student population by ability, income, race, or other attributes, (3) whether this stratification of student populations impacts student outcomes, and (4) whether the competition from vouchers improves public schooling. While facing widespread deliberations along with legal challenges of school choice and adoption of voucher programs, public support of private as well as parochial school voucher programs has a high probability of continued development throughout America. Hence, rigorous
empirical and statistically sound research is essential to critically examine the effect of vouchers. Future legislators and other educational policymakers will need to rely on strands of high-quality research results to formulate informed decisions related to educational choice and vouchers.

**SUMMARY**

As a result of the adequacy and accountability movement, a wealth of new issues are likely to surface. Questions related to how educational inputs and outputs will be measured will require considerable attention. In addition, new paradigms reflecting changes to funding policies will be required. Clearly, the improvement of educational achievement and performance standards for students should be the primary objective among states establishing the standard of adequacy along with equity in public school funding reforms. The most crucial task facing the states will be the establishment of a system that allocates funding while recognizing diversity and differences among schools within the state’s boundaries. Consistency in research literature has established a basis for the appropriate levels of inputs and outputs in discussions for adequacy of education. States’ lawmakers and policy developers should also be mindful of the differences in educational institutional capacities to meet various specified benchmarks and standards.

Finally, policymakers should be proactive in establishing periodic reviews and evaluations of the effects of adequacy funding formulas to account for variation in student performance.

—Robert L. Marshall and William A. Kritsonis

**Further Readings and References**


**ESPRIT (SCHOOL CLIMATE)**

*Esprit* or school climate can be defined as a set of internal organizational characteristics that captures the distinctive tone or atmosphere of a school. School climate is unique within each school district and building and can influence the behavior of organizational members. Climate has been described as a relatively enduring quality that is experienced by participants and describes and affects their collective perceptions of behavior. Educational researchers believe that school climate influences member behavior and attitudes and makes a difference in the learning environment of schools and the achievement of students. However, despite the seeming importance of school climate, the influence of school climate is typically loosely defined and consequently is often merely a slogan rather than a carefully defined and meaningful construct. School culture and school climate have often been topics with overlapping definitions; however, some describe culture as a set of shared assumptions, values, or norms, and climate as shared perceptions of behavior. Shared assumptions (culture) and shared perceptions (climate) are similar to one another and are linked, but they are subtly...
different from one another in important ways. Research in school climate, unlike school culture, has been directed toward the development of instruments to measure school climate, and as such has led to the development of three main perspectives that allow school researchers and reformers to analyze, understand, and change the environment within their schools. These perspectives include open to closed teacher-principal behaviors, healthy and unhealthy climate framework, and custodial to humanistic pupil-control orientation.

Open to closed teacher-principal behaviors was a pioneering 1962 study developed by Andrew Halpin and Don Croft that led to the development of an instrument that measures important aspects of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interaction. The revised Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ-RE) is a 42-item measure describing the behavior of elementary teachers and principals. In this model, principal behavior can be supportive, directive, or restrictive, with teacher behaviors being collegial, intimate, or disengaged. Combinations of these six behaviors determine whether a school climate is considered open, engaged, disengaged, or closed.

The organizational health is another framework used to conceptualize the general climate of a school. Based on the idea that all social systems must satisfy basic problems of adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency, the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) was developed in 1999 by Wayne Hoy and Jay Feldman. The OHI defines seven specific interaction patterns in schools at the institutional, managerial, and technical levels, which are institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, morale, and academic emphasis. While developing a healthy climate, elementary, middle, and high schools differ; with the latter being more complex.

Another way to measure school climate is in terms of patterns that teachers and principals use to control students. Willard Waller developed a pupil-control continuum in 1932 from custodial to humanistic; in other words, from rigid and highly controlled to cooperative. The instrument developed from this model is called the Pupil-Control Ideology (PCI) form, a 20-item scale with five response categories.

While research has connected positive climate to more satisfaction among teachers and students, the influences of a healthy climate on student achievement gains is less common, although recent studies support a connection between affective climate measures and student performance.

—Thomas L. Alsbury

See also adaptiveness of organizations; administration, theories of; attitudes toward work; behaviorism; bureaucracy; climate, school; management theories; organizational theories; principalship; rational organizational theory; school improvement models; staffing, concepts of; systemic reform; theories, use of; theory movement, in educational administration

Further Readings and References


Esteem Needs

Esteem refers to the regard or feeling of respect and affection in which one is held. Esteem needs represent one of five levels of needs posited in Abraham Maslow’s 1970 hierarchy of needs. Maslow’s theory is based on the assumption that all human behavior is goal-directed toward fulfilling unsatisfied needs. These needs start with basic deficiency needs (e.g., physiological, safety, and belonging needs) and then unfold in an orderly, sequential, hierarchical pattern through continued growth and development toward self-actualization. In Maslow’s hierarchy, esteem needs are a higher level deficiency need preceding self-actualization. From an organizational perspective, individuals are more likely to thrive in growth-enhancing environments that create organizational conditions that enhance esteem needs.

Esteem needs are of two types: (1) the need for self-esteem or self-worth and (2) the need to be highly regarded by others. Self-esteem is an affective or emotional reaction to oneself. It is taking pride in oneself, having self-respect and a general positive image of oneself. The need for self-esteem or self-worth is a basic need of all individuals. For example, one might try to hide how much effort was put into a task so that
others will think the individual has high ability, thus increasing feelings of self-esteem. Similarly, if one procrastinates on a task, performance can be attributed to lack of effort, thus protecting self-esteem. It is less threatening to attribute one’s lack of success to procrastination than it is to attribute one’s lack of success to low ability.

Esteem or high regard from others is demonstrated when people express recognition, approval, and appreciation for the work of others, or express perceptions of others as having prestige or status. When leaders recognize and show appreciation for individual excellence, employees’ self-esteem is enhanced. Early research found that esteem needs appeared to be the level of greatest deficiency for teachers. Loss of confidence in the effectiveness of schools, mandated programs, legislated school reforms, and increased federal interventions at the local school level create an educational context that tells teachers they are not held in esteem or high regard. When esteem decreases, self-esteem decreases. Unsatisfied esteem needs decrease motivation and performance.

In recent times, Maslow’s work has been criticized by Joyce Milton, who in 2002 observed that there is no necessary connection between psychological health and success.

—Judith A. Ponticell

See also adolescence; affective education; attitudes; attitudes toward work; belonging; career development; career stages; cognitive styles; creativity, theories of; Maslow, Abraham; metacognition; motivation, theories of; personality; self-actualization

Further Readings and References

Ethics traditionally is defined as the determination of good ends and right means. While “good” and “right” have historically shifted in their meaning over time, the importance of the study of ethics in educational administration preparation has been generally accepted. This entry will attempt to categorize that study in terms of four key Western philosophical ideals—one’s deontological duties, one’s teleological desires, individual virtue, and group virtue. All of these philosophical ideals have specific considerations of good ends and right means, and their relevance to leadership theory and application can lend an ethical illumination to the actions and beliefs of, by, and about leaders. Duty-based and desires-based ethics are dependant on the actions of the person. Individual virtue ethics and the ethics of the good group are dependent on states of being, that is to say, they are considered to be desirable characteristics and qualities of an ethical person or group.

Duties-based or deontological (Greek deon, duty) ethics concern what one ought to do. Historically, Immanuel Kant best summarizes the deontological position in his discussion of moral imperatives. Kant divides imperatives into two classes—hypothetical or those that can change based upon the particular needs of a given situation, and categorical or those that are immutable. Thus, one’s immutable belief about one’s duty in a given situation is a categorical imperative. Applied to leadership, categorical imperatives are always centered in the actual action that leaders’ beliefs lead them to do. This means that if a leader believes rules must be followed, no matter the circumstances, then that leader will always exercise rules-based interpretations of leadership. One key idea of Kant’s is that the consequences of categorical imperatives are not to be considered. Rather, categorical imperatives are the type of belief that the person holds in spite of the consequences. Thus, the rules-based leaders referred to above will not be concerned with the consequences of their actions, even if they can see that they might be potentially harmful due to the individual circumstances of the situation. Current ethical writers in leadership often combine other theoretical viewpoints within a deontological framework to define kinds of categorical imperatives or immutable duties. A good example is a social justice or critical social theory framework. Such justice referents often recall immutable duties of leadership.

Teleological (Greek telos, end) desires serve as another framework for defining good ends and right means. This framework attempts to account for what each of us wants. In leadership, this can often be expressed in terms of desired ends or outcomes, but from a more theoretical point of view, desires are best expressed by the utilitarian philosophical ideal. The first great proponent of utilitarianism, Jeremy Bentham,
stated that good ends should be determined by what gives pleasure or avoids pain. Applied to leadership, this framework leads to seeking the best for the most within the organization. Often, especially in terms of reform movements or change in schools, the rightness of decisions is based upon what the most people consider the best outcome. From a leadership standpoint, utilitarianism is seductive in that it offers a possibility of the consideration of majority opinion. Utilitarian, desires-based ethics is most often found in leadership models that emphasize some form of exchange between leaders and followers. Such exchange theories presume that leaders and followers each bring prescribed individual desirable ends that can be bartered and traded. Such transactional relationships strike some ethicists as too calculating, but utilitarians would suggest that such is the reality of leadership, and it should be accounted for. Unlike a pure deontological framework, desires-based ethics is extremely consequential in its outlook in direct contrast to duties-based ethics.

Both duties-based and desires-based ethics assume some form of action on the part of the participants. A critique of such action-based ethics is that basing definitions of good and right only on behavior precludes ethical systems based upon the character or quality of the person. For example, individual virtues such as courage, integrity, honesty, and loyalty, while translatable into actions, assume an a priori state of being reflective of the character of the individual.

To account for such character traits, we turn to individual virtue and defining the ethics of the good group. Individual virtue ethics supposes that there are desirable character traits to which humans should aspire, and in the realm of leadership, there are desirable characteristics of virtuous leaders. Most often, we find individual leadership virtues referenced in the language of transformative, charismatic, or heroic leaders. Such leaders are thought to possess specific traits that will translate into ethical action. Of interest in this arena are the writings of the “care-based” ethicists such as Nel Noddings, Lynn Beck, and others in which the leader exhibits caring and compassionate traits. Other traits, such as those associated with the transformational leader, earmark the a priori conditions of a great change agent. Often these traits are associated with visionary or charismatic leadership models.

The good group is often associated with leadership theory that emphasizes empowerment, democracy, and collaboration. In effect, individual virtue ethics answers the question of what is a good leader or person, while group virtue ethics describe the good group. At the same time, the traits of good groups are highly associated with the traits of good individuals. The hope is that the characteristics of the good group and the good individual are highly congruous. However, interpretations of what is best for individuals can be diametrically opposed to what is considered best for the group. Thus, while the possibility of ethical congruity exists between groups and individuals, there is also an equal possibility of ethical conflict.

The four foundational philosophies identified above can be used to analyze the source of ethical conflict in a given situation. Indeed, they represent foundational sources of ethical tension that help to identify why certain leadership situations can be such dilemmas. For example, the good end for the group might not be interpreted as the good end for an individual member of the group. Or utilitarian practicality might be at odds with duties-based beliefs.

The teaching of ethics in leadership programs has waxed and waned in importance but seems to be on the rise again. The inclusion of an ethics standard in the ISLLC (now National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) Standards of leadership has underscored some primary belief about leadership, good ends and right means, and accountability. Beck and Joe Murphy’s landmark 1994 study of the actual teaching of ethics in educational leadership found that fully 60% of the schools that responded to their survey query had some sort of ethics strand in their curriculum. However, later research found that there was no association between mission statements that contained ethical or values-laden language and whether a program required a specific ethics course.

An interesting twist in the ethical education of potential school leaders is the movement to get beyond typical Western philosophy as a foundational ethical tool. Whether this comes from critical theories such as feminism, Marxism, or critical race theory, or from Eastern philosophy, the movement has called into question basic Western ethical assumptions. This one area will bear observation in the teaching of leadership ethics in the future.

—Bruce H. Kramer

See also administration, theories of; critical race theory; critical theory; feminism and theories of leadership; management theories; morality, moral leadership; philosophies of education; theory movement, in educational administration; trait theory; universities, preparation of educational leaders in
Further Readings and References


The concept of ethnicity is related to the Greek concept of *ethnos*, which refers to the people of a nation or tribe, and *ethnikos*, which stands for national. Hence ethnicity refers to the ethnic quality or affiliation of a group that is normally characterized in terms of culture, which explains at least to some degree why the term is often used interchangeably with *culture*. Ethnicity is a group classification for individuals who share a unique social and cultural heritage (e.g., language, religion, customs) that is passed on from generation to generation. Thus, ethnic identity refers to a sense of group identity based upon the extent to which an individual believes he or she shares a common membership with a particular ethnic or cultural group. Although physical characteristics may be included in a definition of ethnicity, one does not have to share the same physical attributes to belong to an ethnic group, and these markers may not be permanent.

This ethnic saliency is one dimension of ethnic identity, but the other aspect is whether people feel a sense of attachment or belonging to their ethnic group. One definition emphasizes that ethnic identity is that part of individuals’ self-concept that derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership. Since individuals who share the same ethnicity do not necessarily operate the same way in terms of their respective ethnic affiliations, ethnic identity becomes a complex issue to not only define but also to assess.

Most historical and contemporary discussions of ethnicity as a significant cultural or social variable are based on the assumption that the concept is important primarily as it relates to minority group members. Thus by implication, ethnicity is then most often used as a construct to describe minority people with regard to their values, belief systems, psychological phenomena, and/or an investigative variable upon which social behavior is believed to be associated. Taken a step further, discussions of ethnicity often become segregated from mainstream American psychology and education and placed in the realm of the cross-cultural or multicultural arena. At least one problematic outcome of this secondary placement is that it limits the delineation of more universal processes that may be related to ethnicity and ethnic identity in general as well as it allows avoidance of how ethnic variables play a role in the psychological and social behavior of White people. There is, however, by definition no true justification for removing White
ETHNIC IDENTITY

The concept of ethnic identity has been identified as central to the psychological functioning of members of ethnic and racial minority groups, but the research and theoretical frameworks have been fragmented and inconclusive. There are several different conceptualizations of ethnic identity that attempt to differentially explore the physical features and subjective attachment shared by members of an ethnic group. For the purposes of this essay, only two of the frameworks, one based on ego-identity and the other conceptualizing ethnic identity as a social psychological phenomenon, are reviewed.

One model of ethnic identity is based on the ego identity. There are four identity statuses based on the presence or absence of identity search and commitment. The statuses include diffusion as evidenced by the absence of both search and commitment; foreclosure as characterized by a commitment without search; moratorium as indicated by current involvement in identity search; and identity achievement as demonstrated by a clear commitment that follows search. The resolution of issues related to ethnicity attains significance during adolescence, and it is appropriate to study ethnic identity in a developmental framework paralleling the study of ego identity.

One model of ethnic identity builds on four ego identity statuses. Ethnic identity development occurs presumably in a progression from diffusion/foreclosure (i.e., unexamined identity), through exploration (i.e., moratorium), to ethnic identity achievement. It is also argued that a clear, confident internalization of one’s racial identity is congruent with an achieved ethnic identity. An achieved ethnic identity status is equivalent to an “achieved” or internalized racial identity within an individual. Ethnic identity is considered a significant construct in this model, in part because of its relationship to the psychological well-being of ethnic minority individuals.

Ethnic identity may be seen as an aspect of identity formation. One model proposes that the definition of ethnic identity is an aspect of a person’s social identity and self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in a social group, along with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership. Common to ethnic identity of all ethnic group members are (a) self-identification as a group member, (b) a sense of belonging, and (c) attitudes toward one’s group. The ego identity model indicates that ethnic identity is not a static phenomenon and varies with development and changes in the social and historical context, making it a continuous variable with multidimensional components.

Research on ethnic identity using the ego identity/status paradigm has demonstrated a consistent relationship between higher stages of ego identity and positive psychological adjustment. However, the research on ethnic identity and adjustment factors has been less substantial, with studies producing inconsistent results. Discrepancies may be due, in part, to the widely differing methods used to assess ethnic identity. In addition, the frameworks of racial and ethnic identity are used interchangeably, as well as inconsistently, which may be confounding the results of the research being conducted.

In another model of ethnic identity development, it was seen as a social psychological phenomenon. The contention is that ethnic identity can be divided into two aspects, internal and external, to account for the interaction of the psychological and social realms. Identification in relation to the community and society for individuals is a social phenomenon, with internal psychological states expressing themselves through objective external behavior patterns shared by others. Therefore, individuals identify with a community internally by their states of mind and feelings and externally by their behaviors reflective of the feelings.

External ethnic identity encompasses social and cultural behaviors associated with the construct of
Ethnocentrism

Ethnic identity. The behaviors manifested occur in the areas of ethnic language, group friendship, media and traditions, and participation in ethnic group functions. These behaviors also correspond to the ethnic activities and cultural practices identified as an operational component of ethnic identity. The cognitive, moral, and affective dimensions encompass internal ethnic identity within this framework. The cognitive realm includes the dimensions of self-images and images of one’s ethnic group and knowledge of the ethnic group’s heritage and values. The moral dimension considered the most central dimension of personal identity refers to an ethnic person’s feelings of obligation toward the group, leading to feelings of group solidarity. The affective component refers to the feelings of attachment of individuals to their own ethnic group. There are two types of feelings, which both include a sense of security to one’s ethnic group: (1) sympathy and preference for same ethnic group members and (2) a comfort with cultural patterns of one’s own ethnic group as opposed to other groups or society. It is also suggested that these dimensions of internal identity correspond to the ethnic identification, sense of belonging, and positive and negative attitudes toward one’s ethnic group as operational components of ethnic identity.

The separation of ethnic identity into internal and external dimensions composes the wholeness of ethnic identity. This approach suggests that ethnic identity development is also a bidirectional phenomenon. It indicates that the measurement of ethnic identity for minority group members must be assessed by two dimensions: degree of adoption of the sociopolitical dominant group and degree of retention of one’s ethnic group. Thus the psychological functioning (i.e., psychological well-being and adjustment) of ethnic group members can best be understood when appropriate internal/external dimensions as well as the bidirectional phenomena related to ethnic identity are key elements of the assessment process. By definition, ethnicity and ethnic identity are complex constructs to grasp and to assess.

Nevertheless, there is a need to promote a thorough understanding of ethnicity with regard to how it affects psychological well-being, adjustment, and behavior. Ethnicity involves socialization and is the product of cultural learning that occurs as a result of contact between members of cultural groups. Educators and those working in school settings especially need to develop increased competencies in working with rapidly growing diverse populations in terms of ethnicity and cultural variables. More specifically, educators must learn how to incorporate and respond to ethnicity, associated constructs, and relevant dynamics into the school context to facilitate learning and healthy student development.

—Tina Q. Richardson

See also Afrocentric theories; Asian Pacific Americans; belonging; Black education, critical race theory; cultural politics, wars; ethnocentrism; history, in curriculum; intelligence; Latinos; learning, theories of; minorities, in schools

Further Readings and References


ETHNOCENTRISM

Ethnocentrism is the belief in the superiority of one’s own ethnic group. It is the feeling that one’s group has a style of living and a set of values that are better than those of other ethnic groups. It is the tendency to
judge the customs of other societies by the standards of one’s own society. The word **ethnocentrism** is often used by those who study or discuss ethnicity, interethnic relations, and similar social issues. The definition of **ethnocentrism** captures part of the feelings associated with the word. It does not explain why people have these feelings. Many people may believe that they are not ethnocentric. They may feel that they are tolerant or accepting of other cultures. Actually, people are ethnocentric because we assume things about other people’s cultures. Our assumptions are based on our beliefs and not on their beliefs and values. We observe other cultures through our values rather than through the beliefs and values of the other cultures. This is because we know our attitudes and beliefs, but we do not know what other cultures believe and value.

Since we are familiar with our culture, we make false assumptions about the attitudes and behaviors of those from a different culture. Because our assumptions come to us automatically and are based on our own system of beliefs, we do not realize that we are being ethnocentric. We only have our life experiences, our point of view, and our reality to use to view the world and other lifestyles.

In viewing themselves, many North Americans stress the importance of the individual, personal achievement, and independence. Many do not understand and cannot empathize with other points of view, other religions, placing the interest of the group before the individual, or reluctance to give up traditions. One of the responsibilities of schools is to provide instruction in worldviews, beliefs, values, and behavioral norms of the society to students. Schools tend to teach learners that their beliefs and values are right and worthy of respect. Since societies are ethnocentric, most people have received an ethnocentric education.

A regrettable consequence of ethnocentric education is that it prevents people from learning respect for and appreciation of other cultural patterns. Students do not have an opportunity to learn to be flexible in the use of many other ways of coping with a great variety of problems. If schools offered instruction in the analysis and comparison of other cultures, students would have opportunities to think in a broader perspective about the value of cultural differences. Teachers could provide learners with a wide range of cultural views and help students develop an understanding of and an appreciation for other cultures and the many different ways people deal with their needs and their problems. If students had an understanding of the beliefs and values of other cultures, they could then look at their own culture from new perspectives. Students could objectively view and evaluate their own beliefs and institutions from the vantage point of a different society from within that other culture.

It is through our cultures that we become individuals. We have learned through our culture what we are to value and believe. It has directed our behavior and our attitudes. It is our culture that helps guide our lives. Ethnocentrism, the belief in the superiority of our own culture, causes us to evaluate others based on our cultural standards. It leads us to believe that people who do not think as we do are stupid, weird, or wrong. If people have different values, we conclude that they are sinful or irresponsible.

In a society that has more than one cultural group, it is the dominant group that determines the standards for the society. If the dominant group holds the belief that their standards and values are superior or ideal, then the ethnic behaviors of the minority cultural group may be viewed as inferior. The dominant group may feel that the behaviors or standards of the minority group need to be improved or changed. This belief may lead to the need to educate and to change the minority group, since their beliefs or standards are inferior or wrong.

It may be important for people to see a difference not as a deficit but in a positive light. If we view a cultural difference as a deficit, then our judgments are ethnocentric. In considering cultural differences, we may not always be able to feel positive about or be accepting of every cultural difference. For example, the Nazis were culturally different. Because their culturally different practices were hurtful, we must make some judgments about their behavior. We cannot conclude that all cultural differences are to be respected and valued, because we must also consider the positive and negative effects of particular cultural behaviors. When cultural behaviors are unethical, harmful, and unlawful, then we have a responsibility to judge them as a deficit rather than as a difference. There needs to be some logical basis for evaluating cultural differences in order to protect others from hate and harm. Cultural differences should be respected for enriching our lives, but at the same time we must consider the effects of our beliefs and the beliefs of other cultures on individuals. When cultural beliefs
and actions are inhumane, then they may be judged as wrong. It is important to consider human rights and the well-being of ourselves and others when evaluating cultural behaviors. All people have a right to their freedom and to be treated with dignity and respect. Cultural change is needed when cultural behaviors violate the rights of others. One fair way to judge a cultural behavior is to evaluate it when the cultural action is harmful to others. As cultures work out their problems, it is also important to note that one solution may work well in a particular culture but not in others. Also, the long-term effects of cultural decisions need to be considered in relation to the consequences of that decision on the environment, resources, and the quality of our future life.

—Carolyn Sayers Russell

See also Afrocentric theories; anti-Semitism; cross-cultural studies; immigration, history and impact on education; Indian education; Latinos; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism

Further Readings and References


ETHNOGRAPHY

Ethnography is an analytic description or reconstruction of cultural scenes and groups. The purpose of ethnographic research is to both describe and interpret cultural behavior, to discern cultural patterning in the behavior observed, and to provide an ongoing dialogue about the nature of culture itself. As a methodology, ethnography is designed for observing behavior, discovering the cultural knowledge governing that behavior, and relating the behavior to the knowledge as relationships are played out in social contexts. The seminal ethnography in educational administration is anthropologist Harry Wolcott’s The Man in the Principal’s Office: An Ethnography, written in 1973.

Originating in anthropology, the ethnographic endeavor contains several distinguishing criteria. Ethnographic research strategies elicit phenomenological data that represent the perspective of the participants being investigated. Empirical and naturalistic strategies involve observation used to acquire first-hand accounts of phenomena as they occur in real settings. Ethnographic research is holistic and contextualized; thus, ethnographers attempt to provide descriptions of material and nonmaterial phenomena that represent multilayered contexts, complex interrelationships among participants and nonparticipants, and various interpretations of the phenomena. Ethnographers use a variety of research techniques to collect data and approach the ethnography nonjudgmentally; biases are made explicit to mitigate their unintended effects on research.

The process of conducting an ethnographic study includes many elements. Gaining entry to a cultural group differs according to whether one studies a formal organization or community. The organization has official gatekeepers who control access, while the community has unofficial gatekeepers who can either facilitate entry and encourage access to information or prevent the scholar from penetrating beyond a superficial knowledge of the site.

Once entry is negotiated, data collection occurs in the form of both interactive and noninteractive methods. Interactive methods with participants serve to elicit their definitions of reality and the organizing constructs of their world based on their encounters in various settings. Data are collected in a variety of ways, including field notes, film, photographs, taped interviews, and structured and nonstructured interviews. Structured interviews are often used to gather specific comparative data, while nonstructured interviews are less formal, such as conversation in the course of daily interaction to gather general information about particular settings or events. Noninteractive methods used to collect ethnographic data include keeping a fieldworker’s journal, collecting and analyzing various documents, and conducting nonparticipant observation. Such methods work best when interactions with participants are minimal, when attention is focused
unobtrusively on the stream of events, and when the fieldworker is serving in the role of dispassionate recorder, or, for example, in mapping sites or conducting a network analysis or charting patterns of interaction. The primary tools of the ethnographer are the senses and an intuitive feeling about the informants and subject matter. If possible, and when appropriate, an ethnographer often uses a camera, tape recorder, field notes, and charting in the form of grids, matrices, taxonomies, and maps, for example.

In an ethnographic study, analysis of data is not a distinct stage of research; rather, analysis starts to take shape through one’s notes and memoranda and is embodied in the ethnographer’s ideas, hunches, emergent concepts, and interpretations. An important feature of ethnography is that it allows one to feed the process of theory generation with new material, rather than relying on previous knowledge of cases relevant to the theoretical ideas one wishes to pursue. Data collection and data analysis are interactive and interdependent. The formal tasks of analyzing are perceiving (comparing, contrasting, aggregating, and ordering) through the coding and chunking or grouping of data, establishing linkages and relationships, and speculating. Three analytic techniques to use in analyzing and interpreting data are domain analysis, taxonomic analysis, and theme analysis. For purposes of analyzing the communication patterns of key actors, network analysis can also be used.

Chief criticisms of ethnography are the validity and reliability of data and the generalizability of findings. Collecting data for a long period allows opportunities to reinterview informants about specific events and to cross-check data by interviewing several informants about the same events. One can enhance the reliability and replicability of the study by blending relatively nonstructured, long-term observations and interviews, which have high validity, with more structured interviews and other more formalized procedures.

One way to accomplish data reliability is by using triangulation, the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. A basic tool used in anthropology, triangulation is the testing of one source of information against another from various perspectives to arrive at a balanced interpretation of reality. Ethnographers build control factors into their data collecting that include understanding various factors that might affect informants’ reporting, awareness of ethnographer’s own error and/or biases, researcher’s role, field time, field experience, implicit or explicit objectives, theoretical orientations, or participation within the community or work group. Most anthropologists understand that data are being collected and interpreted at a given point in time, that life described in the ethnography is still a partial representation of the observed group. An ethnographic study, by nature, is partial and incomplete, as are statistical analyses of a group of people at a given point in time. It is by conducting a variety of ethnographic studies of similar and different groups over time that ethnographers hope to make statements and interpretations of cultural phenomena and life.

There are several trends that are shaping ethnography in the twenty-first century. Anthropology as a discipline has gained a foothold as a major discipline from which to understand education and to conduct educational research. While few organizational ethnographies of school districts and their leaders exist, there is a growing number of studies of teachers, students, and classrooms at all grade levels. Because gaining access within a hierarchy is most difficult at the top and easiest at the bottom, scholars may study a population that is more easily accessed; this may explain, for example, the increase in ethnographies of the multicultural classroom compared to the central office. There is a trend toward action research or critical ethnography for social change. This trend seems to be mirroring the ability to conduct long-term studies in classrooms. Evaluation research, a form of action research, is new to policy researchers. The value of utilizing ethnographic research techniques for making policy decisions is becoming more accepted and understood. A major contributor to literature in the areas of action research and empowerment evaluation or evaluation ethnography is Stanford scholar David Fetterman, who has also led the field in current trends in conducting ethnography. Fetterman suggests that the nature of fieldwork is changing due to advancing technology and that ethnographers must change data collection and analysis techniques; thus, he suggests that scholars explore alternative strategies that utilize the Internet, computer software and hardware, from collecting to storing to analyzing to interpreting data and to sharing data with colleagues. Finally, as ethnographers gain more access to schools and school sites, the ethical role of ethnographers is gaining closer examination. Several ethical trends include issues of privacy, the uses and abuses of advanced technologies to collect or store data, the types of populations studied and not studied, possible bias (of any sort) with
respect to interpretation of data, and a concern for the lack of long-term time commitment needed to study a cultural or organizational group.

—JoAnn Danelo Barbour

See also action research; case story; case studies; contextual knowledge; cross-cultural studies; fieldwork in qualitative research; qualitative research, history, theories, issues

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ETHOS, OF ORGANIZATIONS

According to Aristotle, ethos is defined as the credibility that the author establishes. Ethos is classified as one of three types of persuasion, the other two being logos and pathos. Ethos may be used to describe the whole person or organization. Reputation may also be considered a synonym for ethos. Organizations of all types, whether academic or business, rely on the reputation of both the organization and the individual. The key components of ethos of organizations lie in what people think about the organization’s trustworthiness, competence, and ability to do the job. People promote and do business with people they like and trust. Students, customers, administrators, and any number of other groups must believe that both the individual and the organization are genuine.

To firmly establish ethos in an organization, credibility must be established. Credibility is composed of intelligence, virtue, and goodwill. Intelligence is indicated by a certain amount of knowledge of the subject. Common sense, combined with convincing arguments that are logical, is essential in demonstrating this quality. Discussing the various viewpoints of a subject also exhibits a certain amount of intelligence. An organization deals with both internal and external audiences with varying viewpoints. Virtue involves stating the beliefs, values, and priorities of the organization. If these beliefs and values are held by the majority of the members of the organization, a strong sense of ethos may be created. Goodwill is the last element essential to establishing ethos. This characteristic concerns the concept of concern for all involved in the organization.

Source credibility is used to describe the perception audience members have of a speaker’s credibility. The essential elements needed to create a strong sense of ethos in an organization are the member’s ability to effectively communicate the message to members of the organization. What becomes critical in this dynamic communication exchange between a speaker and the audience is the audience’s perception of the speaker’s traits and ultimate judgment of the source’s credibility. Thus, as representatives of the organization, members must be perceived by both internal and external sources as being committed to the mission and vision of the organization.

In summary, ethos of organizations is defined as the perceived degree of character or credibility that a person believes exists in an organization. Stated differently, how much trust and belief one has in an organization or mission of the organization will have an important impact on the ways others perceive members in the organization. For the organization, ethos can play a significant part in creating an environment that works toward achieving goals and achieving the mission.

—Carolyn Stevenson

See also chief academic officer; climate, school; creativity, in management; decision making; esprit (school climate); organizational theories; satisfaction, in organizations and roles

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Eugenics focuses on the unique inborn mental and physical qualities of groups and the factors that influenced the full development of those qualities within a society. Francis Galton is credited with originating the term eugenics in 1883. It is derived from the Greek words eu, meaning good, and genos, meaning birth. Eugenics can be considered the science of promoting good births within a society rather than in humanity, because the concept of good birth varies from society to society.

The qualities of individuals in a group are acquired, it was believed, from a common ancestor who possessed unique inborn mental and physical qualities that were passed from generation to generation. Genetics and heredity are the basic building blocks of eugenics. They are also important to understanding the development of Western civilization.

Western civilization has long acknowledged the important role of genetics and heredity in determining the characteristics of plants and animals as well as the mental and physical qualities of human beings. Recognition of the basic cause-and-effect relationship of genetics may have occurred with crop improvement and the domestication of animals by early humans. Better crops and easier to manage animals through breeding ensured that the right genes were passed on. The continued developments of human society led to wide acceptance of genetics and heredity as a possible determinant of human mental and physical qualities.

The next logical step was to link genetics and heredity to racial grouping. Eugenicists believe that each racial group is born with mental and physical qualities that are unique to that group and that these qualities must be nurtured by society. The goal of eugenics is to promote the development of an ideal society of self-actualizing individuals who shared the same unique mental and physical qualities. A society of such individuals was perceived to represent the natural order of humanity. For example, the creation of an Aryan race embodied with similar mental and physical qualities was a key strategy of the Nazi German government during the 1930s and 1940s.

In 1904 Galton described the ideal society as an organization where individuals fulfill their roles in a manner that benefits the entire community. These individuals were considered contributing members of society and received all of the benefits of society. Individuals, however, that did not fulfill their role in a manner befitting society were considered noncontributing members and were prevented from receiving all of the benefits of society.

Encouraging the full development of contributing individuals in a society is considered positive eugenics, which is aimed at increasing the percentage of healthy and talented individuals in succeeding generations. Removal of noncontributing individuals from a society is considered negative eugenics, which is designed to prevent the spread of deleterious genes. In the ideal society, the number of individuals with positive eugenics is maximized, while the number of individuals with negative eugenics is minimized.

Positive eugenics seeks to ensure that the positive qualities of one generation are passed on to the next generation. For example, if a physically attractive man and a physically attractive woman were to have children together, it would be expected that their offspring would also be physically attractive. In a society where physical attraction was highly valued, individuals with those qualities would be encouraged to marry and produce children. Matching couples for this purpose or similar purposes would be encouraged because it would add positive qualities to the overall population. To further encourage this behavior, society could offer incentives or enact policies favoring those with the desired qualities.

The goal of positive eugenics is to propagate positive qualities in a society, while negative eugenics seeks to stop the spread of negative qualities in a society. For example, an individual with a debilitating disease such as multiple sclerosis might choose to either not marry or marry and not have children so as to avoid the possibility of passing multiple sclerosis on to the next generation. The choice is an example of negative eugenics. Again, to encourage this behavior, society could offer incentives or enact policies encouraging those with undesired qualities to not marry or marry but not have children.

Positive and negative eugenics both focus on heredity and not the child rearing process. Usually the influence of parents and society on the rearing of children is not a factor in promoting positive or negative eugenics. The exceptions occur, however,
when governmental policy is implemented that attempts to promote eugenics for some perceived social good, for instance, the enactment of laws in Germany before and during World War II that promoted “racial purity.” During this period, the German government backed laws and policies that sought to achieve an Aryan race. To achieve their aim, the Germans enacted a decree requiring sterilization of the hereditarily sick, policies and laws that prevented marriage between Aryans and non-Aryans, and denied Jewish citizens the right to participate in German society and eventually their elimination as a group. Similar examples of eugenics can be found in more recent efforts of racial purity in Africa, the Balkans, and Southeast Asia.

Eugenics is currently on an ethical tightwire that is polarized on both ends and slippery in the middle as it attempts to promote a future for humankind that is free from genetic handicaps and filled with more fully actualizing individuals who contribute positive eugenics to society. At one end of the wire are the confirmed eugenicists, who are convinced that some individual freedoms, such as the right to decide whom to reproduce with or whether to reproduce, are worth setting aside for the benefits to society. This would limit the procreation of individuals with undesirable mental and physical qualities. On the other end of the wire are the confirmed noneugenicists who would find the denial of basic human rights morally repugnant and offensive. They would argue that humanity in spite of itself has done fairly well without eugenics. In the middle of both positions is the realization that both positive and negative eugenics may have something to contribute to the long-term well-being of humanity.

—Larry McNeal and Talana Vogel

See also achievement tests; Asian Pacific Americans; at-risk students; Black education; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; determinism; sociocultural; ethnicity; Fascism and schools; global cultural politics; Holocaust education; learning environments; neo-Nazism; standardized testing; values education

Further Readings and References


The field of evaluation can be conceptualized as progressing through a chronology of developmental stages. This entry considers three major time frames in this chronology as the traditionalist approach, the reconceptualist approach, and the postmodernist approach. In order to understand these approaches, imagine the field as a specific timeline of progress through generations much like what the authors Egon G. Guba and Yvonna S. Lincoln have done in order to reflect upon the critical importance of the activity of evaluation. As you might imagine, each approach characterized within generations has strengths and weaknesses. This entry focuses on this chronology in order to explain the generations already widely documented in the literature. As you think about these generations, realize that they each come within a historical context and a theoretical frame, and all have implications for how professionals conduct evaluation in the field of educational leadership and administration.

The Traditionalists

Traditionalists accept knowledge traditionally handed down as some version of the truth about a situation. For educational leaders this would include the *measurement generation* and the *descriptive generation*. Educators became interested in measuring achievement, measuring intelligence, measuring aptitudes, and so on preceding and following World War I. Historically, we can view the information from the starting point of the 1880s. This is when Francis Galton, in London, administered tests to hundreds of persons to test sensory reactions and reaction times of volunteers. This was the genesis of intelligence quotient (IQ) testing. In addition, Galton’s work has been identified with the eugenics movement. Similarly, in the early 1900s, Alfred Binet and his colleagues in
France developed the first intelligence test, which actually was designed to find and identify mentally defective students, as they were called. The focus was again on deficiency, like Galton’s work. It was then that psychologists were writing about the possibility of measuring the mind, and the era was seen as one of excitement and possibility. Binet always clarified the fact that he did not believe one single score was the measure of intelligence. He openly wrote of the possibility of error in testing. At this same time in New York City, Edward Thorndike was devising tests, called standard scales, to measure students’ performance in reading and mathematics. Later, all school subjects were to be tested. Schools adopted these tests because they were efficient and convenient, for one thing. Remember that our factories and industries were moving toward mass production and efficiency. The schools reflected society in the rush to adopt testing of students. Then with the advent of World War I, psychologists created tests for the U.S. Army that sorted out recruits for particular tasks. This was one of the great influences on schools in terms of efficiency testing.

Schools adopted the prevailing tests. The notion of testing became situated firmly in the pattern of schooling at all levels. Many teachers continued to use teacher-made tests. Yet testing was now fixed and firm as a traditional approach to measuring. For the evaluator, the role was seen essentially as one who measures. Similarly, the descriptive generational approach is basically a traditionalist posture as it looked at testing as a type of measurement and saw the weakness as perhaps being too efficient and as missing fairness. Descriptive generation evaluators tried to refine the practice of evaluation by formulating objectives and goals. Thus they added to the traditionalist perspective and at the same time paved the way to the reconceptualist approach to evaluation. They were in effect looking for patterns in testing, and basically the role of the evaluator was the role of describer.

THE RECONCEPTUALISTS

Reconceptualists were not satisfied with the efficiency model of testing and evaluation, nor were they satisfied with goals and objectives. In fact, they raised the issue of judgment as key to evaluation. Other writers in the field shifted the debate to add the important factor of judgment. After all, e-valu(e)-ation is about placing a value on something. All of us in daily life evaluate on a regular basis. We evaluate our coffee, our food, our book selections, our relationships, and so on. The reconceptualists were adding an important element to our understanding of evaluation: that of making informed judgments. In effect, the evaluator was acting as a judge. Thus, the reconceptualists added dimension to the already prevalent measurement and description focus of evaluation. All three of these generations shared a profound faith in science. This was one of the weaknesses of the measurement, description, and judgment approaches to evaluation. Thus, it was inevitable that the next approach was born, that of the postmodernist approach to evaluation.

THE POSTMODERNISTS

Many sociologists chart the beginning of postmodernism with the advent of the bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. From the 1940s World War II era onward, this approach has taken some roots in all disciplines, including art, dance, drama, language, literature, science, business, philosophy, law, and the humanities in general. Public education enjoyed a period of relative calm. However, after Sputnik, politicians sought to emphasize science and mathematics in school programs. Teachers began to organize more effectively, and unions took a strong hold in the landscape. In the 1960s the civil rights movement, the feminist movement, the gay liberation movement, and the children’s rights movement made known their voices and agendas. Educational reformers were beginning to question how schools work. Particularly, the Vietnam conflict and the deep division in the country over it, as well as distrust of politicians due to Nixon’s resignation, oddly enough worked as a booster to teachers to continue their efforts in teaching for learning and understanding. Teachers made tests related to their respective curricula. Standardized testing still was used, but the emphasis was not on standardized testing so much as on testing and evaluating for a reason and purpose. In the 1980s, the Reagan administration attempted to abolish the U.S. Department of Education and failed to do so. However, they issued a report called A Nation at Risk, which begins with 20 years of criticism of public schooling and calls for more testing of students. This is currently known as high-stakes testing. Let us now turn to this notion of postmodernism and how it relates to our understanding of evaluation.
Postmodernism is a theoretical framework and a form of critique which questions

- The primacy of Western reason and its social, political, economic effects
- Obligatory Western heroes, which supposes a privilege for these heroes
- Stories of expansionism, progress, and the success of science at the expense of working poor people that enables that expansionism, progress, and success
- Western stories that critique other cultures without applying that same level of critical analysis to the Western ideology, mythos, and culture

If we take a postmodern view of evaluation, one of the main concerns of the educator is to attempt to uncover ways that dominant schooling serves to perpetuate the hopelessness of the oppressed. As a result, those who conduct evaluations would assert a framework that

- Recognizes the power of race, class, and gender differences and how these shape educational outcomes
- Exposes the ways that power works to structure inequality
- Promotes a narrative of hope, complexity, and multiple competing perceptions of social reality
- Conceptualizes ways that promote a more humane and hopeful way to approach school, work, parenting, play, and so on
- Suggests that all teachers are learners and all learners are teachers
- Suggests that no one single vision of the world is enough to change the world
- Suggests that evaluation be fair

The field of evaluation has expanded the dialogue to include factors that would have been unheard of in the earlier generations of measurement, description, and judgment. Now the repertoire expands to what has been called the fourth generation of evaluators, the constructivists. Constructivism, which has its roots in the writings of John Dewey (1859–1952), sheds light on all participants in the evaluation process, that is, the evaluator and the stakeholders in the evaluation. Likewise, a sensitivity to the culture of those being evaluated and the economics and politics of the evaluation would be considered. In fact, the field of evaluation has been influenced by the writings of David Fetterman and others in the branch of evaluation called empowerment evaluation. This is a constructivist postmodern approach, which offers evaluators hope. The evaluator takes on various roles such as a bricoleur, that is, one who can layer evaluative work responsive to the participants. Participants also may in fact become coevaluators. Thus, the role of the evaluator is inclusive of many roles. The evaluator takes the roles of communicator, collaborator, empowerment advocate, and coach.

**EMPOWERMENT EVALUATION**

Empowerment evaluation is the use of evaluation concepts, techniques, and findings to foster improvement and self-determination. It is often referred to as a participatory approach to evaluation. It is an innovative approach to the field of evaluation and is definitely useful to evaluators and stakeholders in the evaluation. It has been used in medicine, government, higher education, nonprofit organizations, urban educational institutions, and a growing body of policy fields. If one looks at the articles, books, and reports on empowerment evaluation, one can easily see that this trend is alive and well and pursued vigorously. For example, policymakers use empowerment evaluation with groups traditionally outside the loop of evaluation in the past such as substance abuse members, HIV prevention programs, welfare reform, juvenile justice, individuals with disabilities, educational institutions, and many other groups without a strong voice in public policy. Empowerment evaluation enables people to help themselves and improve their programs and their lives. This type of evaluation demands the implementation of democratic processes. Participants in an empowerment evaluation project participate fully in the project by continual self-assessment. They assess their progress toward self-determined goals. Thus, self-determination, self assessment, illumination, and empowerment are key elements in this enterprise. Many empowerment evaluation members write of the value of collaboration as allowing for emancipation and advocacy. They take an active role in the community and become, in effect, empowered. For educational administrators and leaders, the value of empowerment evaluation practices cannot be overestimated. In an era when almost all educational leadership programs today include standards on community involvement, collaboration, diversity, multiculturalism, and social justice, empowerment evaluation offers a sturdy framework for active agency. In addition, this approach demystifies the evaluation processes so hidden in earlier generations and formats for evaluation. One of the main emphases in empowerment
evaluation is training participants to conduct their own evaluations. Thus the focus on participation, collaboration, and empowerment is a major evolution of the study of evaluation.

Another writer who has done a great deal to enrich our understanding of this postmodern trend is Michael Quinn Patton. He has written extensively of utilization focused evaluation. His argument is that if we are to do evaluation at all, it should be useful to participants or stakeholders in the programs under evaluation.

More important, Patton asks if we as evaluators have a responsibility for making evaluation useful and thereby improving the state of the world. This approach is a participatory approach much like empowerment evaluation and similarly suggests alternative roles for the evaluator. In addition, he calls for the stakeholders and participants to be inclusive and active. He expands our notions of evaluation by redirecting energy to ethical issues in evaluation, use of methods beyond the quantitative and inclusive use of qualitative approaches to evaluation, and ultimately to make the evaluator a partner in the evaluation activity so as to ensure usefulness, empowerment, and collaboration. Thus, both utilization-focused evaluation and empowerment evaluation offer models that follow from the postmodern approach to evaluation and significantly change the role of the evaluator.

EVALUATION TODAY

The field of evaluation is dynamic, evolving, and growing. It has taken shape from the stem of three basic approaches: the traditionalist, the reconceptualist, and the postmodern approach to evaluation. Within the traditionalist approach, the generations identified as measurement, description, and judgment all approach the evaluator as a sort of bystander technocrat who uses time measuring, describing, or judging and totally leaves out the stakeholder participant. From the postmodern approach, the role of evaluator utterly changes and becomes one of inclusion. The evaluator invites participation in the evaluation process to include stakeholders and participants as active involved agents. The goal for the constructivist, postmodern evaluator is to move toward participation, collaboration, empowerment, and action. Many individuals on the outside of power in society are able to take an active role in improving their own programs and thus their own lives. Evaluation as a field is still in the process of rewriting its history, reshaping its thinking, and moving toward a more just and fair society. For educational leaders and administrators, evaluation as a field is opening up to call upon leadership to move toward fairness, inclusion, and participation for empowerment purposes. Educational leaders may educate themselves more fully on evaluation and its trends with the numerous resources on the World Wide Web, which includes Listservs, discussion groups, professional organizations, and entire examples of completed evaluations. No matter what approach a leader decides upon, ultimately evaluation is about placing a value on something and thoroughly describing the steps taken throughout the evaluation process.

The difference in today’s world, given a society that is diverse, multicultural, and striving for social justice and fairness, leads many to the conclusion that some approaches are more responsive, useful, and ultimately more effective than others.

—Valerie J. Janesick

See also accountability; achievement tests; Binet, Alfred; collaboration theory; community, types, building of; constructivism; constructivism, social; deconstruction; democracy, democratic education and administration; Dewey, John; empowerment; multiculturalism; postmodernism; standardized testing; systemic reform; Thorndike, Edward; values pluralism

Further Readings and References


Nietzsche, Søren Kierkegaard, Martin Heidegger, Karl Jaspers, Karl Marx, Jean-Paul Sartre, Erich Fromm, Martin Buber, Maurice Merleau-Ponty, Fyodor Dostoyevsky, A. S. Neill, Simone de Beauvoir, Maxine Greene, Albert Camus, and Franz Kafka, represent diverse and at times opposed views on critical issues. Still, several thematic foci undergird the work of these philosophers-labeled-existential. Among these are a focus on the individual and on personal freedom, a focus on the imperatives of free will and individual choice, and a focus on future-oriented self-actualization.

A FOCUS ON THE INDIVIDUAL AND ON PERSONAL FREEDOM

The individual is at the center of existential philosophy. This is at once elating and burdensome: the paradox of freedom is that it is at once a condemnation and a joy. Existential philosophers have written that the individual is “condemned to freedom” in that they must accept personal responsibility for all their actions (positive, negative, and indifferent) as they alone establish guidelines for action. Erich Fromm explained that upon accepting this responsibility, the individual may experience an authentic joy (positive freedom) that comes from intrinsically meaningful motivation and action. Inversely, inauthentic choices doom an individual to a state of despair and tyranny by consent (negative freedom). Existential philosophy places an implicit premium on nonconformity; group norms are of little importance, and groups themselves exist only to help an individual achieve a higher degree of personal freedom. Unfortunately for the existential individual, liberation is seldom the experience of participating in organizations and institutions such as schools and school systems—often places of normative policies, concessions, consensus, and quorum. As such, the existential individual experiences tensions inherent in group life. This can result in angst, alienation, and absurdity.

Absurdity refers to a sense of meaninglessness. To many existentialists, absurdity is the basic plight of the social individual and is imposed on him or her by external group and peer pressures: norms, institutions, laws, conventions, and the like that are at odds with an individual’s authentic constitution. Albert Camus described these extrapersonal pressures as walls erected between the individual and authenticity and possibly between the individual and society.

Angst is a feeling of despair, isolation, and dread that one experiences in an absurd state. Both Kierkegaard and Sartre suggested that it is essentially a nearly inescapable individual reaction to absurdity and can be manifest in many ways (e.g., frustration, rage, disaffection, indifference).

Alienation is a state in which the familiar becomes strange; old acquaintances, principles, and motives once held close become odd. The foundation is floating. Interest in alienation extends far beyond philosophy, and indeed the phenomenon has been studied in all the social sciences. Empirical research on alienation suggests that it affects groups and individuals in many forms (e.g., sociologist Melvin Seeman’s empirical domain of alienation is comprised of powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, and estrangement). Furthermore, alienation is experienced along dimensions of time and space. It can be a feeling that accrues over time or results from finding oneself in an actively alien(ating) environment.

A FOCUS ON THE IMPERATIVES OF FREE WILL AND INDIVIDUAL CHOICE

As individuals are condemned to freedom, they must continually make choices and accept complete personal responsibility for their actions. To the existentialist, since individuals have free will, there is no buck passing and no excuses outside the individual. Moreover, existential thought emphasizes the processes and the motivations of decision making as much as or more than the content of the decision. Decisions are either made authentically, entirely of individual volition, or inauthentically, motivated by extrapersonal impositions, norms, standards, and the like.

A FOCUS ON FUTURE-ORIENTED SELF-ACTUALIZATION

In a sense, existential individuals are future oriented, constantly in the process of becoming; moving ever closer or further away from their vision of freedom. Every individual enters the world as matter, a body, and creates him- or herself through authentic (or inauthentic) choice and action based on the content of his or her character. The existential individual is at once immediate and future-oriented, making each decision as it comes, authentically, and not ransoming the future to dogmatic principle or the tyranny of extrapersonal dicta. There is no dwelling on the past, there
is no extrinsic law to which one is naturally beholden. By immediately experiencing the world-as-lived from moment to moment, the individual moves closer to a state marked by authenticity and away from angst, alienation, and absurdity. When fully realized, self-actualization, or self-mastery, can liberate an individual from despair to a state of authentic joy.

—Jeffrey S. Brooks

See also critical theory; Marx, Karl; philosophies of education; values of organizations and leadership

Further Readings and References

EXPECTATIONS, TEACHER AND STUDENT CULTURES

School culture is key to establishing a high level of expectation for teaching and learning. A healthy culture is believed to improve student learning. Identified norms of a healthy school culture include collegiality; experimentation; high expectations; trust and confidence; tangible support; reaching out to knowledge base; appreciation and recognition; caring, celebration, and humor; involvement in decision making; protection of what’s important; traditions; and honest, open communication.

Culture can be described as the under-the-surface systems of norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals that have accumulated over time as people work to solve problems and confront challenges. Culture can be further described as responses to three questions: (1) what we say we believe in relation to what we believe, (2) what we say we do in relation to what we do, and (3) what we actually do in relation to what we believe.

Establishing high expectations for teacher and student performance involves shaping the culture of the school and increasing the collective capabilities of the faculty and staff. The principal plays an important part by engaging in, displaying, and modeling the behavior expected of teachers and students. Principals are the chief learning officers and are expected to create an environment that supports collaboration among teachers; provides time for teachers’ professional development; and recognizes, rewards, and celebrates the concept of teacher leaders.

In developing and sustaining healthy cultures, principals and school district leaders (a) challenge current cultural norms, (b) protect and reinforce the important values of the culture, (c) use collaboration, (d) support and embed professional development within the school, (e) use mandates to enhance, not contract, school programs, and (f) communicate regularly with all stakeholders.

Criteria have been identified that can guide the principal and teachers toward developing a school culture committed to high achievement for all students. The criteria include (a) the principal and teachers agree on indicators of quality, (b) the principal provides the necessary support for teachers to assist those students who need additional help in achieving challenging standards, and (c) the principal and teachers work cooperatively to define and defend a curriculum based on the belief that students are capable of working intelligently and producing quality work.

Specific guidelines for the principal include (a) developing broadly conceived program standards that describe the educational purposes for which students need particular knowledge and skills, (b) designing major performance assessments as benchmark grades for all students, and (c) designing learning projects that support the program standards.

Developing a culture conducive to teaching and learning for teachers and students involves the following assumptions: (a) with the appropriate conditions, schools have the capacity to improve themselves, (b) when the need, the purpose, and the conditions are present, adults and students alike learn, and each energizes and contributes to the learning of the other, (c) what needs to be improved about schools is their culture, the quality of the interpersonal relationships, and the nature and quality of learning experiences and (d) school improvement is an effort to determine and provide, from without and within, conditions under
which the adults and students will promote and sustain learning among themselves.

—Jean M. Haar

See also adaptiveness of organizations; attitudes toward work; belonging; climate, school; collaboration theory; creativity, in management; democracy, democratic education and administration; empowerment; esprit (school climate); esteem needs; feminism and theories of leadership; human resource development; motivation, theories of; open-door policy; perceptual psychology; principalship; productivity; professional development; rational organizational theory; superintendency; systemic reform

Further Readings and References


EXPERT POWER

Power is the ability to influence the behavior of others. It is the ability to exert influence in the organization beyond authority, which is derived from position. The supervisor’s personal power could include job knowledge, personal influence, interpersonal skills, ability to get results, empathetic ability, persuasive ability, and physical strength.

Expert power denotes that a person or group of persons or organization of persons determines or affects what another person or group or organization will do. It is the power derived from having more information or skill in a given area than do most other people. Expert power comes from the individual’s authority, which has been granted to the person through expertise in a subject or through a position that the individual holds in the organization and is derived from expertise, skill, or knowledge. Table 1 reviews the five basic types of power that may exist in organizations.

A leader within an organization seeks support and acceptance from the organization. This is demonstrated as others agree with the leader’s ideas, suggested plans of action, and/or the ability to enthusiastically carry out instructions. The two types of personal power—expert and referent—are most useful to establish commitment from others in the organization. By contrast, two types of formal power—position and reward—are most likely to generate compliance from others.

Individuals may enhance their expert power when they promote their current achievements/abilities, increase their personal skills, and obtain more specialized knowledge. One’s expert power increases when an individual becomes more useful to and, therefore, is more visible to others in the organization. Others in the organization recognize that the skills and abilities of a leader in the organization may assist in achieving both institutional and individual goals. Demonstrating expert power may lead the individual to establish credibility and trust from others in the organization.

In summary, organizations may benefit from an individual’s expert power. An individual in a leadership role establishes knowledge, credibility, and acceptance by demonstrating expertise in an area. When a qualified individual demonstrates expert power, every member of the organization benefits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Sources of Power</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of Organizational Power</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Authority granted to a position within the hierarchy of an organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward Power</td>
<td>Authority to provide rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercive Power</td>
<td>Authority to withhold rewards or administer punishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Types of Personal Power</strong></td>
<td><strong>Source</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expert Power</td>
<td>Specialized knowledge, skill or expertise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referent Power</td>
<td>Personal characteristics admired and respected by others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individuals personally benefit by learning from another’s expertise and knowledge. The organization as a whole also benefits.

—Carolyn Stevenson

See also charisma, of leaders; communications, theories in organizations; leadership, situational; management theories; organizational theories; persuasion;

Further Readings and References


EXPULSION, OF STUDENTS

Expulsion is the immediate removal of a student from school. An expulsion is a student who leaves school involuntarily due to a removal approved by appropriate school authorities. According to the U.S. Department of Education, expulsion is an action taken by school authorities, compelling a student to withdraw from school for reasons such as extreme behavior, chronic absenteeism and tardiness, incorrigibility, or unsatisfactory achievement or progress in school. Historically, expulsion and the removal of a student from school were defined as the denial of access to a public education for a period of time based on the seriousness of the offense. Expulsion was a disciplinary action reserved for the most serious offenses committed by students. Expulsions were often considered as nothing more than an unsupervised street furlough for delinquent students to commit crimes.

Suspension is associated with expulsion. Suspension is a mandated leave given to a student that prohibits the student from attending school. In-school suspension is defined as the temporary dismissal of a student from class by authorized school personnel in accordance with established district/school rules and regulations. The student is served with in-school supervision. An out-of-school suspension is the temporary dismissal of a student from class. The student is removed by authorized personnel using district/school rules and regulations. The out-of-school suspension is served outside of school. Long-term suspension refers to removal of special education students.

In the age of zero tolerance, the Gun-Free Schools Act of 1994 (GFSA) requires states to enact zero tolerance legislation that mandates automatic expulsion for a period of one year. The Safe Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act has also affected student expulsion. Expulsion is no longer a student disciplinary action that is defined by public school administrators and teachers but a nationally defined criminal behavior. In an effort to comply with federal policy that comes with the teeth to withhold federal education dollars, states have created school discipline policies that assign criminal categories to offenses that mandate expulsion. According to the Harvard Civil Rights Project, in 26 states, districts are required to provide some kind of disciplinary alternative education program (DAEP) as an alternative educational placement for students who are removed from their home schools for offenses that mandate expulsion; however, disciplinary alternative education programs are minimal services that may not provide courses that the student needs for graduation. DAEPs may pose a disruption to the regular classroom instruction and the student’s education.

Expulsions may be categorized as discretionary or mandatory removal; however, in most cases students are not removed to the street. In the case of discretionary expulsions, students are removed from the home campus and admitted into a DAEP based on the discretion of the school administrator. Using GSFA guidelines, mandatory expulsion is required if the student possesses a firearm, an illegal knife, a club, or a weapon as defined in the state’s penal code. Other categories of mandatory expulsion infractions for which a student will be removed are actions committed when the student engages in aggravated assault, arson, murder, indecency with a child, aggravated kidnapping, or conduct punishable as a felony.

A third category allows discretionary expulsion or removal from the home campus and admission into the DAEP for setting off false alarms, making false reports, making terrorist threats, using, posing, selling, or being under the influence of marijuana, a controlled substance or a dangerous drug, or an alcoholic beverage. Students may graduate from the DAEP into the juvenile system if they continue to engage in serious or persistent misbehavior. Some school districts
identify serious and persistent misbehavior as low-level misbehavior that is committed five or more times.

The fifth category includes a list of behaviors that may be categorized in more than one disciplinary category or DAEP placement or expulsion based upon the circumstances, including offenses for marijuana, controlled substance, alcoholic beverages, glue, paint, public lewdness, indecent exposure, and retaliation against school employees.

According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, in 1999, 35% of all African American students in grades 7–12 were expelled. According the 2000 Harvard Civil Rights Study, African Americans make up 17% of the U.S. K–12 population but 37% of all out-of-school suspensions. In 1999, 20% of all Hispanic students in grades 7–12 were expelled. Whites were expelled at a rate of 15% for the same year. When K–6 data are included, the percentages go even higher. The data on expulsions show that minority and male students tend to be placed in the more severe category of suspensions out-of-school and expulsions. In Texas, of all the expulsions into the Juvenile Justice Alternative Education Program, 97% were males.

ISSUES

Issues related to expulsions include the overrepresentation of low-income, at-risk, minorities, and males expelled or suspended from school, the negative effects of disrupting a student’s education with removal, the subjectivity of discretionary removals, and the public perception that twenty-first-century youth are “superpredators.” Finally, there are several issues relating to the inflexible mandates of zero tolerance policies that can have a student removed from school for bringing an aspirin or a Midol to school and charging the student with a drug violation.

According to the Harvard study, students who are suspended suffer academically. The study shows that 30% of the tenth graders who drop out have also been suspended. High school dropouts are also more likely to be incarcerated.

In many cases, police are called to remove students from school for simple violations like dress code violations or food throwing. A dress code violation can land a student in a municipal court. In some cities, special teen courts have been established to hear school student code violations. In an era of accountability, expulsion and suspensions may offer a technique for removing low-scoring students from the test rolls. In one state, DAEPs were exempt from the accountability system. When the procedures were amended to require DAEP participation in the state accountability system, the process for transferring test scores from the DAEP to the sending school was unclear.

Recommendations for reducing student suspensions and expulsions focus on the need for adults to provide adequate guidance and socialization for American teenagers. Investments in life skills training and social development programs that focus on students’ self-concepts, families, and schools can offer positive approaches to student removal trends. Three organizations—the Center for Effective Collaboration and Practice of the American Institute of Research, the Justice Matters Institute, and the Milwaukee Catalyst/Design for Change—report on innovative ways that schools have found to have achievement, safety, and low suspensions/expulsions.

—Augustina Reyes

See also behaviorism; Black education; child development theories; critical race theory; cross-cultural studies; discipline in schools; dropouts; early childhood education; ethnicity; grades, of students; immigration, history and impact in education; Indian education; individual differences, in children; intelligence; Latinos; school safety; underachievers, in schools; vandalism in schools; violence in schools

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EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The phases in the development and emphasis of extracurricular activities and those of leadership theories are surprisingly interactive. Major factors influencing the development, attitudes, and values
of extracurricular activities have been influenced by changes in leadership or management theories. The creation of the extra curriculum has been ranked by modern educational historians as one of the most innovative developments in schools in the early twentieth century, comparable to compulsory school attendance, vocational education, and the comprehensive high school.

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT: PHASE ONE
From 1900 to 1920 and beyond, scientific management heavily dominated American education. Frederick Taylor, an influential theorist, supported the technical approach with bottom-line techniques. Taylor felt that increasing output was accomplished by improving methods used by workers (students). Thus, while the individual worker (student) as a person was not a concern for Taylor, his major focus was on the worker’s productivity to increase that of the organization.

Luther Gulick’s views at this time influenced ideology focusing on division of labor, organizational patterns, work coordination, and departments. He continued his thoughts by expanding the concept of categorizing into purpose, process, persons, and places. Thus, during this period, 1900 to 1920, extracurricular activities were passively accepted. Educators viewed them as distractions to academic purposes, that is, productivity of education. Following Taylor’s and Gulick’s models, the bottom line for educators was solely academic productivity, and the growth of the individual was considered inconsequential.

The late 1920s and early 1930s also tried to recognize specific leadership traits to differentiate leaders from nonleaders. The early 1930s continued the use of mechanical techniques. Similarly, evaluations, observations, and reports were used to analyze the academic success of students.

HUMAN RELATIONS: PHASE TWO
John Dewey, leading a transition into the next phase and also progressive with his viewpoint of improving and perpetuating society through enhancing personal and social growth, developed a view relevant to meeting the needs of the learner.

Elton Mayo, a humanist, introduced the concern for interpersonal and personal growth of workers in management to consider workers’ feelings and attitudes. Mayo’s views support the second phase of the development of extracurricular activities. The mid-1930s brought progressive education. Educating the whole child came to be exemplified through the development of the National Honor Society and the National Student Council, with both organizations working on building virtues within students. This was supported by research in leadership, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by Ohio State University, which pointed to two dimensions in effective aircraft commanders: task orientation and person orientation, or concern for subordinates. The development of these organizations supported Chester I. Barnard’s views on organizations, as systems of human beings working cooperatively to reach commonly accepted goals, rather than a formally structured impersonal mechanism. Abraham Maslow’s “hierarchy of needs” continued to support the humanistic approach toward education. He explicated the importance of meeting students’ needs in a hierarchical approach, with aspects of extracurricular participation assisting the school in meeting students’ social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. In both national organizations, a major focus was on students working together to achieve goals developed cooperatively.

STRUCTURALISM: PHASE THREE
The 1940s continued the human relations theme with the emerging idea of process rather than product. Max Weber’s ideas introduced a bureaucratic approach to power and control within schools, as well as the concept of authority. Rules and policies, Weber believed, made for a reliable and predictable bureaucratic system. Robert Merton conveyed the idea that the bureaucratic structure had consequences to the individual as well as to the organization itself, that organizations are social structures, each part dependent upon another. Theorists observed that organizations were basically closed structures.

Extracurricular activities were aiming to develop individual skills and needs. Schools wanted students to be reliable and predictable with their citizenship, attitudes, and social behaviors as a result of the societal pressure of war.

A FOCUS ON CURRICULUM
In the late 1950s, a focus on curriculum emerged more predominately on the educational scene. Ralph Winifred Tyler became influential because of his beliefs that three predominant issues drove curriculum: society, students, and subject matter. Benjamin
Bloom, also influential, introduced his concept of taxonomy, which focused on organizing curriculum to address a hierarchal thinking order. As a result, extracurricular organizations and supporters designed and implemented new curriculum and presented it through state-level workshops for student leaders.

The 1960s focused on attitudinal approaches. Confusion was caused by a lack of organization and the need to restructure curriculum. Therefore, Hilda Taba continued to expand Tyler’s work on organizing curriculum, and Weber’s concept of power continued to influence schools. He wanted superior-subordinate relationships or a hierarchy within organizations and bureaucracy to achieve technical superiority.

**RECENT LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENTS: 1960S AND ON**

Rensis Likert, another influential theorist, focused on goals and accomplishing tasks any way possible, supporting goal-oriented work to achieve more productivity. He believed that the more authoritarian an organization, the more likely it was that individual and group loyalty would be valued by management. He focused on personal growth and creativity through participatory management. Another perspective was the contingency theory of situational leadership: that individuals have a leadership style, depending on the situation, tasks to be accomplished, or the needs of the people. This period brought many new views and much opposition to the idea of leadership. This opposition of the 1960s is easily identified in the history of extracurricular activities. Again, the role of extracurricular activities was questioned due to influential societal issues that affected this dissension in the purpose of extracurricular activities.

James MacGregor Burns initiated the concept of transformational leadership, where people elevate each other to higher levels, supporting the idea that transformational leaders uphold higher moral values and ideals. Mirroring the political upheaval of the 1970s, student participants in extracurricular activities were eager to make dramatic changes within the school through protests and sit-ins to display their moral values.

Robert K. Greenleaf’s work in the 1970s would awaken the concept of servant leadership by asking tough moral questions. Situational leadership theories influenced extracurricular activities as they began to identify students developing their own leadership style, depending upon their personality and situation.

The 1980s witnessed a very diverse student population. The concept of an administrative team was introduced, and the purpose was to improve instruction of the curriculum. During this decade, the concept of leadership teams began to emerge, influencing student leader organizations; thus, extracurricular activities not only were accepted but were also strongly encouraged by educators.

The 1990s continued to support the human relations theme. John Gardner explained the tasks of leadership, including envisioning goals, affirming values, and teaching leadership. In addition, Thomas Sergiovanni believed that a school environment should be based on shared values rather than bureaucratic roles, strongly emphasizing transformational leadership. The mission of Sergiovanni’s leader was to focus on membership, which in turn would assist the leader’s acceptance. He also believed new leaders need practice with moral dilemmas centered on purpose, values, and beliefs. Student leaders in extracurricular activities of this time supported many projects and activities directed toward societal and community needs. School administrators embraced visions of extracurricular activities; therefore, they were eager to empower student leaders to sponsor school-related activities that would enhance local communities.

Leadership and curricular theorists have greatly influenced the conceptualization, development, and roles of extracurricular activities. When observing both timelines, it is evident that the extracurricular program has been influenced by the prevailing leadership theories of the day. Among those most influential were preparation for the newer roles with urban industrialization and the requirements of working with others in teams or groups. The extra curriculum was regarded as necessary to teach socialization and to provide outlets for the more confined jobs in manufacturing plants. Research has indicated that extracurricular activities contribute to adolescent development and do not undermine the academic side of school life. In fact, the research indicates that participation in the extra curriculum promotes an enhanced sense of student well-being and extends into community participation in adult life.

—Melissa Sohn

See also administration, theories of; athletics in schools; Barnard, Chester I.; Burns, James MacGregor; Dewey, John; high schools; management theories; Maslow, Abraham; Taylor, Frederick; Tyler, Ralph Winifred; Weber, Max

See also administration, theories of; athletics in schools; Barnard, Chester I.; Burns, James MacGregor; Dewey, John; high schools; management theories; Maslow, Abraham; Taylor, Frederick; Tyler, Ralph Winifred; Weber, Max
Further Readings and References


FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor-analytic procedures are used to reduce a set of measured or observed variables down to a smaller number of conceptual variables by grouping them on the basis of the correlation coefficients among them. Measured variables that correlate strongly are considered to be linked to an unobserved conceptual variable, often referred to as a latent variable or a construct. A common use of factor analysis is to provide evidence that valid inferences can be made on the basis of scores from an instrument that purports to measure specific constructs. For example, a school administrator might be interested in measuring the learning approaches of students using a self-report survey instrument. Based on theory, students might use a memorization approach or a higher-order thinking approach to learning. The memorization approach is one construct or latent variable measured by items on an instrument, and the higher-order thinking approach is a second construct or variable measured by items on the instrument. The learning approach model is depicted in Figure 1.

In Figure 1, circles represent the constructs (latent variables) memorization and higher-order learning, boxes represent the items that measure the latent variables, and arrows represent the relationships between the latent variables and the measured variables. Items X1 through X5 measure memorization learning and should correlate fairly strongly. Likewise, items labeled Y1 through Y5 measure higher-order learning and should correlate fairly strongly. Any correlations between the X items and Y items should be comparatively weak and are considered a function of the relationship between the latent variables.

To interpret the results of factor analyses, consumers of research should consider path coefficients, fit indices, and theory. All factor-analytic procedures yield path coefficients (alternatively called loadings, structure coefficients, or pattern coefficients) that represent the strength of the relationship between each item and the construct it measures. The adequacy of the coefficients depends on the number of respondents, but coefficients below .30 should never be considered adequate. In addition to coefficients, fit indices, which range from 0 to 1, are sometimes reported. Fit indices assess the match between the observed correlations, or relationships, among variables and predicted relationships based on a model, such as the model depicted in Figure 1. Most fit indices are considered adequate at or above .90. Another way to evaluate the sufficiency of the fit between the observed correlations and a model is to measure the error or residual produced when assessing the match between the observed and predicted relationships. The residual index should always be equal to or less than .10.

Even when the statistical results of the factor analysis are good, educational leaders must still consider whether or not an instrument accurately reflects the theory that he or she considers appropriate for making decisions about students. Based on scores from assessments, inferences are made about students’ characteristics or abilities that can affect the quality of education the students receive as well as future opportunities. Thus, it is important that valid inferences be made about student characteristics and abilities to maintain high standards in education. Toward the goal of making valid inferences, statistical results and theory or content should be considered together. For a thorough treatment of factor-analytic procedures and
uses of these procedures, the reader is referred to the following resources.

—Margaret E. Ross

See also hierarchical developmental models; objectivity; operational definitions; quantitative research, history, theories, issues; questionnaires; research methods; structural equation modeling; surveys and survey results; testing and test theory development; validity and reliability

Further Readings and References


↑ FACULTY, EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

Although the work of faculty in educational leadership is dependent in large measure upon the mission of the university of which it is a part, external demands are influencing faculty work. Faculty work has become a focal point among groups both within and external to higher education hoping to impact programs that prepare educational leaders. Some believe that leadership preparation should mirror professional training in business, law, and medicine: preparing future leaders and performing basic research. Others believe that leadership programs should train leaders and little more. Essential to this debate is the issue of faculty evaluation, because the processes for evaluating educational leadership faculty must be aligned with expectations for faculty work.

There are approximately 500 university-based educational leadership programs operating in the United States, usually within colleges or schools of education. These programs have been increasingly called upon to provide a variety of courses, degrees, and services. However, there has also been a growing emphasis within universities of all types (with the exception of community colleges) to reward faculty more for research than teaching or service. As a result, more and more program faculty are being asked to do an increasing number of tasks, from preparing cohorts of students, ranging in size from 6 to 600, for careers in research and the public schools, to contributing to the knowledge base on educational leadership, to working with and contributing to schools in their communities, regions, and states.

Although some institutions have done an adequate job defining the role of leadership preparation programs as well as the work of leadership faculty, many have not. For example, many faculty members are expected to spend increasing amounts of time in local schools though the reward structures at their institutions favor research. Obviously, this has substantial consequences for faculty workload and faculty evaluation.

Historically, university faculty have been evaluated and rewarded based on their performance in three areas: teaching, scholarship, and service, all of which compete for time within the faculty workweek. Many colleges of education continue to rely on the “traditional workload distribution” of 40% effort devoted to instruction, 40% effort devoted to scholarship, and 20% effort devoted to service. However, within different colleges of education, a variety of models can be found. Table 1 presents several typical workload models.

It is essential that the evaluation of faculty work be aligned with their work expectations. Generally, the evaluation of faculty work is driven by the need for formative or summative decision making regarding continuance, tenure, promotion, and merit-based salary increases. The literature in this area is extensive, encompassing close to 5,000 works on topics like faculty evaluation, student evaluations of faculty instruction, peer evaluations, merit review, faculty accountability, faculty portfolios, and personnel process and policy.
The following list includes recommendations for effective practice in faculty evaluation:

- Establish the purpose of the evaluation, the uses, and the users beforehand.
- Include all stakeholders in decisions about evaluation process and policy.
- Ensure productivity measures take into account institutional and disciplinary distinctions as well as differences in faculty rank.
- Publicly present clear information about the evaluation criteria, process, and procedures.
- Establish a legally defensible evaluation process and a system for grievances.
- Include resources for improvement and support of teaching, research, and service.
- Build systematic (rather than haphazard) processes of evaluation.
- Establish clear lines of responsibility and reporting for those who administer the system.
- Use, adapt, or develop valid measures that are suited to institutional and individual needs.
- Collect and analyze multiple sources of information.
- Invest in the evaluation system and evaluate it regularly.
- Produce reports that can be easily and accurately understood.
- Educate the users of ratings results to avoid misuse and misinterpretation.
- Keep formative evaluation confidential and separate from summative decision making.
- In summative decisions, compare faculty on the basis of data from similar situations.
- Seek expert outside assistance when necessary or appropriate.
- Ensure that evaluation is closely tied to well-supported, long-term faculty development efforts.

These practices can help to guide the effective evaluation of individual faculty members. However, as emphasized above, to ensure clarity, fairness, and quality within a program’s faculty evaluation system, it is essential that the system be aligned with clearly defined work expectations.

Part of the problem of balance can be addressed only by sector resegregation. That is, universities were developed with different purposes (research, teaching, and service) in mind. Rather than assimilating and expecting all faculty to do the same thing across universities, universities and their faculty should be doing different things—serving their public in different ways. Once institutional mission is settled, then faculty work expectations and evaluation procedures should be aligned with that mission.

Some institutional missions will be served well by changing very little. However, in other institutions,
new frameworks will need to be developed. Some suggestions include developing a charter, reforming the tenure codes, and providing alternatives to tenure. The idea of developing a charter is borrowed from the P–12 notion of charter schools. Here, the faculty or administration within a college of education would write a charter exempting them from the mission, and thus requirements, of the university, allowing them leeway to establish their own mission, goals, faculty work expectations and faculty evaluation criteria and procedures. By reforming tenure codes, faculty could redefine what is needed to achieve tenure and/or promotion as well as how one would be evaluated. Models could be created to allow maximum flexibility in achieving institutional goals and missions. The five models of faculty work presented above might be expanded to 10 or more, depending on how faculty work was defined and structured. For example, 40-40-20 might be redefined to mean that faculty members spend 40% of their time in instruction, 40% working with schools, and 20% working on program development.

Another suggestion, providing alternatives to tenure, suggests the development of differentiated tasks and tracks. Here, research faculty would fulfill more traditional faculty roles, while clinical faculty would fill other roles. The success of this model depends on clearly defining what is expected of tenure track and non-tenure-track faculty and on ensuring that the work of these two groups is substantially different.

The development of new models for faculty work and faculty evaluation should be responsive to both external needs and institutional mission. Educational administration faculty must have clearly defined roles and responsibilities, and universities must develop processes that fairly and adequately evaluate faculty based on the work roles they have been assigned.

—Michelle D. Young, Jite Eferakahro, and Jumoke Sanusi

See also accountability; higher education; knowledge base; of the field; merit pay; universities, preparation of educational leaders in

Further Readings and References


FASCISM AND SCHOOLS

Fascism is a term that referred to a right-wing movement that ruled Italy from 1922 to 1943 under the leadership of Benito Mussolini. Fundamental fascism joined action and thought to create an imminent doctrine that arose from certain historical forces that were informed to allow men to become acquainted with reality and its laws. Under the declarations of Benito Mussolini regarding fascism in 1939, schools were considered the cornerstone of the solidarity that bound all social forces together to shape the human and political conscience of the latest generations in order to provide the economic, political, and moral unity that became the fascist state. Fascism was defined as any government that promotes nationality above individuals, uses violence and censorship to suppress political opposition, engages in violence and modern techniques of propaganda, engages in economic and social regimentation as well as corporatism, and implements a totalitarian system. Under Mussolini, all individual business was the sole duty of the state, since a fascist man is an individual as well as also a nation and a country. Schools under the fascist regime were designed to create a popular culture that was inspired by the eternal values to promote work that included concrete activities in the sciences, trades, arts, professions, and armed forces. Education in fascist states required attendance until students were 20 years old in order to achieve discipline, harmonious growth, fitness, moral behavior, and self-assurance, as well as discipline and duty. Expectations in fascist schools also included societal duties by redefining worker training for young girls and other technical and productive employee capabilities. State textbooks that were deemed suitable were furnished for all elementary schools, but only the well-to-do were permitted to pursue their advanced studies.

Examples of fascism in American schools include the school killings by two students in Columbine,
Colorado, on Hitler’s birthday; students who rejected the recitation of the “Pledge of Allegiance” as a fascist activity; and students who characterized the Junior ROTC as a suspect propaganda agenda. In response to these problems, public school administrators, teachers, parents, and students are beginning to face the existing problems with fascism and mobilize their communities in order to learn the dangers they face by fascist organizers in their school communities. Fascism in the educational system is a problem that must be strongly addressed by school administrators, teachers, and students to protect them from being recruited: by taking appropriate steps to involve community stakeholders through education and mobilization to take a stand against the Hitlerites, Nazis, neo-Nazis, skinheads, and other radicals who pose a continuing danger to communities around the United States.

—Carole Funk

See also anti-Semitism; authority; behaviorism; bullying; critical race theory; discipline in schools; discrimination; ethnocentrism; homophobia; minorities, in schools; neo-Nazism; personality; school safety; suicide, in schools; terrorism; violence in schools

Further Readings and References


FAVORITISM

Gaia, Greek goddess and both mother and wife of Uranus, was beyond the point of rage regarding the favoritism shown by her husband. She handled his errors with an unthinkable punishment. Favoritism, even in ancient Greece, was recognized as an abuse of power.

Thomas Jefferson understood that even the appearance of favoritism was harmful as he advised that special legislation would be a perversion of the principle of equal rights. Today and in the past, people wish to see equity in treatment. They look for fairness.

Favoritism is using power unfairly. It can be manifest in many ways. It may be seen in athletes getting special privileges, selective enforcement of dress codes, or having a college friend hired in a position for which she is minimally qualified despite having a rich applicant pool. Protection and control enter into the equation of favoritism, leaving some in the circle and some outside.

Surveys that detail negative qualities in administrators or supervisors almost always key on favoritism. Teachers, classified employees, parents, students, and colleagues find favoritism distasteful. Favoritism often is cited as the basis for distrusting a supervisor and questioning his or her decisions in other areas.

Public education is imbued with a tradition of fairness and equity. Processes are established to support fairness. Hiring, for example, is done with a standardized set of forms and procedures. Interviews often have a standard set of questions. Panels are instructed regarding how to conduct the process fairly, yet favoritism often is charged when the final candidate is selected. Issues of gender, race, religion, national and even regional origin, social standing, and age frequently are brought up in charges of favoritism.

The impact of perceived favoritism on teachers is profound. Motivation, trust, and morale are damaged. Divisions and splits occur among grade levels and individuals. The entire school climate can move from positive to negative though the perception of favoritism on the part of the principal.

Principals and districts also can engage in favoritism regarding contracts for services. This is particularly evident when the company owner or key personnel receiving the bid has a familial or similar relationship with district administration or governing board. Like favoritism within hiring, promoting, or making assignments, this type of favoritism erodes the confidence of district stakeholders, including the community members.

Ethics and integrity are personal commitments expected of educational leaders. Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) is a consortium dedicated to ensuring a quality corps of school administrators. Six standards have been established. The fifth standard deals directly with an educational leader’s responsibility to act with integrity and fairness. Similarly, the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) has a code of ethics...
for administrators, which calls for high standards including avoiding actions to seek personal political gain.

—Penelope Walters Swenson

See also accountability; capacity building, of organizations; contracts, with teacher unions; critical race theory; equality, in schools; grades, of students; group dynamics; job security; leadership effectiveness; morale; open-door policy; peer interaction/friendships; role conflict; seniority, rule of; unions, of teachers; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References


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**FEDERAL PRIVACY ACT**

The Privacy Act was passed by Congress in 1974, and it established certain controls over what personal information is collected by the federal government and how it is used. This law essentially gives citizens the right to see files about themselves, to amend inaccurate records, and to sue the government for allowing illegal access to confidential files.

The 1974 Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), also known as the Buckley Amendment, was established as an amendment to the Federal Privacy Act and is one of two major federal privacy laws specifically affecting education. The U.S. Congress passed FERPA in order to extend Federal Privacy Act protections to students and their families so as to protect their privacy with education-related records. Similar to what the Federal Privacy Act guarantees to individuals with government records, this amendment grants parents certain rights of access to their children’s education records and restricts disclosure of information from those records without their consent. Parents have the right to challenge material contained in student records, the right to amend records they believe to be inaccurate or misleading, and the right to restrict publication of personally identifiable information. FERPA also gives parents the right to inspect instructional materials associated with any program included in schools’ curricula.

FERPA applies to any educational institution receiving federal funds, which includes all public schools, most colleges and universities, and even some private schools. Parental rights to access to their children’s records incorporate most information that teachers, school administrators, and education officials maintain about students in any format: electronic, photographic, or paper. In the highly litigious setting in which educational institutions now exist, it is of the utmost importance that leaders balance the privacy rights of the students and staff with the public’s “right to know.”

Teachers and administrators frequently have questions regarding the confidentiality of student records. With whom may they share information contained in a student’s cumulative file? What records or information may parents gain access to, and what information should the school or teacher keep private? Until 1975, they did not have to be concerned about such matters because there were no restrictions over who could see or be granted access to student records. It was also common for schools to deny parental access to educational records because they thought it would be time consuming and costly and increase a school’s accountability by opening up the educational process to public scrutiny. This lack of confidentiality and access proved to be a significant problem.

A positive result of the passage of FERPA has been the cleansing of student files of inaccurate information and information based on opinion rather than fact. Although fears that parents and students would sue schools for inaccurate information contained in the files are largely unfounded, it is important that student files are accurate, based on facts and firsthand observation, and educationally relevant. Under FERPA, public schools are required to grant parents access to their children’s school records, and educational records must be kept confidential. It is important, therefore, that teachers guard the confidentiality of student educational information. Allowing access to records without parental permission or personally identifying students or divulging information during activities such as “lounge talk” or conversations with others may be in violation of a student’s rights under FERPA.

—Noe Sauceda
See also accountability; at-risk students; bureaucracy; governance; grades, of students; law, trends in; parental involvement; politics, of education

Further Readings and References


FEEDBACK

Feedback is most usefully understood in considering the behavior of complex dynamic systems and in problem solving related to such systems. Feedback expresses the concept of circular causation postulated to operate in dynamic systems and is particularly related to one of two fundamental elements in such systems, namely the informational content of such systems, the other essential component in that description being the material states or elements in those systems. The term came into wide application with the development of the discipline of systems dynamics in 1971 by Jay Forrester but has been shown by George Richardson in 1991 to have originated much earlier, as far back as third-century Greece. *Systems dynamics* itself refers to the syntax and mathematical modeling techniques developed by Forrester and his students to describe and analyze the behavior of any kind of complex system. *Complexity* is understood both as detail complexity—referring to the sheer number of elements operating in a system, and dynamic complexity—incorporating the notion of reciprocal causality in determining the over-time behavior of the entire system or of a particular subset of variables. Since systems dynamics is content free, it is applicable to any system. This feature allows the methodology to be applied to any kind of over-time behavior of variables of interest that results from the complex interaction of a set of material and informational flows representing a coherent set of dynamically related elements.

A more general reference to systems dynamics (as opposed to system stability) was initiated with the work of Ilya Prigogine in 1980 and 1984, in which it was shown that open systems—that are in constant and reciprocal relationship with their environment—import energy from their environment and export tendencies toward entropy. Instead of focusing attention solely on the role of (negative) feedback processes to maintain system stability, attention could now be turned to understanding how, for open systems, this relationship between a system and its environment could be used by that system for the purpose of achieving growth and change. It is now well-known that this property of open systems serves as protection against disorganization and eventual decline. As evidenced by the recent emphasis on seeing schools as open systems, a focus on feedback and the role it plays in problem structuring in educational reform and more generally in facilitating organizational learning in schools and school systems becomes important for this volume concerned with educational leadership.

Underlying the systems dynamics approach to analyzing system behavior or problems in the behavior of particular variables in social systems is a distinctly different ontological perspective. Traditional views of explanation still rely on the use of linear models, in which independent variables explain dependent variables by summing the effects of the independent variables. Alternatively, the function connecting the *explanans* to the *explanandum* is linear or can be made so by some suitable transformation. Dynamic systems approaches, however, operate from a different philosophical orientation, namely, the view that systems ultimately consist of stocks, otherwise called accumulations, on the one hand, and flows between these stocks, on the other, and that focus must be placed on the change processes underlying systems behavior, not only or even mainly on system structure. It is the full listing of accumulations or stocks that at any moment describes the state of the particular system. The combination of a system state with the information and material flows of the system and related system goals, the latter either referencing their own or exogenous (desired) levels, describes the relevant system, which when given initial values and then set in motion via some appropriate modeling device allows the system to exhibit the specific over-time behavior patterns observed. These behaviors result from the ways in which stocks are related to each other, with a specific polarity-positive or negative in each case, together with information flows and delays in how quickly changes in specific stocks affect other stock changes. Positive feedback behaviors move the system away from equilibrium, while negative ones restore the system to some equilibrium level when the latter is
disturbed from an original position. The totality of the feedback behaviors in a system constitutes the feedback structure of that system. Over time, this feedback structure leads the state variables of the system to exhibit time trends that are either of an exploding or damping variety, or to oscillate in cycles of constant or varying amplitude, the latter in the exploding direction or in a damping set of cycles.

Feedback, complicated through the existence of delays in the postulated feedback structure of dynamic systems and nonlinearities of one kind or another, leads to the creation of dynamic complexity. Dynamic complexity reflects the complex coupling of state variables, nonlinearities in their relationships, path-dependence in system behavior (the sense that where a system, or a variable in a system, is at any moment often depends to some nontrivial degree on where it started out), the self-organizing nature of systems, and the possibility for adaptive behavior and learning from experience.

Although modeling systems serves explicitly to trace out their dynamic behaviors, it is possible to address feedback considerations and to see their implications without the use of mathematical models. A few examples will suffice. In international politics, Robert Jarvis convincingly showed in 1997 how complexity results in system effects that often are substantially counterintuitive. In economic systems, persistent system behaviors in the face of efforts to change them are frequent, as are examples of small initial changes, which oftentimes lead to large outcomes, reflecting the presence of path-dependence. Andrew Ford showed convincingly in 1999 how feedback operates in environmental systems, while Gareth Morgan richly demonstrated in 1986 the power of positive and negative feedback effects in organizational behavior and learning. Finally, while student learning itself is most fruitfully conceptualized as the product of the operation of a variety of positive feedback effects, school leadership, which exemplifies the internalization of the importance of feedback in the social processes in schools and school systems, can strongly support the development of schools as learning organizations, substantially deepening their problem-solving skills, their organizational agility, and hence their institutional resilience.

—Lascelles Anderson

See also accountability; behaviorism; economics, theories of; learning, theories of; management theories; management information systems; outputs, of systems; performance assessment; salary and salary models; school improvement models; standardized testing; systems theory/thinking; value-added indicators

Further Readings and References


Feminism and Theories of Leadership

Feminism, represented by multiple theoretical perspectives and pedagogical approaches, is a historically varied and culturally diverse international movement. Many feminist theories and perspectives have developed and been articulated over the past century. At the core, however, each one strives to describe women’s oppression, elaborate on the causes and consequences of such oppression, and suggest ways in which such oppression can be resisted and overcome through social reform and individual awareness. Thus, all feminisms, by definition, imply social action.

Feminist theory is generally divided into three broad categories: liberal, radical, and postmodern. *Liberal feminist thought* maintains that women and their uniqueness as gendered beings can be understood rationally, within traditional Western modes of thought and analysis. Prescriptively, this approach contends that if women are given the same rights of access and opportunities as men, they will to the same extent as men be free to determine their own course in
life. To the extent that women have clear and distinct disadvantages that create impediments to equal opportunities, government intervention is appropriate to offset these disadvantages, in the form of educational programming, aid to dependent families, affirmative action plans, and the like.

Because of this theoretical foundation, much of liberal feminist thought and action tends toward the statistitical and formulaic. This is apparent in the numerous studies and publications that address, for example, girls’ experiences in schools or girls’ lack of access to science and math, in the advocacy of a numerically more equitable distribution of leadership roles in education among men and women and in the examination of school texts for inequitable representations of and contributions by gender. The underlying assumption is that if legislation or policy prescriptions address equality of numbers and provide individuals with equal opportunities for leadership roles, this will correct the “gender problem.” Other issues of individualism, rationality, freedom, and values are not part of the liberal feminist critique, which limits its ability to effectively ameliorate the complexity of oppression.

Radical feminisms are generally characterized by more uncompromising views of gender relations, while introducing a comprehensive critique of unitary conceptions of truth, knowledge, and identity. This critique asserts that oppression of women, and also other forms of oppression, are imbedded in a patriarchal society that is structurally flawed, not merely imperfect at the margins. Consequently, the legal and political changes advocated by liberal feminists are not considered sufficient to radical feminism; rather, radical feminists advocate more widespread changes, focusing on entrenchment of patriarchy in thinking, institutional structures, and ideologies. Radical feminists focus strongly on the rejection of standard gender roles in favor of distinctly female values. In the education field, the radical feminist attempts to create different ideologies, structures, and pedagogies, all with the intention of exposing, challenging, and replacing patriarchal norms.

Historically, liberal and radical feminisms not only provided the theoretical foundations for critiques and developments but also resulted in significant societal changes. Over time, however, new feminisms have emerged and to some extent converged into what are now considered postmodern feminist theories. Postmodern feminist thought is significantly different from liberal feminism and, like radical feminism, questions the fundamental categories of objectivity, what counts as knowledge, universal truths, and the nature of power relations. In particular, postmodern feminist theories probe the nature of truth and knowledge through an understanding of gender as a social construct and call into question many generalizations that have historically gone unchallenged and been regarded as truth.

Unlike radical feminists, however, postmodern feminists are not looking to substitute female values for male values or, more generally, one structure for another. Rather, postmodern feminists tend to be antiessentialist, to view categories of gender and gender relations as fluid and dialectical, and to avoid constructing theory from generalizations. In this sense, to propose simply one model of feminism is overly naive and does not take into account the multiplicity of women’s experiences, the many ways that gender relations are evident in sexual identities, and the differences and similarities among women and men. While women and people in general may share commonalities, all experience differences that distinguish them from others.

As a result, postmodern feminisms are concerned with the multiplicity of relationships and identities and the many experiences that characterize women not only in terms of gender but also in relation to race, class, and sexuality. In effect, gender comes to be viewed within the wider context of social relations and identities. This deepens our understanding of difference and enlarges the politics that surround identities. Moreover, postmodern feminists are keenly interested in relations of power and view power as complex and contradictory, that is, as possibly productive as well as oppressive.

Today, feminist theory continues to be highly contested. The resulting multiplicity and complexity of feminist thought can invigorate and advance education and education reform and provide an invaluable tool to education leaders as they seek to understand and navigate the challenges facing educators and students in today’s schools.

Feminisms and Theories of Leadership

As a consequence of the avenues along which feminist thought has evolved and developed, feminist theories of leadership focus on an emancipatory approach that emerges from women’s experiences of exclusion and marginalization as leaders and as
women but also, more broadly, as individuals forged by intersecting racial, class, and other identities. Therefore, feminist leadership both seeks equity and confronts the challenge of changing hegemonic practices in educational leadership.

Methodologically, feminist leadership is concerned with reflection, action, and activism. Reflection is the processes by which one comes to understand the ways that things might be different. A feminist leader identifies particular practices that thwart social justice and works to open up the possibility that these practices can be altered and abandoned. It is not enough, however, simply to identify the need for change; change must be brought about through action, and this action often can and must evolve into a wider activist struggle for emancipation of others.

Relations of power are also central to feminist notions of leadership. Power relations are examined in order to challenge the tacit notions that have been unchallenged and to expose the ways that power is used to control and oppress others, particularly those who occupy the margins. The interrelationship of power and the exercise of leadership are acknowledged, but they are understood in more complex ways than traditional notions of top-down management. Power is conceived not in ways that control, but in ways that might facilitate another’s abilities or provide support and response. Power relations conceived in this way do not simply facilitate the advancement of individuals through empowerment rather than control or manipulation but also act to dismantle the traditional boundaries of educational organizations themselves.

**A POSTMODERN FEMINIST LEADERSHIP**

School leaders who embrace a postmodern feminist perspective can guide adults, adolescents, and children in the creation of becoming citizens for a more substantive, vibrant, and democratic future. Postmodern feminist leaders are better prepared and better able to challenge traditional structures and create or (re)structure schools for democratic engagement, social critique, and inclusion. Among other things, this arises from the ability to understand and subvert prevailing practices and ideologies that thwart democratic processes in the everyday life of schooling. Such leaders are also vigilant about misusing power, as they are critical of injustice, seen and unseen in schooling.

In creating a school community, postmodern feminist leaders recognize that the gender, race, class, religion, sexuality, and age of participants in the educational environment should matter only to the extent that all groups should be represented, all should have a voice in the daily operation of a school, and none should be essentialized or perceived as unidimensional. Said differently, postmodern feminist leaders deal honestly, candidly, and consistently with issues of diversity and difference as well as the common practices of discrimination and inequalities that are experienced every day among schoolchildren and the adults who teach them. Such school leaders work hard to create multiple spaces for all children to learn and for teachers and others to voice their thoughts and engage intellectually. Rather than reinforcing assimilation and forging communities that are often inauthentic and contrived, this leadership works actively to connect with the larger community that surrounds a school.

As a matter of process, postmodern feminist leadership focuses on democracy and the engagement of democratic practices from among participants. Leaders work to create collaborative groups from within the community and the school that share power and collectively set goals for the all. This is not to say that postmodern feminist leaders do not, in fact, lead and bear responsibility for emphasizing high achievement, setting solid goals, and determining the needed policies and procedures that help bring about change and progress. Nevertheless, such leaders work to empower all participants as problems are framed, discussed, and resolved.

Finally, the postmodern feminist leader understands and articulates the larger social issues that reproduce inequalities in gender, race, class, religion, and orientation, in relationship to the everyday events and needs of the school. Rather than assuming that problems are deficits that exist within the school or among individuals, such a leader works to support and engage the faculty and students in efforts that challenge the status quo and bring about needed change, both in school and in the larger community.

**THE CHARACTERISTICS OF FEMINIST LEADERS**

What characteristics might be typical of a feminist leader? In this section, we delineate some of the possibilities, although we note that this is a nonexclusive list rather than a set of prerequisites, since we maintain that identities are shaped and created from within social relations and educational experiences:
• Able to challenge fixed hierarchical structures and subvert the unidirectional flow of knowledge and power that proceeds from the top down
• Able to deconstruct, decenter, and analyze existing structures, oppressive situations, and acts
• Able to be comfortable and function with ambiguity, fluidity, and change
• Comfortable with collaborative models and ways of acting; knows how to help others succeed and enjoys doing so
• Interested and engaged in community work and life, activist oriented, and willing to work for the good of the community
• Able to understand and relate everyday activities and personal events to larger political, cultural, economic, and social phenomena; able to understand and apply social theories to illuminate the everyday events of schooling
• Is reciprocal, engrossing, and responsive, acts on behalf of personal beliefs; able to understand daily events as opportunities for learning; intent on reflecting on and responding to his or her own emerging knowledge of leading and change
• Able to relate to and engage with diverse people comfortably and honestly; authentic, engaging, and personable; able to theorize and engage in new practices that encompass the social, political, and cultural complexity of identities and diverse people’s relationship to schooling

PROGRAMMATIC AND CURRICULAR NEEDS IN FEMINIST LEADERSHIP

An absence of feminist viewpoints, feminist debates, and feminist ethics is noticeable in the coursework and program requirements in educational leadership programs. Despite affirmative action and civil rights victories, traditional predominately male-centered perspectives continue to be coveted in educational leadership and administration programs. This discrepancy still exists today. We propose four programmatic themes to be incorporated in the construction of feminist educational leadership programs:

1. Discussions of gender and research on gender in education and school reform should recognize and address the impact of other important factors, such as social class, ethnicity, race, age, religion, location, and sexuality. These factors must become part of regular discussions, coursework, readings, and teaching and research projects in educational leadership programs.

2. The collective struggles of women and others who represent marginalized groups in schools must be heard and regarded seriously in matters of theory, policy, and practice in school leadership and school reform. The field of educational administration has done very little to question or reflect on the place of women in teaching and in leading schools. The experiences of inequity and omission suffered by women and others in schooling, school administration, teaching, and other areas of education must be heard, and plans must be made to address these inequities. Particular histories and experiences of men and women in the field of educational administration must be included in order to understand the icons that continue to dichotomize leaders/teachers.

3. Sophisticated social theories along with traditional theories applied to leading and learning must be included in the course of study for leaders in education. Likewise, there should be a focus on interdisciplinary study and the humanities as significant and original sources for understanding history, philosophy, and cultural work, and there should be a recognition of the importance of this focus to the intellectual development of an educational leader.

4. Alternative ways of framing questions, investigating problems and issues in schooling, and interpreting and using data must be developed in educational leadership and school reform. This includes alternative forms of conceptualizing school reform as a response to educational research and inquiry. An excellent example exists in Jackie Blount’s 1998 book on women and the superintendency. This book reveals through feminist historical analysis that the problem of women in educational administration does not concern access as much as it concerns the ways that educational administration has been structured.

SUMMARY

Feminist theory as a pedagogical tool can contribute to the field of educational leadership. Conceptualized within a theoretical discourse, embedded in experience, and implemented as social action, feminism and educational leadership have much to offer in the (re)shaping of schools in our multicultural society.

—Audrey M. Dentith, Jeanne F. Brady, and Roberta F. Hammett

See also affirmative action; coeducation; discrimination; diversity; gender studies, in educational leadership; lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgender issues in education; sexism (glass ceiling); sexuality, theories of; superintendency; women in educational leadership
Further Readings and References

Field Theory

Field theory is best characterized as a method of analyzing causal relationships. The basic assertions of field theory are that (a) behavior is derived from a totality of coexisting facts; (b) these coexisting facts make up a field, and the parts of the field are mutually interdependent; and (c) behavior is affected only by the present field. Essentially, field theory is an approach to understanding group behavior by considering the field in which the behavior takes place.

Human behavior is the function of the individual and the field encountered. Changes in behavior arise from changes in the forces within the field. Driving forces tend to urge toward change and keep it going. Restraining forces act to hold back or decrease the driving forces. Group performance can be raised or lowered by changing the relationship between the driving and restraining forces. A state of equilibrium or organizational status quo is maintained when the two opposing forces are equal. For change to occur, the equilibrium or present level of performance must be altered by adding or strengthening forces in the desired direction or by diminishing opposing forces. A short-term increase in productivity may be achieved by increasing driving forces (being autocratic or increasing pressure on workers), but at the same time, new restraining forces develop, such as worker hostility and resentment caused by increased turnover and absenteeism, which can lead to lower productivity.

Force field analysis is the process of identifying, mapping, and determining the influence of restraining forces and driving forces. It would be possible for an administrator to understand not only individual and group behavior but also which forces need to be diminished or strengthened in order to improve productivity. Kurt Lewin, the creator of field theory, used a physical science analogy of changing the shape of a block of ice—unfreeze, change, refreeze—to explain organizational change. To effect change, organizational status quo must be destabilized (unfrozen) so that it will be amenable to change. Three processes are necessary for unfreezing restraining forces: disconfirming information that creates some form of dissatisfaction, alleviating feelings of survival anxiety or guilt, and establishing psychological safety from personal loss or failure.

Once workers are unfrozen and realize change is necessary, then planned change in group behaviors may emerge. Change could successfully be achieved at the group level through collaborative planning, action, and evaluation about the results of the action. Understanding and learning produced in the action research process feeds into changed behavior.

Refreezing or permanency should be an objective in the change process. Permanency of the new levels of performance requires refreezing or changes in the organizational culture, norms, and policies so that the modifications become an institutionalized part of its operation. Of course, this stability implies that a new force field is made relatively secure against change and opposing forces are again brought into equilibrium.

—Bobbie J. Greenlee
See also case studies; conceptual systems theory and leadership; critical thinking; problem solving; rational organizational theory; social psychology

Further Readings and References

FIELDWORK, IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Qualitative researchers collect data through fieldwork. They go into the field where the people and events they wish to study naturally occur. Fieldwork involves a number of data collection techniques that require varying degrees of participation in the field. At every stage of the research process, the qualitative researcher must negotiate access, entry, and cooperation to collect data. He or she faces ethical issues about the appropriate way to interact in the field.

Fieldwork has a long, extensive history. Ancient travelers wrote descriptive, subjective reports about the societies they visited. Bronislaw Malinowski conducted the first objective study of a preliterate society, establishing fieldwork as a legitimate research method. Conducted by anthropologists and ethnographers, early fieldwork studies were exploratory. In the early 1900s, the University of Chicago Department of Sociology contributed landmark studies of urban settings and marginalized groups that were scientifically objective and theoretically based. Modern fieldworkers study topics within the researcher’s own society that deal with urban environments, marginalized peoples, and organizational policies and practices. Researchers in applied fields, including education, social work, and nursing, and post-modernists in many fields conduct field studies. Modern fieldworkers question whether it is possible to conduct an objective field study on the basis that by entry into the natural setting, the researcher changes what naturally occurs. Debates about fieldwork center on ethics, validity and reliability, objectivity and subjectivity, and appropriate methods of reporting field studies.

Fieldwork includes distinct yet overlapping stages. First, the researcher must gain official permission to conduct overt research. Universities require institutional review board (IRB) approval, and research sites, including schools and other institutions, often have research offices that may approve or deny research requests. Working with IRBs can be problematic for fieldwork because gaining official permission and early access to the field occur simultaneously. The researcher may find it necessary to negotiate the approval process. Conducting covert research poses a different set of issues regarding permission. Since IRB approval is typically not sought, universities and other institutions with IRB boards would question the conduct of covert research. The researcher also faces ethical dilemmas about concealing his or her research purposes.

Once official permission is granted, the researcher must gain access and cooperation from participants in the field. Gatekeepers at multiple levels of an organization may grant access officially. Official access does not guarantee the unofficial cooperation of potential research participants. At any level of an organization, gatekeepers and participants may withhold permission or a willingness to take part in the research. The researcher probably will renegotiate access and cooperation throughout the field study. Identifying a key informant who is respected and trusted by people in the field will help the researcher gain cooperation.

The first days in the field are the most uncomfortable for the researcher. Fieldworkers report feelings of anxiety as they establish their roles. They must establish rapport with participants. Key informants may help with this process, but the researcher ultimately must decide the degree of desired participation. The researcher must place himself or herself on a continuum between complete participation and complete observation. Most researchers strike a balance between the two roles. To the extent possible, the researcher must remain detached in data collection to keep personal bias to a minimum. The researcher must be cognizant of the effect of his or her presence on the research setting.

Fieldworkers use all qualitative data collection techniques. They observe events, conduct individual and focus group interviews, and collect documents and visual artifacts. While the researcher has a purpose and design, data collection must remain flexible. The researcher constantly makes decisions about data collection in the field. Individual interviews may occur spontaneously during observations or be scheduled to take place in a formal setting. If the researcher discovers it
is necessary to conduct additional observations or interviews, he or she continues collecting data until no new information is gained. The data collection process, while flexible, remains systematic to ensure that the focus remains on the research purpose. Using multiple techniques allows the researcher to triangulate research findings by comparing data from all sources.

Data from fieldwork are recorded in detailed field notes. There is no correct way to record field notes, and each researcher works out a personal method. However, researchers keep a notebook or log in which they record descriptive and reflective or analytic field notes. Descriptive field notes include comprehensive, detailed records of what was observed and heard in the field. Researchers carry a notebook at all times in the field, but they may be in situations where it is not possible or desirable to record notes. As soon as possible after the field visit, the researcher records everything that he or she recalls. Researchers estimate that as much time is spent recording field notes as is spent in the field. Analytic field notes include observations about problems in the field, ideas, and initial interpretations of the data. Field notes are the data set on which findings and interpretations are based.

Leaving the field is the final stage of fieldwork. Often underestimated, leaving can be as challenging as entering the field. Researchers must know when they have sufficient data. They also must decide how much contact to maintain after data are collected. Detaching from relationships, even friendships, that have been established can be difficult. Continuing to collect data can be an attractive alternative to the next step of analyzing and reporting research findings.

—Carolyn L. Wanat

See also cross-cultural education; ethics; ethnography; field theory; interpretive studies; qualitative research, history, theories, issues; research methods

Further Readings and References


FINANCE, OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The field of school finance is confusing to many, perhaps even to those who regularly conduct research using financial variables. One reason for confusion resides in the multiple cash flows of school funding that are federal, state, and local revenue. Another reason for confusion about school finance is that school funding information and analysis are derived from separate but related research tracts. For example, school finance research concerned with the equity and adequacy of state funding for schools commonly draws upon legal literature, whereas school finance research involving academic achievement often utilizes production functions and draws from an economics literature base.

FOUNDATIONS OF SCHOOL FINANCE

Finance, like economics, has been practiced since the beginning of time, but Ellwood P. Cubberley formally brought the topic of school finance to academic press in a landmark 1906 work on the funding of schools. Written at the beginning of a sea-change shift from predominantly local community funding toward state funding for public schools, Cubberley argued for greater state participation in the fiscal process. This argument was predicated in part by early rationales for investment in education as set forth by economists.

As popular necessity for state participation in school finance arrangements was recognized, methodologies in the determination of state funding developed. Early methodological benchmarks were achieved by creating a foundation model for state funding and by establishing a system for weighted pupil units of measurement. The foundation program methodology recognized that inequitable fiscal resources were bound to exist among many schools. The “foundation” was the amount of money required to provide each child with a basic level of schooling. Once the foundation amount of funding was determined, the foundation was then equalized to the extent that greater state fiscal resources were dedicated to schools that had fewer local resources.

Although the foundation program methodology accounted for monetary inequities, it did not recognize the unequal expenditures that were required to support different types of educational programs. Accordingly, Paul Mort developed a methodology in 1924 that considered these differences. The initial formulation involved fiscal support for the provision of
educational services to secondary pupils in proportion to elementary pupils. A weighted pupil unit of 1.2 was assigned to each secondary pupil, while 1.0 was assigned to each elementary pupil for school funding purposes. The rationale behind this methodology was that secondary pupils were more expensive to educate than were elementary pupils. The same methodology could also be applied to specific program areas, such as vocational and special education services.

As political muster swelled for the creation, organization, and state finance of public schools, critical debates also ensued. The American public school began as one, individual unit. The “system,” so to speak, was a collection of these solitary units. Across the nation, each state’s evolving public school system progressed at a rate different from other states’ systems. A single, national system of public schools did not exist, and the vast majority of states’ public school systems were predominantly locally controlled and funded. The invention of state funding for public schools, while beneficial, implied the threat of state oversight in funded. The invention of state funding for public schools, critical participation by higher levels of government were just supported expansion of public services. Just as the idea continued to gain political support as new national priorities emerged, for example, when an American response was required to meet challenges posed by the 1957 Russian launching of Sputnik. More of the population became convinced that predominant local control and funding of public schools were unacceptable means to the end of addressing emergent state and national needs.

American public school finance researchers understood inequities and potential remedies long before the field of study flourished. Foundation funding, equalization, weighted pupil units, and the need for participation by higher levels of government were just a few examples of this understanding. As the nation progressed into the civil rights movement and more Americans began to understand the importance of equal educational opportunity, the need for greater school funding dollars and fiscal equalization grew. Brown v. Board of Education in 1954 keynoted the persistent yet unfulfilled need for social responsibility in all-inclusive education. In making this decision, the U.S. Supreme Court described education as a right rather than a privilege or opportunity of convenience.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 increased funding and federal oversight for programs that served economically disadvantaged school-children. This growth in governmental oversight, funding, and programs for targeted populations further supported the careful examination of national and state constitutions for language that spoke to education and the rights of citizens. In California, for example, the Serrano v. Priest case in 1971 determined that the state’s school funding system was unconstitutional. The major basis for this California Supreme Court decision was that children in poor school districts were not possibly able to enjoy benefits of the types of schooling that were provided in rich school districts. Children, in this respect, were not treated as equal to each other, and the cause of inequality stemmed from heavy reliance on local property taxation.

Increasing variety in legal interpretations about schooling and evolving growth in the structure of the education system catalyzed the need for greater technical sophistication. New measurements of equity were brought to bear on the problem of school finance disparities. The new generation of technical measurement explicitly revealed fiscal equalities and inequalities. Further inquiry into the intricacies of horizontal and vertical equity aided policymakers in their development of school funding programs and supported litigants’ claims for and against the constitutionality of state school funding systems. For a brief period, it seemed as though the technology of school finance would deliver the magical formula that would solve our nation’s education problems.

Economic conditions, unfortunately, were misaligned with growing political sentiment that supported expansion of public services. Just as the so-called blackboard revolution in the 1970s and failure of 1980s American industry to adapt to the global economy ominously portended economic collapse. Amidst the turmoil, blame for the nation’s economic problems was cast upon the public sector for growing too fast and becoming too big. Public education did not escape scrutiny. The dream did not die, however. Many supporters continued to believe that public education was the solution to American misfortune, not the problem.
School finance reform litigation continued throughout the 1980s and 1990s. Plaintiffs accrued many successes against state defendants. Constitutional interpretation was the emphasis in determining state-by-state educational obligations. Whereas arguments for school finance equity initially dominated casework, the concept of adequacy emerged at center stage. New conceptualizations of equal educational outputs as different from equal financial inputs were developed. Aided by the 1990s economic boom, the twentieth century closed with great hope that new and improved school funding systems would support acquisition of resources that were necessary for achieving equal educational outcomes.

In conjunction with the quest to finance equal educational outcomes, 1990s initiatives to develop national standards and testing persisted into the twenty-first century. National standards and testing were in part fueled by a rash of accountability movements that eventually swept across the United States. Accountability in education, after all, was difficult to assess when academic standards were stated ambiguously in many states and lacked consistency across states. Soon, it became obvious that a framework of national standards and testing was prerequisite to targeting equal academic achievement throughout the entire population of United States schoolchildren.

Plagued by recessionary economic conditions, the school funding required to support attainment of national standards was sorely lacking. Nevertheless, politicians won favor by enacting bold new goals for education. Most prolific was the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB). The federal masterpiece set forth high expectations for educators, unfortunately without providing necessary funding for total success. In this respect, NCLB was the greatest unfunded mandate ever enacted. The act was created by the highest level of government, but the highest level of government contributed the smallest proportion of total funding to elementary and secondary education. For example, federal funding in 2000 accounted for only 7.3% of elementary and secondary education funding, while the remainder of funding was provided by states and localities.

Figure 1 provides a breakdown of school finance core components and global dimensions. Each core component or global dimension represents the content of volumes of literature, not one of which can be completely separated from the others. The following sections briefly review core components and global dimensions of school finance, as illustrated in Figure 1.

**CORE COMPONENTS OF SCHOOL FINANCE**

**Legal Component**

There are many legal considerations in the study of school finance. For example, contract law is involved in school purchases and other expenditures. Legislation is law that affects expenditures as well but that also delegates authority to school districts for raising tax revenues. Legislation is the law that defines parameters of state funding for schools and is often the focus of litigation. School finance reform litigation most often attacks legislated state funding programs for not meeting standards set forth by the constitution. For example, continuous litigation in Ohio revolves around legislative failure to meet requirements of the “thorough and efficient” clause of the Constitution of the State of Ohio (see *DeRolph v. State of Ohio*, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2002, and 2003).

Early school finance casework relied upon the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. This approach became problematic when in 1973, *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez* halted federal involvement in Texas and other states’ school funding disputes. Plaintiffs were then forced to rely on separate state constitutions, for both equal-protection language and specific education provisions. In some states, the strength of language found in the constitution’s education provisions proved most powerful in litigation. In New Jersey, for example, the 1973 *Robinson v. Cahill* decision was based on the “thorough and efficient” clause of that state’s constitution. In essence, the New
Jersey Supreme Court ruled that a thorough and efficient system of education would entail equalization of school funding across districts. Fiscal equalization was not sufficient in New Jersey. Therefore, the court ruled that equal protection was violated.

State-by-state equal protection claims continued to be the norm in litigated school finance reform. For several reasons, however, the equal-protection approach to school funding litigation lost potency. Federal articulation about equal protection in *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez* (1973) made some jurists reluctant to apply equal-protection theory strictly to school funding. Political realities prevented nearly every state legislature from pursuing equal expenditures across school districts. Without perfect equality in expenditure, it was inherently illogical for courts to order equal funding. There could be equal funding, up to a point, but how would that point be determined? Eventually, plaintiffs sought to focus their attention almost exclusively on specific education provisions of state constitutions. These provisions called for the establishment of minimal educational standards, using descriptors of concepts such as uniform, thorough, or efficient. Early examples of this major shift in school finance litigation included *Rose v. Council for Better Education* in 1989, *Helena Elementary School District Number 1 v. State* in 1989, and *Edgewood Independent School District v. Kirby*, also in 1989.

The latest shift in school finance litigation continued throughout the 1990s and became more focused on the concept of adequacy. This concept evolved nationally, perhaps most visibly through the New Jersey series of litigation that began with *Robinson v. Cahill* in 1973 and became *Abbott v. Burke* in 1984 through 1998. Although equal protection was at center stage in New Jersey in 1973, fiscal inequalities were at the root of this argument. Subsequent legal proceedings demonstrated that even with improved fiscal equalization, educational programs, school facilities, and personnel would continue to be inadequate in many New Jersey districts. Hence, the transition was made from financial inequities to educational inadequacies. New Jersey’s constitutional obligation was to provide adequate education. That is, the state’s educational system could not possibly be “thorough and efficient” without being adequate.

The conceptualization of adequacy as a standard for state performance, although powerful, was less than perfect. For example, what level of education, curricular content, or academic achievement would be deemed adequate? A definitive answer eluded litigants, but in some cases, justices identified what was not adequate. In *DeRolph v. State of Ohio* in 1997, for example, the Ohio Supreme Court ruled that a thorough and efficient system (i.e., adequate system) was not starved for funds and did not lack teachers, buildings, and equipment. Of the benefits provided by such an adequacy concept was legal impetus to invest in school districts that were lacking teachers, buildings, and equipment without necessarily disrupting operations in other school districts. This adequacy concept also preserved local control by allowing all school districts to enhance educational programs and services with support from local property taxation. More broadly, the characteristics of being able to identify inadequate education, limiting additional investment to only those districts that were in need, and preserving local control seemed to fuel the national prominence of adequacy as a concept for litigants and policymakers.

**Structural Component**

There are many structural considerations in the study of school finance. For example, at least three levels of government, including federal, state, and local, comprise a structure that affects the finance of local school districts. The local structure typically includes a school board that is involved with lay control, policy development, and strongly influences district, school, and classroom funding. Structural concerns include federal enactments that place demands on states and localities but are not paid for by federal government. As well, state legislatures, boards of education, and education departments create laws, policies, and requirements that often are not fully funded by state government. All the while, in most states, localities are charged with complying with federal and state mandates and raising substantial amounts of funding locally.

The funding structure for public education in the United States changed dramatically from 1920 to 2000. For example, the proportion of local government funding for schools decreased from 83.2% of total funding to 43.2%. This drop of nearly one half was accompanied by triple the commitment in state funding. The proportion of state government funding for schools increased from 16.5% of total funding to 49.5% during the same period. These figures also indicate that an increased state involvement in local schooling occurred. Whereas state government was
always responsible for public schooling, early schools were primarily funded, controlled, and operated by localities. A progressive increase in state funding for schools naturally lent itself to greater assertion of state control over schools. Federal funding also increased from 1920 to 2000. The federal proportion of total funding for elementary and secondary schools grew from .3% to 7.3%. Localities accepted state and federal funding increases, but the shifting structure of funding among levels of government threatened to diminish local control over schools.

The organization structure of public education in the United States also changed dramatically. For example, the number of public school districts in 1940 was 117,108 and then dropped to 14,928 in 2000. From 1950 to 2000, the number of public elementary and secondary schools dropped from 152,767 to 94,580. These decreases resulted from the consolidation of public school districts and schools. Although, on the surface, this consolidation was not a direct indicator of increased state control over schooling, the shifting structure of organization portrayed diminished local control over schools. There were fewer schools, meaning that many communities lost direct control over schooling to more broadly defined, centralized school districts. Had demand for education declined during the period, observed decreases in districts and schools might have reflected diminishing demand for schooling. To the contrary, public school enrollment increased from about 25 million to about 47 million during the period.

Increased centralization of funding and organization structures was meant to save money and improve education. Economies of scale were realized when small schools and districts were consolidated into larger schools and districts. Greater numbers of children in classrooms and numbers of teachers in buildings, for example, reduced the costs of teacher per child and principals per teacher. Greater commitments of funding by state government made it possible for poor schools to receive more money than was possible under a decentralized funding structure. Greater concentration of power at the state level made it possible to require and enforce uniform standards across grade levels, schools, and districts. Most important, centralization of funding and power over educational decisions made it possible to increase fiscal equalization and academic equity. By mandating higher academic standards than localities had historically prescribed and financed, state government was able to improve academic equity statewide. Inasmuch as states provided additional funding to poor schools, educational opportunities were more equal for school-children, regardless of their community’s wealth.

Negative consequences also accompanied the structural shift toward a centralized education system. Diseconomies of scale emerged when districts, schools, and classrooms in particular became too large. Class size, for example, was detrimental to learning when too many children per teacher were assigned. Costs inevitably increased as instructional remediation activities, courses repeated, or entire grade levels repeated became necessary. State-prescribed curriculum, testing, and graduation requirements emphasized uniformity over specialized programs that were designed to meet local needs. Transaction costs, including those associated with communicating and coordinating among federal, state, and local authorities, increased. Local funding continued to be essential in supporting centrally dictated educational programs. Hence, the structure maintained both decentralized and centralized characteristics of funding and organization. Each characteristic was dynamic, creating beneficial and detrimental implications for schooling.

Technical Component

There are many technical considerations in the study of school finance. For example, calculation of property tax and distribution of state aid require technical knowledge about specific formulas and adjustments. The math involved with such calculations can be quite simple. Technical complexity typically grows with the number of related calculations, permissible alternative calculations, and frequent changes to calculations as well as the language that describes calculations and subsequent changes. The stakes can be high. One mistake can influence a school district or state education system by thousands, if not millions, of dollars. States continued to use state aid approaches that were classified as flat grant, foundation, full state funding, guaranteed tax base, guaranteed yield, or percentage equalization. States employed several variations within and among these approaches, but the foundation approach to distributing state aid was the most utilized. States typically used these approaches to distribute basic or general aid for operations. Additional state funding was commonly provided to supplement basic aid for particular categories of expenditure, for example, vocational education or technology.
enhancement. Total state aid, as a composite of general and categorical distributions, varied considerably among states. For example, the state proportion of total funding in New Hampshire was 8.9% compared with 64.7% in Michigan at the time of the compendium. Both states employed the foundation approach to distributing state aid, but technical differences provided extreme results.

States continued to rely considerably on local revenue to support schools in 2000. Hawaii, with its classic model of the full state funding approach, relied on local revenue the least. Only .5% of total funding for schools in Hawaii was from local revenue sources. States that relied most on local funding as a proportion of total funding for schools were Nevada (62.2%), Illinois (59.4%), and Pennsylvania (53.9%). Nevada did not suffer school finance reform litigation regarding the constitutionality of its school financing system, but Illinois and Pennsylvania did. Both the Illinois and Pennsylvania systems of school finance were upheld. Both Illinois and Nevada used the foundation approach to distributing state aid to schools, whereas Pennsylvania used the percentage equalization approach. When the entire country was considered, there seemed to be no significant connection between the state aid approaches that were utilized by states, school finance reform litigation that ensued, and the outcomes of such litigation. Local funding nevertheless symbolized local control of schooling. Local funding also contributed to disparately funded schools, and the property tax was most commonly blamed for those disparities.

The property tax was historically the least popular among three major tax revenue sources that were available to state and local government. Among the property, income, and sales taxes, the property tax was the only one that contributed significantly to local school revenues. Controversy surrounding the property tax stemmed largely from the local distribution of property tax revenues. Unlike income and sales taxes, which were commonly collected and distributed by state government, property taxes commonly benefited only the locales from which they came. This meant that some local school districts thrived financially while others endured financial hardship. In theory, state aid to schools could level financial burdens among school districts by redistributing income and sales tax receipts in greater proportion to poorer communities. In practice, technical specifications in state aid to school programs did not always redistribute funds to the degrees or in the amounts necessary to leveling financial burdens among school districts. One alternative that promised to alleviate disparities caused by property tax revenues was for states, rather than localities, to collect the tax. All tax collections would then belong to the state and therefore become available for equitable distribution among localities.

GLOBAL DIMENSIONS OF SCHOOL FINANCE

Economic Dimension

Economics cannot be ignored in education. For example, our nation dedicates 4.5% of its gross domestic product to elementary and secondary schools, which represents expenditures that exceed $454 billion. These figures clearly identify that the industry of education is big business, but education is also dependent on tax flows from the rest of the economy. Any decrease in national productivity, therefore, will inevitably affect the funds that are available for education. Taken in this context, akin to big business, education needs to be efficient, flexible in relation to general economic conditions, and sensitive to local demands and economic capabilities. It also stands to reason that financial, organizational, and operational changes implemented in business will influence education.

The theory of human capital was convincingly advanced by economists in the 1960s. This theory supported education because expenditures for education were conceptualized as investment rather than consumption. Consumption was lost forever, whereas investment provided future gains that had economic value. Supporters of the theory asserted that education enabled persons to be more productive, and this increased productivity provided economic benefits to both individuals and societies that pursued educational advancement. Many research methodologies were developed that attempted to capture the true measure of human capital. This “capital” was essentially knowledge, skills, and capabilities that supported economic progress. Such capital was not a natural phenomenon. Human capital was acquired through education in various forms as well as on-the-job experience.

One methodology that estimated the contribution of education to economic productivity was a production function that regressed economic growth on identifiable variables that were known to contribute to
economic productivity. A residual of unexplained productivity was then assumed to be the contribution of education. In fact, it was estimated that at least 43% of national income growth was attributed to education and knowledge. For educators, the strength of this production function model was that it asserted a direct connection between advancements in educational investment and economic growth. Parallel production function models, however, would later haunt educators when academic outcomes were regressed on identifiable variables that included financial inputs. The preeminent public policy question that was raised at that time was: Would additional investments in schooling produce additional gains in academic achievement?

Econometric modeling at the highest level of aggregation supported arguments for greater investment in education. Unfortunately, similar econometric techniques applied to lower levels of aggregation yielded dissimilar results. For example, Eric Hanushek in 1986 and 1991 found little, if any, relationship between financial inputs to schools and student outcomes. A great body of literature and public policy debate resulted from investigating the economic effects of school funding. Although a definitive conclusion was never reached, important insights into schooling were brought to the forefront of the economics of education. Aside from the need for better data and refined methodologies, production function research confirmed that the deployment and utilization of school resources were as important as the total of resources, if not more. The interpretation was that additional funding, alone, for schools would not make a difference in academic achievement unless schools were operated efficiently.

Political Dimension

Politics is critical to understanding school finance. Politicians enact legislation; political lobbyists enlist support for their causes; political actions influence courts and school funding arrangements; and economics in the public view is fashioned by political narrative. At the forefront of political contest and context are societal value priorities that shape public policies. Society’s values are reflected in American public school finance. As the societal viewpoint changes from consensus that individuals should fend for themselves toward consensus that individuals are entitled to government support, the political dynamic of school finance changes as well. National defense, retirement, health care, and welfare are supported by all taxpayers. With national defense being the exception, each of these social programs was at one time a private responsibility and endeavor that eventually turned public. The same can be said for education, which today competes for funding with other social programs in the political arena.

The need for public support in educational matters was critical to maintaining and enhancing funding for public schools. Public support was also required to formulate policies that clearly identified national standards, goals, and mechanisms of accountability. The National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk*, catalyzed public opinion that eventually grew into public support for education. One reason for this was that the report effectively communicated that the collective welfare of Americans would be diminished if the education system failed. Some educators initially bore the brunt of public dissatisfaction that was associated with the report. As time progressed, however, the report proved to heighten public awareness that education was important. Education was not just a private or local community-based concern, but rather, it was a national priority of concern to all citizens.

Heightened public focus on education sparked at least three waves of national policy reforms in education. First, a centralized, bureaucratic response developed whereby state policymakers and education departments unilaterally raised expectations. Examples included higher graduation requirements, increased standards and testing, longer years and days in schools, and new teacher certification requirements. The second wave of reform was more decentralized and school focused. It was uncontested that the teaching and learning process, the true object of reform, occurred at the school level. New initiatives, therefore, attempted to tap the potential of this process by shifting decision making to the school level and including multiple stakeholders such as teachers, parents, and other community members. The third wave of reform attempted to capture the optimal balance of centralized and decentralized activities, for example, setting broad but clear national goals for academic achievement while allowing specific but accountable local instructional implementations.

Because direct authority over education was not granted to federal government by the Constitution, the federal role in education developed more as an entourage of selective legislation and funding, political influence, and service. The U.S. Department of
Education, for example, served by providing financial, intellectual, and technological resources that were used to develop and disseminate research reports, such as *A Nation at Risk*. Federal acts, such as the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA), identified and promoted national education priorities. NDEA provided funding for targeted programs such as math and science education. ESEA provided funding for targeted populations such as the economically disadvantaged. Reauthorization of ESEA, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, provided substantial funding, but not enough to fully fund the act’s idealistic implementation. Nevertheless, federal enactments, funding, and services have greatly influenced the course of schooling in America. This influence has extended politically to states’ participation in federal ideals about education and local compliance with federally funded educational programs.

**PERSISTENT ISSUES**

The structure of organizing and funding the education system is changing continuously. Technical formulas, measurements, and allocations are also changing continuously. As to issues and problems of school finance, the situation is more a matter of managing dilemmas than solving problems. Each change in law potentially affects structural and technical components. When the latest iteration of school finance technology fails to satisfy economic or political demands, new legislation or litigation sparks another cycle of change.

Global dimension examples illustrate that school finance does not exist within a vacuum. General economic conditions can foster a climate that is supportive or destructive for public education. A similar statement can be made about politics. The economy is always changing, getting better or worse, and the political climate changes in ways that reprioritize public education’s placement and funding among other societal needs. No matter how strong the need for public education is and no matter how good our ideas in public education are, we will always be dependent on productive economic and supportive political forces to acquire resources necessary for public education. Comprehensive study of school finance reminds us all of these quintessential relationships.

The federal role in public education continues to be problematic. There is evidence that the federal role is expanding, but will the expansion continue, and will federal government take on more of the burden of funding public schools? Much more research needs to be conducted in this area. For example, how much will it cost federal government to ensure that schoolchildren receive resources necessary for high academic achievement? How much will it cost federal government to ensure that impoverished urban centers receive resources necessary to compete with educational programs offered by wealthy communities? How much will it cost federal government to equalize educational expenditures among all school districts in and among all of the states? Each of these research questions poses treaonous implications for advocates of local control; therein lays one dilemma.

Research on equitable funding needs to continue. Although much progress has been made in refining frameworks for understanding equity, inequities persist, and application of the vertical equity concept is becoming more complex. Vertical equity involves recognizing that some programs and students are more expensive to operate and educate. Application of the concept, for example, requires enhanced state financial commitments for special education programs and federal Title I monies. As we learn more about sociological and psychological influences on processes of teaching and learning, the ideal task of developing a sliding scale of financing student achievement becomes more problematic. Moreover, vertical equity in practice competes with horizontal equity. Pursuit of horizontal equity involves equal funding across programs and students. The concept does not traditionally recognize differences in economic costs and benefits. Public appeal and potential support for equal funding powerfully lies in the perception that horizontal equity is fair and reasonable. A major dilemma is that truly equal funding will ultimately require many districts in most states to spend less money on education. This is an ethical and economic compromise that most educators and, coincidentally, policymakers do not want to face.

—Scott R. Sweetland

**See also** boards of education; budgeting; compensatory education; Cubberley, Ellwood; decentralization/centralization controversy; Department of Education; economics, theories of; equity and adequacy of funding schools; governance; Kentucky Education Reform Act; *A Nation at Risk*; No Child Left Behind; planning models; politics, of education; productivity; property tax; rational organizational theory; resource management; special education; state departments of education; systemic reform; taxes, to support education; voucher plans
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DeRolph v. State of Ohio, 89 Ohio St.3d 1 (2000).
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FLEXNER REPORT

Although Abraham Flexner is best known for his 1910 report, Medical Education in the United States and Canada, he also promoted school reform through a high-profile report published in 1916, titled, A Modern School. Flexner prepared these reports and others with the support of the General Education Board, a Rockefeller-backed philanthropic foundation that promoted education reform, and for which he served as assistant secretary for a decade and a half. Flexner’s attempts to improve medical education and K–12 schooling manifested values associated with Progressive era reforms, including faith in scientific expertise, professionalism, and national models of efficiency.

Flexner generated his recommendations for the improvement of medical education from an extensive study of medical schools around the country. Although his recommendations closely resembled the model in place at Johns Hopkins University, they effectively represented the culmination of several trends in medical education. Chief among Flexner’s recommendations for medical schools were university affiliation, stricter admissions standards, a curriculum comprised of 2 years of basic science followed by 2 years of clinical experiences, a full-time, fully salaried medical faculty unencumbered by the need to supplement their income with part-time practice, and an emphasis on clinical and laboratory research. Flexner envisioned medical schools that contributed to and disseminated scientific research through teaching hospitals. Medical schools that met Flexner’s criteria would set the standard for medical education and research in the country.

Flexner’s proposals for the “modern school” were influenced by his experience conducting a school earlier in his career and were informed by suggestions and input that he solicited from influential and mostly progressive education professors of his day. In The Modern School, Flexner rejected academic formalism and appeal to tradition as rationales for education.
practice. He recommended instead that modern education engage students in genuine activities. He would organize the school curriculum around four areas, science, industry, aesthetics, and civics, and he called for correlation between and among them. For Flexner, subject matter would be included in the curriculum only to the extent that it contributed to developing students’ understanding of science, industry, aesthetics, and civics. The extracurriculum of Flexner’s modern school would include gymnastics and other sports.

In the most controversial section of his essay, Flexner advocated omitting from the modern school curriculum aspects of mathematics, history, and literature that held limited pertinence to real life, and also favored the categorical elimination from the school curriculum of the study of Latin and Greek and of formal grammar. These proposals drew harsh criticism from academic traditionalists, especially classicists. Flexner also criticized progressive education for preserving too much of the traditional academic curriculum. The primary aim of Flexner’s Modern School was developing the power of the intellect through real tasks.

Echoing his proposals for medical education, Flexner envisioned the Modern School as a laboratory where educational problems would be studied scientifically, where state-of-the-art teacher training would occur, and from which improved educational practices would be disseminated to other schools. Because of his proposals, the Lincoln School was established at Teachers College, Columbia University, to operationalize Flexner’s vision.

—William G. Wraga

See also aesthetics, in education; civics, civic education; intelligence; learning, theories of; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; philosophies of education; schools of education; standard setting; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration

Further Readings and References


FLOW THEORY

Flow is a state in which people feel in control of their actions and feel a deep sense of exhilaration that is long cherished and that becomes a landmark in memory for what life should be like. Flow has been established as a legitimate theory and concept in the psychological literature. Because it is a psychological theory, it is best defined with examples of the experience:

- A flow experience represents a distinct state of consciousness that integrates high but effortless concentration, intrinsic motivation, loss of awareness of self and time, facile response to challenge, and feelings of competence and freedom. Flow is a feeling of intense involvement in an activity that tests but does not overpower one’s abilities; it has been established as a legitimate psychological concept in the literature, with powerful implications for improving the quality of workplaces and productivity.
- Flow is the key to intrinsic motivation. It is a state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at a great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it.

Flow theory is easily associated with pop-psych phenomena such as being in the zone, peak experience, and other personal experience theories as popularized in lay literature; however, flow is conceptually and distinctly different and has a strong psychological research base. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi has provided supervisors in all fields of work with a concept that provides a new perspective on the intricacies of work life. It offers a powerful alternative for viewing the work environments of teachers—a new perspective on the intricacies of their work life in schools and what motivates and satisfies them. Flow has received some attention in America’s schools, and it is growing. In this writer’s estimation, flow offers powerful insight into the aspects of work life that motivate and satisfy teachers. Since teachers are the ones who actually do the most important work in school—teaching students—it is imperative that we investigate what will make their job more rewarding. This entry is intended to explicate the potential of flow theory in improving the work lives of teachers. This insight has been offered to education at a crucial juncture in the state of teacher attitudes toward their work.

Albert Einstein’s term cosmological constant describes what he called “negative gravity.” Using this term, he theorized that all of space is bubbling with an
invisible form of energy that creates a mutual repulsion between objects normally attracted to each other. Negative gravity describes the current gravitational status between educators and schools and the current high teacher attrition rate. For decades, teacher and administrative jobs attracted high numbers of applicants. These people were driven by a powerful desire to do the job, and they believed they would be successful: They believed they could help young people achieve. They found satisfaction in doing so. However, teacher satisfaction levels have plummeted. Recent studies show that teachers’ desire to stay in teaching and their overall satisfaction and morale have dropped dramatically over the past two decades. This is education’s negative gravity: schools and teachers repulsing each other. Schools repulse teachers because of poor working conditions, and teachers depart because they find so little success in achieving their noble and number one goal: helping students learn. Examples of these poor conditions are reported by teachers: They are isolated in classrooms; they receive little training that they value; they are given scant, if any, feedback from others on the quality of their work; they have few opportunities to confer with other teachers; their schedules are grossly deficient in amounts of time needed to reflect on their practice; and they are provided with little assistance helping them deal effectively with the many problems they face in their classrooms. The bottom line is that they receive little help that they can use to improve the quality of their work. The sad result of this is that their potential for further increasing their success is severely limited while their tendency to leave teaching is on the rise.

Helping teachers find success in helping students learn is a powerful method for stimulating more frequent teacher flow experience. These flow experiences best describe what the life of a classroom teacher should be: exciting, challenging, engaging, and more important, motivating and uniquely satisfying.

The challenge is to facilitate a significant increase in the frequency of teacher flow experiences. Thus far, the research base on facilitating teacher flow experiences is sparse.

Factors that are likely to amplify and increase the frequency of teacher flow experiences and the related rationale are presented in Table 1.

At a time of high-stakes testing, many administrators, politicians, and school board members state that there is little time for focusing on nice but unnecessary topics such as flow. They are driven to achieve higher test scores, and this is understandable. But we know that we are losing our teaching force at an increasingly rapid rate. To prove that flow is not what these naysayers refer to as a “feel-good” trend, research shows that teacher flow experiences are directly related to higher student engagement.

The impact of teacher flow experiences continues to expand. Supervisors with strong insight into flow, knowledge of flow theory, the educational research related to it, and the variables that predict it, can strive to use the instructional strategies described above to create work environments where teachers have greater opportunities to experience this phenomenon. This might very well be the most important function of supervision in that it is directly linked with successful student learning.

—Larry E. Frase

See also affective domain; attitudes toward work; capacity building; of organizations; Csikszentmihalyi, Mihaly; empowerment; esprit (school climate); ethos, of organizations; leadership, spiritual; learning environments; metacognition; psychometrics; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; working conditions, in schools

Further Readings and References

Table 1  Flow Experiences and Related Rationale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flow Experience</th>
<th>Related Rationale</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Visit classrooms often.</td>
<td>Principal classroom presence is positively correlated with frequency of teacher flow experiences. This practice allows school principals an excellent understanding of the classrooms and teachers’ work lives.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Minimize the use of the school bell, intercom, and presentations by outside agencies not directly aligned to the curriculum.</td>
<td>Teachers report that flow experiences were broken by such events, since they disrupt teaching and concentration and, hence, flow.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Provide adequate time for teachers to conduct lesson planning.</td>
<td>Research revealed that teachers believed that good preparation was a prerequisite to flow experiences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Provide training on the design of high-quality curriculum.</td>
<td>The curriculum defines what students are to learn. If the curriculum is not well formed, it is likely that the desired learning is also ill-defined and that the curriculum will be difficult for the teacher to use. When these poor conditions are present, it is less likely that teachers will experience success in helping students learn, let alone experience flow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Find time for quality training on instruction.</td>
<td>Some instructional practices produce more learning than others. Administrators need to make it a priority to know and understand this research and to make sure all teachers learn about such instructional strategies that have been associated with increased student achievement levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ensure that the conditions of the teachers’ work environment are conducive to continual staff development and foster accomplishments they can take pride in.</td>
<td>Administrators need to reevaluate the teaching workload to ensure that schools have embedded opportunities for collaboration and for ongoing learning in the daily work of the staff and faculty. Teachers should be afforded sustained, content-rich professional development opportunities that link to the school’s curriculum and assessment efforts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Provide well-designed teaching mentoring and induction programs.</td>
<td>Studies have found that well-designed mentoring programs raise retention rates for new teachers by improving their attitudes, feelings of efficacy, and instructional skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Provide teachers time to discuss, analyze, and reflect on their classroom successes and failures.</td>
<td>Arrange for teachers to observe their own teaching (through video technology) and to observe other teachers. Teachers could organize themselves into teams based on common interests, systematically employ specific techniques for specific lessons, and observe each other’s teaching. Veteran teachers could be paired with nonveteran teachers in a mentoring arrangement for modeling and reflection.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOURCE: Author.

Mary Parker Follett (1869–1933) has been described with phrases such as “a democratic hero” and “a thinker ahead of her time” by current scholars of management and organizational theory. Despite these accolades,
this Progressive era scholar-activist all but disappeared from the academic landscape after her death in 1933. Her work encompassed three highly acclaimed books (The Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1896; The New State, 1918; and Creative Experience, 1924) and a decade of invited lectures and consultations in the United States and England. She focused on both the actions and study of community development, civic engagement, group processes, leadership, industrial relations, and democratic deliberation. Today, scholars in many fields note that despite her association with prominent thinkers of the early twentieth century, her name was seldom, if ever, mentioned on a list of important management scholars of her time. Peter Drucker suggested that Mary Parker Follett may have been viewed as a subversive because her ideas were so far afield of the dominant views of power and control at the time. Others offer that Follett chose to act as a public scholar rather than an academic and her work was overshadowed by institutional scholars like Henry Mayo, whose affiliation with Harvard and Western Electric assured him legitimacy and recognition. In 1941, Henry Metcalfe and L. Urwick paid tribute to Follett’s creativity and vitality by publishing the papers/lectures delivered to business management conferences in both the United States and England from 1924 to 1933 (Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett). Her work did not come to the forefront again until 1995, when Harvard University Press released an edited book of her writings with commentary by notable international scholars.

Follett, the eldest child of an affluent Quaker family from Quincy, Massachusetts, attended Thayer Academy, one of the very few coeducational private institutions in the country at that time. At the age of 24, she entered the Society for Collegiate Instruction for Women in Cambridge, Massachusetts, later known as Radcliffe College. The institution, unofficially affiliated with Harvard University, allowed the women to study with Harvard professors. She graduated from Radcliffe in 1896, with specialties in economics, government, law, and philosophy. Before graduating, she spent a year abroad at Newnham College, in Cambridge, England, where she wrote a paper that eventually became her thesis and her first book, The Speaker of the House. Lauded as an “indispensable read” by Theodore Roosevelt, this work represented her lifetime approach to scholarship: meticulous review of documents, keen observations of individuals, and firsthand accounts of detailed and insightful conversations. Following a year of postgraduate work in Paris, Mary returned to the Boston area, where she took up residence with Isobel Briggs, with whom she lived until 1926. Supported by inherited wealth, Mary Parker Follett focused her attentions for the next 20 years on the swelling immigrant populations in Boston’s poorest neighborhoods, establishing and working in community centers.

Follett’s work at Roxbury Neighborhood House led to a campaign for community use of neighborhood school buildings to foster citizenship activities. As chair of the Women’s Municipal League’s Committee on Extended Use of School Buildings from 1908 to 1920, she opened up the East Boston High School Social Center, which was deemed so successful that it was replicated throughout the city. The centers provided neighborhood outlets for recreation, drama clubs, and orchestras, but Follett also saw them as places to foster participatory democracy. Under her guidance, center groups formed “city councils” to address local problems. In 1917, Follett became vice president of the National Community Center Association.

Her civic activism also included memberships on the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Board, the Boston Placement Bureau, and the Boston Department of Vocational Guidance. She led efforts to provide career guidance in the evening schools of Boston’s community centers, which led her to document the working conditions in various industries in the region. Eventually, Follett’s academic interests extended to industrial relations. At this point, Follett increasingly spent her time theorizing about her experiences with democracy in the community centers, leading to the publication of her last two books and numerous invitations for lectures and consultations with businessmen from the United States and England.

Follett’s books exposed her passion for and her positions on public life and democratic engagement, which, she argued, were governed by the principle of unifying. Follett argued that the lessons of democracy materialized in associations. Her experiences with group processes in the community centers led her to posit that skills for “unifying” or “integrating” multiple ideas was a secret that would revolutionize the world. Unifying, in Follett’s view, was a dynamic process based on the notion that the self was always in flux, weaving itself in and out of its relations. She was also convinced that the actions of unifying were dependent on education, which included practice in interdependence, genuine discussion of differences, collective thinking, social
consciousness, and self-direction. She wanted schools and centers to promote an attitude of learning to make them see that education was for life.

Follett put forward numerous theories to extend her ideas of active democratic practice. One was her theory of circular response, drawn from her many years of working with diverse immigrant populations and her study of psychology and social psychology, which held that individuals and environments were constantly creating and recreating each other. Her experience with the circular response among diverse populations led to her theory of integration, in which she disavowed compromise as a useful strategy in dispute resolution, proposing that opposing ideas be integrated into a third way. Another was her theory of power; she saw power as “coactive” instead of coercive, proposing “power with” as opposed to “power over.” Follett believed genuine development of power would enrich individuals and the society. Her views of power also influenced her theory of leadership, which was termed law of the situation. In her view, a common purpose was the invisible leader, and the best executives acted as teachers, so both leaders and followers could find the law of the situation. Follett saw leadership as a reciprocal experience that included partnership in following.

Mary Parker Follett devoted her life to understanding the democratic actions of building common purpose. Though her words and work lay dormant for most of 50 years, her ideals, theories, and proposed actions are now seen as both ways and means to a fuller democratic experience.

—Edith A. Rusch

See also adaptiveness of organizations; administration, theories of; collaboration theory; democracy, democratic education and administration; discrimination; feminism and theories of leadership; leadership, situational; leadership effectiveness; management theories; matrix organization (the “adhocracy”); organizational theories; power; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References


**FORECASTING**

Forecasting comprises a variety of methods of longitudinal, or time series, data analysis that can be used to determine, within a reasonable margin of error, future values of key variables used in education administration, such as budgetary expenditures or receipts, or enrollments, using previous data values and other relevant information. Forecasting methods produce forecasts, or predictions, of future events and circumstances to inform decision making. The process of forecasting involves two major steps, revolving around analyzing past data and basing the forecast on the results of that analysis: (a) Identify and describe a pattern in the previous data, and then (b) extrapolate this pattern by extending it into the future. This process of building forecasts is predicated on the assumption that history repeats itself—that is, that patterns identified in previous data will continue into the future—and even the most complex system for forecasting will do little good unless that assumption is true. Thus, any sophisticated forecasting model must be adaptive and able to change in response to signals that the forecasts are out of control.

The starting point of just about any forecasting activity is a visualization of the history of the time series data on which the forecasts will be based. For any time series data set, it is useful to decompose the data into four components:

1. Trend, which is the upward and downward movements in the data over time, representing long-term growth, decline, or stability determined by other variables that are not measured directly

2. Cyclical movements up and down around the overall trend levels that vary from peak to trough, which may be caused by economic fluctuations or demographic shifts, and vary greatly in length and amplitude
3. Seasonal variations, which are periodic, repetitive patterns related to things that change regularly over several years with the time of year on a weekly, monthly, or quarterly basis (for example, reduced enrollments in summer school compared with fall or spring).

4. Irregular fluctuations, which are the erratic movements in a time series that do not follow a regular pattern and hence are not accounted for by regular trend, cyclical, or seasonal patterns (caused, for example, by unusual and often dramatic events, such as a major economic decline, war, or a dramatic change in school board policies).

Each of these represents an ideal type of forecasting model. In reality, a combination of these four components may be present in any given time series. In fact, all four circumstances may characterize some complex data sets. Forecasting will be inaccurate if the correct underlying model is not specified. Accordingly, it is essential to have valid ways to identify the patterns within any given time series and to conduct diagnostic checks to be as sure as possible that the postulated model form is accurate. Once the correct model form is determined, forecasts are obtained using the combined estimates of trend, cyclical, seasonal, and irregular components. At the earliest opportunity, as soon as new data become available, the preliminary forecasts should be updated, and the model should be updated to reflect the new reality. Better models are those that produce better—more accurate—forecasts and that can be updated quickly to produce more accurate forecasts with the least amount of effort.

An important distinction must be drawn between forecasting for time series that are stationary, with constant mean and variance, and those that are non-stationary, in which the mean and/or the variance show distinct upward or downward tendencies. When a time series variable displays nonstationary mean and/or variance, it usually is necessary to transform the variable to induce stationarity. Usually, a logarithmic transformation helps to achieve stationarity in the variance, and a first difference, subtracting the one-step-ahead value from the one preceding it, helps to achieve stationarity in the mean.

Forecasting can be undertaken using either qualitative or quantitative methods. Expert opinion is the most common source of qualitative forecasting, particularly when hard data are difficult to obtain or simply don’t exist. One such qualitative approach to forecasting is the Delphi method, which is based on iterating through successive waves of information processing until a consensus is reached among the participating experts. Qualitative forecasting also is used to produce consensus-based expert conclusions in the form of “national security estimates” of when international events may happen, for what reasons, and with what consequences. Comparable methods can be used productively by education administrators, using either individual expert opinion or group consensus formation to forecast outcomes. Other qualitative methods include subjective curve fitting to determine the trajectory over time of an event or variable, and using what is known about the unfolding over time of developments in other areas. One example would be the well-established pattern of technological innovation and diffusion.

By far the most commonly used forms of forecasting are quantitative in nature. One way in which this can be achieved is by taking the single variable of interest—say, certified enrollment—and building a univariate model to represent the historical patterns within that one variable. This works well for time series variables that exhibit regular patterns and that are not subject to sharp changes from external variables that have not been taken into consideration. Univariate models are constructed through a process of preliminary identification of candidate models by examining the autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation functions, followed by estimation of several likely models, diagnostic checking to see which model(s) work best, forecasting, and updating as new information becomes available. This results in a model for what is essentially the dependent variable, but without any independent variables; we model trends over time, rather than the impact of predictor variables.

One or more independent variables also can be used in forecasting and can provide better forecasts if the variable being forecasted—say, certified enrollment—is known to be related closely to other measures. Certified enrollment can be forecasted, for example, from a multiple regression equation using independent variables measuring population demographic characteristics, particularly historical data on the number of children born each year and on the net balance of population inflow and outflow. Elaborate structural equation, or causal, models can be constructed to provide multiple equation forecasts of outcome variables and intervening endogenous variables. Transfer function models, which are multivariate extensions of the univariate modeling strategy to the
cross-correlation relationship between the input (independent) and output (dependent) variables, also may be used to produce better-defined forecasts. The transfer function strategy may be extended to include the impact of major interventions that produce sudden changes in the trajectory of the dependent variable.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also accountability; Delphi technique; economics, theories of; enrollment projections; market theory of schooling; planning models; productivity; rational organizational theory; research methods; structural equation modeling

Further Readings and References


Frame Theory

Frame theory is an accepted principle used to describe how the brain organizes experiences and new information. Frame theory presents a frame as the basic element used to organize experiences; it is a skeletal structure designed to give shape or support. A frame allows its user to locate, perceive, identify, and label a seemingly infinite number of concrete occurrences defined in its terms. The user is most likely to be unaware of the frame as an organizational tool used by the brain to organize information.

Erving Goffman has written extensively about the use of frame analysis to understand and communicate how the brain decides what is real and what is not, based on everyday events. Gregory Bateson introduced the term frame in 1955 as a word to represent the bracketing of information stored by the brain for retrieval in the future—a special set of boundary markers or brackets, like the wooden frame of a picture or windowpane.

The essence of frame theory occurs when one encounters a new experience one selects from a memory structure called a frame. This is a remembered framework to be adapted to fit reality by changing details as necessary. The frame provides the rules and principles that govern events, especially social ones, and guide a person to understand the meaning of the events. Attached to each frame are several kinds of information. Some of this information is about how to use the frame; some information is about what one can expect to happen next; and some information is about what to do if these expectations are not confirmed. A frame might be thought of as a kind of skeleton on which to hang things.

When a frame is applied to a new concept, it enables us to come to terms with all events associated with the new concept. The frame helps the brain identify what would other wise be meaningless knowledge into something meaningful for use in the future. The use of frames to organize information is not so much to introduce restrictions on what can be meaningful but to open up the possibility for variations on the experience to be added later. Frames are subject to reworking as we move from one frame to another and as new events are experienced.

Thus, a frame does not define the answer in advance; it is up to the thinker to fill in the content of a frame through assimilation of experiences.

Frames are not formulas; they are catalysts that stimulate the thinker to invent answers. The expert thinker has an internalized frame repertoire that functions spontaneously, without much deliberate attention. No one strategy, technique, or method will always work to support the thinking process. People need a “bag of tricks”: a variety of thinking frames to draw from in order to apply higher-order thinking skills.

The use of frame theory has been most prevalent in sociology, political science, language acquisition, artificial intelligence, and communication/media theory. Howard Gardner reported in 1994 that when a framework is used to present new concepts, it helps people organize and direct the new information for a better understanding of the new concept.

Students can acquire new frames by observing someone else applying the frame, and/or the frame must be specifically taught. Children need to practice a variety of problem-solving activities in order to internalize the use of a frame to support thinking. Educators do not provide nearly enough practice to internalize frames, and at other times, educators escalate the difficulty of the problems too quickly. Finally, educators cannot assume that transfer will happen by itself.
Teaching for transfer is making sure students pay attention to their own thinking processes and to encourage them to seek out remote contexts to apply the new frame.

—Robin Dexter, Suzanne Perry, and William Berube

See also brain research and practice; cognition, theories of; cognitive styles; constructivism; creativity, theories of; critical theory; interpretive studies; management theories; organizational memory; paradigm; planning models; pragmatism and progressivism; productivity; restructuring of schools

Further Readings and References


Freud, Sigmund

Sigmund Freud (1856–1939) was born in 1856, in the small Austro-Hungarian town of Freiberg (now in Czech Republic). At the age of 4, Sigmund and his family moved to Vienna, where he was to live for almost 80 years. From his early years, he loved books, and he avidly read the work of great playwrights, poets, and philosophers. In 1883, he graduated from the Medical School of the University of Vienna. In his early career, he was an assistant to Ernst Brucke, who worked on neurological problems of lower animals, but he was dissatisfied with the poor returns of this work. He gained a postgraduate stipend to work in Paris with the neurologist Jean Charcot. On his return to Austria, he developed a close relationship with Josef Breuer. Under his influence, he started using hypnosis, a method that was leading the patient to catharsis through sessions of unconsciously describing forgotten experiences and conflicting feelings. Disagreements amongst the two men led the collaboration to end. Freud, working alone, developed his own psychoanalytic theory and assessment techniques. In 1902, he founded the Psycho-Analytical Society. His libido theory was met with criticism and later led to disagreements within the society. Two of his most talented disciples, Alfred Adler and Carl Jung, separated and formed theories opposing the emphasis put on sexuality by Freud. After the Nazi invasion of Austria in 1938, he reluctantly moved to London, where he died in 1939.

INSTINCTS: THE DRIVING FORCES OF PERSONALITY

Freud believed that all neurotic problems originated in frustrations of the sexual instinct (libido theory). He argued that there are two basic groups of impulsive drives. Life impulses or drives are those forces that maintain life processes and ensure reproduction of the species. The key to these forces is the sexual drive, whose energy force is the “libido.” Death impulses or drives are the source of aggressiveness and reflect the ultimate resolution of all of life’s tension in death. Although Freud emphasized the importance of the death drive, his discussion of the development of personality centers around the sexual drive.

PSYCHOANALYTIC TECHNIQUES

In his early years, Freud used hypnosis and the cathartic method to treat his patients. Nevertheless, he found that many patients could not be hypnotized, so he began asking his patients to concentrate on a particular symptom and try to recall any early experiences that might explain its origins. He called this method free association. He asked his patients to express every thought that occurred to them, no matter how irrelevant, trivial, unimportant, or unpleasant. For Freud, this uncensored reporting was the fundamental element of psychoanalysis. He believed that no idea is insignificant and eventually the associations will lead
back to the original problem. Freud observed that many patients were unwilling to talk about painful past events. He labeled this behavior resistance and assumed that it was a symptom of an underlying conflict. During sessions of free association, when resistance occurred, he believed that the analysis was moving in the right direction, that is, uncovering the actual source of patients’ problems.

Freud also introduced the technique of dream analysis. He saw dreams as wish fulfillment devices and tried to understand and explain their true content in order to interpret the conflicts the patient was faced with and the mechanisms by which these were concealed from awareness.

During the course of treatment, Freud often guided his patients to transfer their feelings, positive or negative, toward the therapist. These feelings were supposed to be originally directed toward another person (usually one of the parents). The transference permitted the patient to reexperience and rework these relationships to a more satisfactory resolution.

**STRUCTURAL THEORY OF PERSONALITY**

The id, ego, and superego represent different components of the personality. The id consists of sexual and aggressive instincts. It is rooted in the biological part of the human being; it is amoral and unconcerned with the niceties of the society. It operates according to the pleasure principle. The ego develops in order to realistically meet the wishes of the id and the perfectionist demands of the superego. It follows the reality principle. The superego represents the internalization by the individual of the society’s values. It strives for perfection and seeks to depress the impulses of the id by persuading the ego to replace realistic choices with moralistic ones.

In the mature and well-adjusted personality, the ego is the executer, controlling and governing the id and superego and mediating between their demands and the external world. In the maladjusted personality, either the id or the superego gains control.

Anxiety and tension may result from the conflicts between the id, ego, and superego. Ego defense mechanisms develop as protection from anxiety and threat. These mechanisms operate at an unconscious level and represent varying degrees of psychological health, depending on the precise nature of mechanism and the extent of its use. Freud believed that ego defense mechanisms result from repressed sexuality.

**THE PSYCHOSEXUAL STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT**

Freud defined a set of psychosexual stages that children pass through as they develop from autoerotic sexual activity to adult heterosexual activity. If the libido is frustrated or overindulged at any stage, it may become fixated.

- **Oral stage:** The major source of pleasure and potential conflict is the mouth. It lasts from birth to age 1.
- **Anal stage:** The source of pleasure and potential conflict is the anus. It is experienced during the second year of life.
- **Phallic stage:** The characteristics of this stage are pleasurable and conflicting feelings associated with the genital organs. Children experience the Oedipus complex (attraction to the parent of the opposite sex), whose resolution leads to the development of a superego and sexual identification. It lasts between the ages of 3 and 6.
- **Latency stage:** Psychosexual period during which libidinal energy is sublimated and channeled into nonsexual activities. The sexual impulses, which are unacceptable in their direct expression, are channeled and elevated into more culturally accepted levels of activity, such as sports, intellectual interests, and peer relations. It starts at the age of 6 and lasts till prepuberty.
- **Genital stage:** Freud’s final stage of psychosexual development, which begins at puberty, when the sexual organs mature, and the individual is able to assume the sexual role outlined by his or her culture.

**EVALUATIVE COMMENTS**

Freud developed an extensive and comprehensive theory and sought to explain literally all human behavior. His thought has influenced scholars from many different disciplines, and many of the concepts he introduced are still used as well as tested for validity. Nevertheless, his theory was criticized for imprecision and ambiguities of its relational statements. Its major flaw is that while Freud strove for scientific reasoning, he permitted many of his concepts to function philosophically and he generalized observations on a limited number of patients to a level of universal application.

Freud was also criticized for putting undue emphasis on the sexual instinct and for presenting a generally pessimistic and one-sided view of human nature.
People were seen as essentially irrational and controlled by amoral forces. Although he fully recognized that human beings can act rationally, he chose to focus almost entirely on the irrational side of human nature in his work. His theory is often perceived as essentially pessimistic, deterministic, mechanistic, and reductionistic.

—Metin Pişkin

See also behaviorism; child development theories; counseling; egocentrism, theories of; individual differences, in children; homophobia; lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgender issues in education; mental illness, in adults and children; morality, moral leadership; personality; psychology, types of; self-actualization; sexuality, theories of

Further Readings and References

FRIEDMAN, MILTON

One of the best-known monetarists and one of the most popular economists of the century, Milton Friedman (1912–) is an ardent free-market advocate. In addition to his writings on the free market, he has also written extensively on public policy, with a primary emphasis on the preservation and extension of individual freedoms. While Friedman is best known for his accomplishments in the area of economics, together he and his wife, Rose Friedman, established the Milton and Rose D. Friedman Foundation to promote parental choice in schools.

Over the years, Friedman has promulgated several theories pertaining to school vouchers and privatizing schools. Foremost is his belief that establishing a voucher system should be a primary educational goal for the twenty-first century. Friedman contends that education is a government monopoly and that the socialistic tenets of monopolies are as unsuccessful for education as they were for the economic structures of Russia and Eastern Europe. Vouchers, according to Friedman, are the stepping-stones to needed privatization.

Friedman believes a voucher system must be universal, available to everyone, and that the dollar amounts offered should be large enough to promote high-quality education. However, he recommends that vouchers not be equal in amount to the money paid by the state to public schools. He posits that the parents should pay some of the educational costs so they acquire an appreciation and interest in the product they are buying.

Friedman believes no conditions should be attached to vouchers, thus allowing each school the opportunity to explore, experiment, and innovate. Friedman conceptualizes that voucher systems will revolutionize education by reducing stratification, building competition, and restoring control to the people most competent to decide on children’s education, their parents. Friedman perceives major stumbling blocks to a well-implemented voucher program to be the continued, and in many areas increased, control by the federal government control over education and the government’s trend to centralized bureaucracy (in 1955, there were 55,000 school districts, and in 1992, the number of districts had been reduced to 15,000). Noting that National Education Association and American Federation of Teachers together form the strongest lobbying body in the United States, Friedman cites teacher unions as an additional stumbling block and contends that the increased strength of unions has turned schools from learning institutions into job programs for teachers.

Friedman earned his BA from Rutgers (1932), and he received his MA from the University of Chicago in 1933. He received his PhD from the University of Chicago in 1946. Following receipt of his doctorate, he taught at the University of Chicago, from 1946 to 1976. He has been a Senior Research Fellow at the Hoover Institution, Stanford University, since 1977 and has served as a member of the research staff of the National Bureau of Economic Research between 1937 and 1981. In 1976, Friedman won the Nobel Memorial Prize for economic science, and in 1988, he was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom. That same year, he received the National Medal of Science.

—Brenda R. Kallio

See also American Federation of Teachers; choice, of schools; decentralization/centralization controversy; economics,
theories of; finance, of public schools; market theory of schooling; National Education Association; privatization; unions, of teachers; voucher plans

Further Readings and References

FRINGE BENEFITS

Most public employees receive for their service to a board of education two forms of compensation: direct compensation and indirect compensation. Direct compensation involves a wage/salary and is realized through the payment of actual dollars. This direct form of compensation always includes a base dollar amount and can be potentially augmented through overtime work or supplemental job assignments.

Indirect forms of compensation received by most public school employees are fringe benefits. Fringe benefits are economic incentives or rewards enjoyed by an employee but paid for in part or total by the employer. As an indirect form of compensation, fringe benefits were developed by employers to complement actual salaries and to enhance their particular organizational standing within the labor market.

Indeed, many of the fringe benefits enjoyed by public school employees today have roots in early wage stabilization programs enacted by the federal government. During times of war, with labor shortages for traditional employees, employers were forbidden from increasing wages as a means of attracting new employees or retaining existing employees. However, the wage stabilization legislation was silent with respect to other indirect forms of compensation, and this silence opened the door for employers to develop alternate economic incentives to attract and to retain employees.

As a group, these economic incentives were labeled “fringe benefits.” The literal interpretation of fringe was used to describe these benefits as being “near to” salary or on the outer edge of the compensation package. Consequently, the label “fringe” reflects location of the benefit relative to salary, rather than value or size of the benefit as measured in relative dollars.

Although used initially as a means to attract and to retain employees during times of wage stabilization programs, fringe benefits are rooted in a protectionism philosophy. Core to this philosophy is the notion that the direct compensation of employees, in part or whole, should be protected when endangered through no fault of the employee. For example, retirement benefits are designed to protect an employee’s standard of living after serving the employer for a specified time of employment, while sick leave is designed to protect an employee’s income during a temporary disability.

Today within the public school setting, fringe benefits are legitimized through enabling legislation, labor contracts, and/or school board policy. As such, some fringe benefits are mandatory and must be provided by the employer, while other fringe benefits are discretionary and may be provided by the employer. Consequently, some fringe benefits are rights, and other fringe benefits are privileges.

Because enabling legislation for fringe benefits can stem from both federal and state governments and because collective bargaining laws addressing fringe benefits vary by state, a truly unique configuration of mandatory fringe benefits fails to exist. This is particularly obvious with respect to social security, whereby some states (e.g., Wisconsin) require public school districts to participate in social security on behalf of public school employees and some other states (e.g., Ohio) opt out of the social security requirement. Common across all states with respect to mandatory fringe benefits are entitlements such as unemployment insurance, workers’ compensation, and more recently, family and medical leaves.

Likewise, considerable variations exist among public school districts with respect to discretionary fringe benefits offered employees by a particular school district. More specifically, medical coverage is a common discretionary benefit offered by employers but can vary in coverage to include only the employee or the employee’s immediate family. Furthermore, the coverage of this fringe benefit, like most all discretionary fringe benefits, can be paid in part or in full by the employer and can vary in payment amount (part or full) depending on the specific option chosen (self or family).

In summary, all fringe benefits are by definition an indirect form of compensation and represent a substantial cost to the employer. Indeed, it is not uncommon for fringe benefits costs to the employer to add an additional 20% beyond that expended for wages or
salaries paid employees. As a form of indirect compensation, the types of fringe benefits offered employees have been expanded greatly to attract and to retain quality employees.

—I. Phillip Young

See also human resource development; merit pay; personnel management; power, remunerative; salary and salary models; staffing, concepts of; unions, of teachers

Fullan cautions that school reform is a time-consuming and long-range project driven by mission statements that integrate vision of basic principles along with personal and organizational insights and that implementation of change is a project not an event. Fullan contends that for change to take place, people must learn about the new policies and innovations. He also posits that the best mode for this learning is through professional learning communities in which leaders and teachers work together to focus on student learning as one of the key elements of large-scale reform. Fullan also advocates that the concept of sustainability is critical to all change initiatives.

Fullan received his degrees in sociology (bachelor’s, master’s and doctorate) from the University of Toronto, where he went on to serve as a professor, the chair of the sociology department, the assistant academic director at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE), and Dean Emeritus of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. Other credits include policy implementation adviser to the Minister of Education and Training (Ontario) on the Report of the Royal Commission on Learning. Fullan is currently leading a research team on a project based in England titled the “National Literacy and Numeracy Strategy.”

Fullan has published widely on the topic of change. Some of his writings include What’s Worth Fighting For, The New Meaning of Educational Change, Leading in a Culture of Change (2002 Book of the Year by the National Staff Development Council), and Change Forces With a Vengeance. His most recent book, The Moral Imperative of School Leadership was released in March 2003. His books are published in multiple languages and are available in several countries.

—Brenda R. Kallio

See also capacity building, of organizations; leadership, theories of; organizational theories; planning models; problem solving; productivity; restructuring, of schools


FUNCTIONALIST THEORY

Perhaps the oldest and most dominant theoretical perspective in sociology, functionalist theory, or structural functionalism, focuses on the central idea that society is a whole unit, composed of interconnected parts. These parts both influence the whole of society and are, in turn, influenced by the whole. Accordingly, each part of society—families, schools, the economy, states, and religious organizations and groups, for example—perform certain activities that are either functional (beneficial consequences or outcomes) or dysfunctional (negative consequences).

French sociologist Émile Durkheim, a positivistic organicist and early pioneer in the development of functionalist theory, established sociology as a quantitative and academic social science and gave life to the functionalist paradigm in sociology. In *The Division of Labor in Society*, his 1893 dissertation, Durkheim saw the division of labor as a cooperative, functional specialization regulated by the normative system of the social configuration in which it occurs. In a functional system, different people, performing different tasks, are rewarded according to the functional importance of their contributions. Durkheim argued that social development is explained by the increased differentiation of functions (the division of labor) and the moral transformation that is necessary to integrate a heterogeneous, differentiated society.

Functionalists also see the social world as being “objectively real” and observable with such techniques as social surveys and interviews. A functionalist might argue, for instance, that every society must have an educational system. Educational institutions have certain functions that contribute to the survival of the social system, just as organs in the human body contribute to its survival. Functional analyses often focus on the individual, showing how broader social forces mold individual behavior.

In 1968, Robert Merton, another prominent functionalist, proposed a number of important distinctions to avoid potential weaknesses and clarify ambiguities in the basic perspective. First, Merton distinguished manifest from latent functions. Manifest functions are recognized and intended by actors in the social system and hence may represent motives for their actions. Latent functions, on the other hand, are unrecognized and thus unintended by the actors. Second, Merton distinguished between consequences that are positively functional to a society, functions that are dysfunctional for the society, and those that are neither. Third, Merton distinguished between levels of society: specific social units for which regularized patterns of behavior are functional or dysfunctional. Finally, he suggested that particular social structures, such as education, that satisfy society’s functional needs, may not be indispensable. Rather, structural alternatives may exist that can satisfy the same functional needs.

To understand the educational system, consider how it contributes to the maintenance of a healthy social system. Functionalists argue that a healthy society must have individuals who obey society’s norms and seek appropriate values. People are socialized into these “normative” expectations for behavior, which are core to the social structure. Societies engender social solidarity and value consensus, and education plays a vital role in this socialization process.

Two main questions confront functionalists when they analyze education:

1. What does the educational system contribute to the maintenance of value consensus?
2. What are the functional relationships between the educational system and other parts of the social system?

—Khushnur Dadabhoy and Rodney Muth

See also adaptiveness of organizations; division of labor; Gestalt theory and therapy; knowledge base, of the field; objectivity; systems theory/thinking

Further Readings and References


FUNDAMENTALISM

Fundamentalism is a religious movement found in at least three of the globe’s major religions: Islam, Judaism,
and Christianity. As a movement, it is marked by a literalist understanding of and strict adherence to the central religious texts of a given faith (Koran, Torah, and Bible). It includes a deep discomfort with modernity, studiously ahistorical notions of its own religious history as well as the role of religion in a given society, and a fierce intolerance for those who do not believe similarly.

Fundamentalism arose in these three religions as a response to modernity and the changes it wrought upon traditional societies. In the United States, fundamentalist Christianity is a uniquely American variant of Protestant Christianity that emerged in reaction to Darwin and the emerging literary and historical scholarship on the Bible’s roots. Protestant Christians, particularly those living in the South, were shocked by the possible theological implications wrought by the work of Charles Darwin. Equally shocking was the historical and literary scholarship by the late nineteenth century “higher critics,” who concluded that the Bible was written by various and largely unknown authors who provided contradictory accounts of ancient events. Both intellectual developments severely undermined the Bible as a repository of historical and scientific fact. Distressing as these were, by the twentieth century, many mainline Christians concluded that the Bible contained neither scientific nor historical truth, but continued to hold that the Bible presented theological truth.

Other U.S. Christians, however, could not reconcile their theological worldview to either Darwin or the higher criticisms. In response, a series of tracts titled The Fundamentals: A Testimony to Truth, were published between 1910 and 1915, establishing the articles of faith for the newly named fundamentalist Christians. The writers stressed the necessity of being “born again,” embraced Biblical literalism (i.e., the Bible is all truth: theological, historical and scientific), focused on missionary work, rejected the scientific method, and attacked both Roman Catholicism and Mormonism as heretical. Finally, fundamentalists were to be apolitical, unlike their more progressively minded Protestant brethren.

With the exception of the events surrounding the 1920s Scopes trial and the politics of evolution, most fundamentalists shunned political involvement, and many refrained from even voting during the first half of the twentieth century. Instead, fundamentalists concentrated their energies on building countercultural institutions, such as Bible colleges and institutes, private religious schools, elaborate mass media networks, and local church communities.

A number of events, including the desegregation of public schools (and the larger civil rights movement) and the banning of state-sponsored religious practices, triggered a reevaluation of the doctrine of political noninvolvement. However, what ignited sustained political interest of fundamentalists was the U.S. Supreme Court decision in Roe v. Wade (1973), which legalized abortion. Furthermore, there was explosive growth in fundamentalist church membership and increased interest by the public. From the 1970s on, the national Republican Party also aggressively courted fundamentalists, whose conservative values were, as yet, an untapped resource for the party.

Fundamentalists gained further political legitimacy when evangelical Jimmy Carter was elected president in 1976. Catherine Lugg wrote in 1996 that the Carter presidency prompted other fundamentalists to enter the political arena, especially after his policy decisions conflicted with the political expectations of his religious brethren.

By the 1980 presidential election, a Christian Right was born and focused itself on returning “biblical” values to America. Fundamentalists and fundamentalist beliefs were central to this political movement, determined to elect like-minded politicians from the schoolhouse (e.g., school boards) to the White House. Since then, fundamentalists have at times played a key role in U.S. electoral politics, particularly at the local level. And one of the most frequent targets for their political activism has been public education.

Over the past 25 years, United States Christian fundamentalists have been fairly consistent in their policy preferences for public schools. Generally, they would like public schools to embrace state-sponsored religious practices, such as vocal prayer, Christmas concerts, and the like; to avoid discussions of sexuality if possible, and if not, to constrain discussions to abstinence and heterosexual reproduction; to have the biblical story of creation taught as actual science; and to teach the bible as history, not as a historic text. If they are unsuccessful in implementing these changes writ large, another option has been to embrace a system of publicly funded vouchers, which would enable parents who are dissatisfied with the public schools to attend the religious school of their choice.

The rise of fundamentalism in the United States has been paralleled by the rise of other fundamentalist religious movements around the globe.
From Pakistan to India to Israel, fundamentalism has played an increasing role in shaping the politics as well as educational policies of a given nation. As countries continue to cope with the changes brought on by modernity and now postmodernity, as well as global capitalism, many people will embrace a fundamentalist approach to public policy as a response to these dislocations.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also Christian Coalition; Church-state issues; liberalism; politics, of education; prayer in school; religion, in schools; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; values education; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References

Phi Delta Kappa (PDK), an international association of professional educators, has commissioned the Gallup organization to survey American public opinion about public schools every spring since 1969. The results of the annual Gallup Poll have been published in the association’s journal, Phi Delta Kappan, each autumn. A hallmark of the survey has been the public’s grading of schools on the A-B-C scale. People have consistently rated the public school their own child attended higher than schools in their community, and the public schools in their community higher than the nation’s public schools. A number of questions used in the poll have been repeated from year to year, permitting the tracking of public opinion on issues such as school choice and accountability. Critics have suggested that the questions in the poll have been leading, with the resulting data biased in favor of status quo public schools.

Founded in 1908, PDK began as a male-only fraternity of educational leaders. Women were admitted beginning in 1972. Today it is an international association of professional educators, including teachers and graduate students as well as educational administrators, with chapters around the world. Its mission is promoting quality education as essential to a democratic way of life.

**GRADING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS**

Typically, about two thirds of public school parents give an A or B to the school their oldest child attends. For the years 1986 through 2004, the range was 62% (1998) to 73% (1991). When asked what letter grade they would assign the public schools in their community, typically about 45% of all respondents say A or B. For the years 1983 through 2004, the range was 31% (1983) to 51% (2001) for giving the schools in their community an A or B.

In grading the schools of the nation as a whole, usually less than a quarter of all respondents give schools an A or B. For the years 1993 through 2004, the low was 18% (1998) and the high was 26% (2003 and 2004). These consistent patterns in the data over the years suggest that the more people know about a school the more favorable they are toward it.

**TESTING AND STANDARDS**

Over the years, the PDK/Gallup Poll has asked various questions regarding people’s opinions of national academic standards and standardized tests. For example, in 1993, 81% of respondents said they would like to see students in the local schools given national tests so that their educational achievement could be compared with students in other communities. In 1978, 1990, and 1995, about two thirds of respondents said they favored requiring students in the public schools in this community to pass standardized, national examinations for promotion from grade to grade. In 1983, three quarters of the respondents said they favored such exams. In 2001, the wording of the question was changed to “Do you favor or oppose using a single standardized test in the public schools in your community to determine whether a student should be promoted from grade to grade?” The percentage in favor dropped to 53% with this wording of the question.
In 2003 and 2004, the poll asked how much people knew about the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). The percentage responding “a great deal” or “a fair amount” was 24% in 2003 and 31% in 2004. Among public school parents, the percentages were 22% in 2003 and 37% in 2004. Additional questions were asked about specific aspects of NCLB. For example, How much, if at all, are you concerned that relying on testing for English and math only to judge a school’s performance will mean less emphasis on art, music, history, and other subjects? Would you say you are concerned a great deal, a fair amount, not much, or not at all?” Eighty percent of the respondents answered “a great deal” or “a fair amount” to this question in both 2003 and 2004. About half of all respondents in both years thought that NCLB was likely to “help to improve student achievement in the public schools in your community” either “a great deal” or “a fair amount.”

SCHOOL CHOICE

One of the poll’s questions about school choice has been worded “Do you favor or oppose allowing students and parents to choose a private school to attend at public expense?” In 1993, 24% of the respondents favored this idea, and the percentage who were in favor rose almost every year, up to 46% in 2002, but fell back to 42% in 2004. An alternate wording was “A proposal has been made which would allow parents to send their school-age children to any public, private or church-related school they choose. For those parents choosing nonpublic schools, the government would pay all or part of the tuition. Would you favor or oppose this proposal in your state?” People have been more favorable toward the second wording of the question. In the years 1994 through 2002, anywhere from 44% (2001) to 52% (2002) of the respondents favored this proposal.

OTHER ISSUES

The only question to have appeared on every poll from 1969 through 2004 is an open-ended question asking what people think are the biggest problems the schools in their community face. The most likely problems to be mentioned over the years are finances, drugs, discipline, and gangs and violence. In 2002, 2003, and 2004, finances were most frequently mentioned as being the top problem. In 2001, about two thirds of the respondents said they would be willing to pay more taxes to improve the quality of the public schools in the poorer states and poorer communities.

Other issues that the poll has asked about include discipline, prayer in school, values education, charter schools, the appropriate roles for federal and state governments in education, paying for college, racism, and various school reform strategies. About two thirds of respondents favored an amendment to the U.S. Constitution allowing prayer in schools in 1984, 1995, and 1998. The percentage of respondents who thought homeschooling was a good thing increased from 16% in 1985 to 41% in 2001.

PDK’S BIAS

Because PDK is an organization that has traditionally been supportive of public schools, the PDK/Gallup Poll questions may be somewhat biased toward support of the status quo. When they have changed the wording of questions, it has sometimes been apparent that the results change. For example, the wording of questions about school choice and standardized testing, described above, clearly had an impact on the results. In 2004, Phi Delta Kappan printed comments from various organizational leaders alongside the report of the poll data, giving at least one critic the opportunity to object to the wording of some of the questions. In recent years, Public Agenda has provided comparison data from various public opinion polls about education and other issues on their Web site. These comparisons have included some PDK/Gallup data and have permitted a check on how the results of their questions match up with the results of other surveys.

—Carla Edlefson

See also accountability; attitudes; choice; community relations; No Child Left Behind; questionnaires; standard setting; standardized testing; surveys and survey results

Further Readings and References


Howard Earl Gardner (1943–) is the Hobbs Professor of Cognition and Education at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. He is also adjunct professor in the Harvard psychology department, adjunct professor of neurology at the Boston University School of Medicine, and senior director of Harvard Project Zero (whose primary goal is to develop understanding of and enhance learning, thinking, and creativity in the arts). He has published over 20 books, translated into over 20 languages, and over 100 articles. Gardner is best known for his theory of multiple intelligences, first introduced in his 1983 book *Frames of Mind*.

Gardner was born in Scranton, Pennsylvania, in 1943, after his parents fled Nazi Germany seeking refuge in the United States. He began his postsecondary education at Harvard as a history major to prepare him for a career in law school. While there, however, Gardner’s interests were changed as a result of his studying under noted psychologist Erik Erikson, sociologist David Riesman, and cognitive psychologist Jerome Bruner. Working with them sparked his interest in human nature and specifically how humans learn. Gardner received his postsecondary education at Harvard University, graduating summa cum laude in 1963, and went on to receive his doctorate in 1971. He is recognized internationally for his contributions and has received honorary degrees from 20 colleges and universities. He has received numerous awards, including the MacArthur Prize Fellowship in 1981, the Louisville Grawemeyer Award in Education in 1990, and a fellowship from the John S. Guggenheim Memorial Foundation in 2000. Gardner continues to work at Harvard in Project Zero, where he is currently codirector.

Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences challenged the existing belief that intelligence is a single stagnant entity, inherited from one’s parents, and measured using psychometric instruments. His theory postulated that there are many intelligences (originally, he identified seven), independent of each other, and that individuals think and learn in different ways. He further recounted that schools have traditionally valued only two of the intelligences (linguistic or word smart, and logical-mathematical, or number/reasoning smart). He argued that there were at least five other intelligences that should be valued as well: (1) spatial intelligence or picture smart, (2) bodily-kinesthetic intelligence or body smart, (3) musical intelligence or music smart, (4) interpersonal intelligence or people smart, and (5) intrapersonal intelligence or self-smart. In 1993, Gardner added naturalistic intelligence (or nature smart) to the original seven, and continues to refine his work.

Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences has had significant impact in the field of education. Teachers and administrators embraced his theory as a rationale for the many children they encountered that were extremely gifted in areas such as sports or music but were either average in traditional academic work or often even struggled in those areas. His work in human learning and his theory of multiple intelligences has had a significant impact on teaching and curriculum.

—Joan Henley

See also critical thinking; individual differences, in children; intelligence; psychometrics

Further Readings and References


characteristics such as race, class, geographic location, and family composition also have effects on the expression of gender; to be a man or a woman has different meanings for various individuals. From an early age, societies have established norms determining what is acceptable and appropriate for boys and girls, men and women. Subsequently, gendered practices influence all levels of education through both formal and informal policies and expected behaviors.

Gender equity in education emerged as an important societal issue in the 1960s and 1970s, and reform efforts resulted in the passage of Title IX, which prohibits discrimination in every public education institution in the United States, including all K–12 schools as well as colleges and universities that receive federal funding. The opening section states that “no person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program receiving federal assistance.” Though this law was passed, instances of discrimination and partiality based on gender still exist in educational institutions.

As girls and boys enter the K–12 educational system, they are often socialized into particular roles, activities, classes, and behaviors that are deemed traditionally acceptable. In fact, the American Association of University Women (AAUW) published a groundbreaking report in 1992, How Schools Shortchange Girls, which concluded that schools did not offer girls an education of the same quality or quantity as boys. This report served as a catalyst to local, state, and national reform to address the needs of girls in K–12 school systems and to improve educational practices for all students, both males and females, in public schools. The follow up report, Gender Gaps: Where Schools Still Fail Our Children, documents that progress has been made toward equitable treatment of boys and girls. Still, concerns remain about academic tracking, differential use of technology, and girls’ and women’s transitions from school to work.

Colleges and universities are often the sites for the examination of gendered constructions through courses, activism, and efforts of students and professors. Because of its far-reaching impact on society, higher education has the means to propagate or repudiate social constructions of gendered expectations through pedagogy, curriculum, and research. In fact, it is often the result of efforts at university campuses that reforms are initiated to challenge and expand stereotypical notions about men’s and women’s abilities, desires, and lives. Though gendered constructions are often challenged in higher education, concurrently this is the site for the reproduction of disparities based on gender. Fewer than 20% of college and university presidents are women, while well over 50% of the student body are women. Though a large number of women attend college, male leadership dominates administration and the governing bodies of higher education. Despite challenges that exist in creating equitable opportunities in higher education, significant increases in research and knowledge about women and gender have helped to promote strategies that can address those challenges. In over 800 campuses nationwide, faculty members, administrators, and students have developed women’s and/or gender studies programs; approximately 400 campuses have established women’s centers. In addition, women are entering graduate programs more frequently and are preparing themselves to become leaders and scholars in future academic settings.

Departments charged with preparing educational leaders of the future have the opportunity and responsibility to address gender-related issues in ways that could greatly enhance existing educational institutions. Specifically, educational leaders need to understand the gendered dimensions of leadership styles, pedagogy, learning preferences, research methods, curriculum, and career socialization. Recent studies on gender and educational leadership are more inclusive, and challenge traditional modes of thinking and teaching about administration to become more inclusive of critical and feminist methodologies and perspectives. Essentially, these studies provide a more balanced and equitable examination of the leadership styles, experiences, backgrounds, and histories of both men and women. This multifaceted approach enables educational leaders to promote positive and productive experiences for all of their students and employees, regardless of gender.

Considering the effects of gender reform on education, key questions can guide future efforts to ensure that both males and females in K–12 settings and higher education institutions receive enriching educational experiences:

- What are the pros and cons for gender equity reform for both males and females?
- How can faculty members in educational leadership programs best facilitate in graduate students, professors, and community members an appreciation for traits and behaviors associated with both masculine and feminine leadership styles?
How can scholars in educational leadership incorporate into the scholarly literature and graduate programs leadership styles associated with and developed by men and women?

How has the backlash against gender equity initiatives affected male and female students similarly and differently?

—Mentha P. Clark and Becky Ropers-Huilman

See also Bethune, Mary McLeod; discrimination; Dorsey, Susan Miller; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; feminism and theories of leadership; leadership, theories of; women in educational leadership; Young, Ella Flagg

Further Readings and References


GESTALT THEORY AND THERAPY

Gestalt psychologists believe that the human mind organizes the world into meaningful wholes, called gestalts. The organized whole is essentially different than the sum of the parts. The German word Gestalt literally means “whole configuration,” and the whole (be it the person or persons or a perceptual image) is always greater than the sum of the parts. Thus, the person is seen as being more than just all his or her component parts.

HISTORY

Gestalt psychology became a leading school of thought in Germany in the 1920s. However, it virtually disappeared in the mid-1930s after its founders and many of the former students left the country. Gestalt psychology was met with initial great interest and enthusiasm in the United States after publications by Kurt Koffka in 1922. But behaviorism was even then rapidly becoming the ruling brand of psychology in America, and there was no room for gestaltic ideas. Gestalt psychology began as a reaction to the behaviorism of John B. Watson. Gestalt’s argument with behaviorism was its focus on the systematic collection and analysis of data from the bottom up. Psychologists investigated each element individually without an appreciation for their importance as a whole that was greater than the sum of their parts.

Max Wertheimer, considered to be one of Gestalt psychology’s early researchers, was born in Prague in 1880 and attended the University of Frankfurt, where he studied “apparent motion.” This phenomenon is experienced when an observer notices that two lights, within close proximity to each other and flashing alternately, appear to be one light moving back and forth and to and from both locations. The observer perceives movement even though none has occurred. This concept is called “apparent motion,” and is thought to occur because when experiences are perceived in a way that calls for the simplest explanation, even though it may differ from reality. This became known as the Gestalt Law of Minimum Principle. Simplicity is a principle that guides our perception and may even override the effects of previous experience. Wertheimer contended that the understanding of conscious experiences does not rely on breaking the experience into its components. For example, to enjoy music at a concert, we do not have to know the qualifications of each member of the orchestra, the quality of their instrument, how the performers are dressed, the extent of the conductor’s training, and so forth to enjoy the performance as a whole.

Another significant influence in Gestalt psychology is Kurt Koffka, the guru of apparent motion, who wrote Principles of Gestalt Psychology in 1935. This became the bible for Gestalt psychologists. Gestalt psychology had a pervasive effect on many different areas such as learning, ethics, and social psychology. It philosophized that learning is most effective when students learn generalizations and principles that can be applied to new situations, as opposed to rote memorization, which is more of a conditioned response than true learning.
GESTALT THERAPY

Gestalt therapy is a form of “counseling” or “psychotherapy” unconnected to the Gestalt psychology developed in the United States during the 1960s by the German-born psychiatrist Fritz Fredericks Perls (1893–1970). In it clients are encouraged to focus on immediate pressures and to express inner true feelings openly and honestly. Gestalt therapy focuses on patients being out of touch with their needs as a living organism. Each of us is a living organism; thus, a living, breathing, caring, organism that exists in an environment. Yet people are self-regulating organisms. Perls believed people inherently know what their needs are and that when they are free of obstacles, they will satisfactorily meet those needs naturally. He emphasized that biological needs lie at the core of all human behaviors and that humans are biological entities.

Carl Rogers and Fritz Perls were two pioneers in applying principles to therapy. Carl Rogers, in particular, was a major influence in shifting the focus from the therapist to the client. Take the time to ask clients what is wrong, Rogers believed, and they just might tell you. Furthermore, Rogers believed that clients are “experts” on their own life and come into therapy with a built-in device to behave in healthy and productive ways. Perls, the father of Gestalt therapy, however, took another approach. He brought past conflicts directly into the therapy office and asked clients to resolve them by acting out their feelings, fantasies, and dreams. If a client’s mother died and the client had unresolved feelings toward her, Perls might ask the client to talk to an empty chair as if it were the mother and express the things he or she previously either could not or would not say to her face. Perls then may instruct the client to switch chairs and respond as the mother would, or as the client wished she had. Completing the “unfinished” business would then free the client to direct energy toward self-actualization. As humans, we organize our lives, behaviors, thoughts, feelings, and activities around our needs. The end goal needs and these means by which people try to meet them lie at the center of all personal organization. Gestalt therapists believe strongly in astute awareness and connectivity. Perls defined awareness as being in touch with the entire field, which includes both figural and what is grounded in reality. Gestalt theorists, thus, stress being aware of the whole field—the process of continued interaction and adjustment between an organism and its environment. People grow and mature through contact.

The Gestalt psychologists naturally spend much of their time researching how people perceive “wholes” from partial and sometimes fragmentary visual information. One of the clearest illustrations of their idea that the whole is more than the sum of its parts is the principle of closure. For example, a line drawing of a familiar object such as a human face can omit many details but still easily be perceived as a face. Another principle is proximity. Similarly, objects that are uniformly spaced tend to be seen as one group. Spread out the object in trios, however, and the perception will be that there are several groups. Finally, “figure ground” is a basic but somewhat more complicated principle of visual perception in which people attend to part of a visual stimulus as the figure and ignore the rest of the image as the background.

The Gestalt therapist points out the patient’s unfinished business as it emerges through both the content and process of the therapeutic process to therapeutic relationship. The therapist directs patients to focus on their immediate experience in an attempt to help the patients reconnect with their own discarded needs, and thus to break out of old behavior.

There is, however, another step to be considered. People are not only a part of their field, but they are also a part of the fields of others. When a group of people work together, each person must work as a meaningful part of the whole. Only under very special circumstances does an “I” stand out alone, thus upsetting the balance of the fields of themselves and others.

—Linda N. Townzen and Elaine L. Wilmore

See also learning, theories of; open systems theory; path-goal leadership theory; perceptual psychology; psychology, types of; Rogers, Carl; self-actualization

Further Readings and References

GIFTEDNESS, GIFTED EDUCATION

The concept of giftedness was historically linked to the concepts of high achieving and, more specifically, genius. This understanding was formed around the turn of the century with the introduction of tests designed to measure intelligence. Individuals who scored high on the scale were considered geniuses. The use of intelligence tests as the determinant of giftedness has been criticized in recent years because tests are often biased in favor of the white middle class and because they penalize children with differing linguistic styles. Researchers have adapted a broader set of definitions beyond intellectual ability, including creativity, memory, motivation, physical dexterity, social adeptness, and aesthetic sensitivity. When approaching the study of giftedness and gifted education, an examination of the problems related to gifted individuals is also in order.

Education was not organized in a systematic way until 1840–1850. In the early 1900s, the general public became interested in adapting education to individuals with more or less than average abilities. Alfred Binet was commissioned to develop a test to measure an individual’s “judgment” or “mental age” to screen out children who would not benefit from a general education. His overall concept revolved around the notion that intelligence is educable—that it can be learned, expanded, and improved. In 1916, Lewis Terman took Binet’s test to Stanford University to standardize it. Terman used the Stanford-Binet test to identify gifted children, and during the 1920s identified over 1,500 children with IQs of 140 or higher. In the general public, the average IQ is 100. Terman’s subjects averaged an IQ of 150.

Terman was the first to use the term gifted for people who were highly productive, well rounded, well liked, and often chosen as leaders. It is often difficult to determine who is gifted because the definition means different things to different people. In 1972, the Maryland Report contained a definition of giftedness that has been and continues to be one of the most widely adopted definitions by state and local education agencies. The report states that gifted and talented children are those identified by professionally qualified persons who, by virtue of outstanding abilities, are capable of high performance. These children require differential educational programs and/or services beyond those provided by the regular school program in order to realize their contribution to self and society. Other definitions of giftedness are listed below.

- Lewis Terman: The top 1% level in general intelligence ability as measured by the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale or a comparable instrument are gifted.
- Paul Witty: There are children whose outstanding potentialities in art, in writing, or in social leadership can be recognized largely by their performance. Hence we have recommended that the definition of giftedness be expanded, and that we consider any child gifted whose performance in a potentially valuable line of human activity is considered remarkable.
- Joseph Renzulli: Giftedness consists of an interaction among three basic clusters of human traits, these clusters being above average general abilities, high levels of task commitment, and high levels of creativity. Gifted and talented are those who possess or are capable of developing this composite of traits and applying them to any potentially valuable area of human performance.
- John C. Gowan: Gifted means having the potential to be verbally creative, while talented means having the potential to be nonverbally creative.
- Howard Gardner: Belief that there are seven human intelligences:
  - Linguistic: often thinks in words, likes to read and write, learns best by verbalizing or hearing and seeing words
  - Musical: likes to sing or hum along to music, appreciates music, may play a musical instrument, remembers song melodies
  - Logical-Mathematical: thinks conceptually, manipulates the environment in a controlled and orderly way, likes brain teasers, logical puzzles, strategy games, enjoys computers
  - Spatial: thinks in images and pictures, spends time drawing, designing things, using construction toys, is fascinated with machines
  - Bodily-Kinesthetic: has athletic abilities or dancing skills, may be good at typing, sewing, or carving
  - Interpersonal: understands people, is a leader, is good at mediating when his or her friends have conflicts
  - Intrapersonal: is deeply aware of his or her own feelings, dreams, and ideas, studies independently, may “march to the beat of a different drummer”
The Maryland Report identified children capable of high performance to include demonstrated achievement and/or potential in any of the following areas singly or in combination: general intellectual ability, specific academic aptitude, creative or productive thinking, leadership ability, visual or performing arts, and psychomotor ability.

Using a broad definition of giftedness, a school system could expect to identify 10% to 15% or more of its student population as gifted and talented. A brief description of giftedness or talented defined by the Office of Gifted and Talented clarifies this definition:

- **General intellectual ability or talent.** Laypersons and educators alike usually define this in terms of a high intelligence test score—usually two standard deviations above the mean—on individual or group measures. Parents and teachers often recognize students with general intellectual talent by their wide-ranging fund of general information and high levels of vocabulary, memory, abstract word knowledge, and abstract reasoning.

- **Specific academic aptitude or talent.** Students with specific academic aptitudes are identified by their outstanding performance on an achievement or aptitude test in one area such as mathematics or language arts. The organizers of talent searches sponsored by a number of universities and colleges identify students with specific academic aptitude who score at the 97th percentile or higher on standard achievement tests and then give these students the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT).

- **Creative and productive thinking.** This is the ability to produce new ideas by bringing together elements usually thought of as independent or dissimilar and the aptitude for developing new meanings that have social value. Characteristics of creative and productive students include openness to experience, setting personal standards for evaluation, ability to play with ideas, willingness to take risks, preference for complexity, tolerance for ambiguity, positive self-image, and the ability to become submerged in a task. Creative and productive students are identified through the use of tests such as the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking or through demonstrated creative performance.

- **Leadership ability.** Leadership can be defined as the ability to direct individuals or groups to a common decision or action. Students who demonstrate giftedness in leadership ability use group skills and negotiate in difficult situations. Many teachers recognize leadership through a student’s keen interest and skill in problem solving. Leadership characteristics include self-confidence, responsibility, cooperation, a tendency to dominate, and the ability to adapt readily to new situations. These students can be identified through instruments such as the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Behavior test.

- **Visual and performing arts.** Gifted students with talent in the arts demonstrate talents in visual art, music, dance, drama, or other related studies. Using task descriptions such as the Creative Products Scales, which were developed for the Detroit Public Schools by Patrick Byrons and Beverly Ness of Wayne State University, can identify these students.

- **Psychomotor ability.** This involves kinesthetic motor abilities such as practical, spatial, mechanical, and physical skills. It is seldom used as a criterion in gifted programs.

No one child manifests all the attributes described by researchers and the Office of Gifted and Talented. Nevertheless, it is important for educators and parents to be fully aware of the ways in which giftedness can be recognized. Often, certain behaviors such as constantly having unique solutions to problems, asking endless, probing questions, or even masterful manipulation of others are seen as unnatural or unlike other children. Therefore, it is the recommendation of researchers to study the characteristics of gifted children with an open mind.

Educational authorities have assembled several factors as being indicative of giftedness. Obviously, no child is outstanding in all characteristics: (a) shows superior reasoning powers and marked ability to handle ideas; can generalize readily from specific facts and can see subtle relationships; has outstanding problem-solving ability; (b) shows persistent intellectual curiosity; asks searching questions; shows exceptional interest in the nature of man and the universe; (c) has a wide range of interests, often of an intellectual kind; develops one or more interests to considerable depth; (d) is markedly superior in quality and quantity of written and/or spoken vocabulary; is interested the subtleties of words and their uses; (e) reads avidly and absorbs books well beyond his or her years; (f) learns quickly and easily and retains what is learned; recalls important details, concepts, and principles; comprehends readily; (g) shows insight into arithmetical problems that require careful reasoning and grasps mathematical concepts readily; (h) shows creative ability or imaginative expression in such things as music, art, dance, drama; shows sensitivity and finesse in rhythm, movement, and bodily control; (i) sustains concentration for
lengthy periods and shows outstanding responsibility and independence in classroom work; (j) sets realistically high standards for self; is self-critical in evaluating and correcting his or her own efforts; (k) shows initiative and originality in intellectual work; shows flexibility in thinking and considers problems from a number of viewpoints; (l) observes keenly and is responsive to new ideas; (m) shows social poise and an ability to communicate with adults in a mature way; and (n) gets excitement and pleasure from intellectual challenge; shows an alert and subtle sense of humor.

Students that have been identified as gifted are found in full-time self-contained classrooms, magnet schools, pull-out programs, resource rooms, regular classrooms, and every combination of these settings. No matter where they obtain their education, gifted and talented students need an appropriately differentiated curriculum designed to address individual characteristics, needs, abilities, and interests.

An effective curriculum for students who are gifted is essentially a basic curriculum that has been modified to meet their needs. The unique characteristics of these students must serve as the basis for decisions on how the curriculum should be modified. It is difficult to generalize about students who are gifted, because their characteristics and needs are so personal and unique. However, as a group they comprehend complex ideas quickly, learn more rapidly and in greater depth than their age peers, and may exhibit interests that differ from those of their peers. They need time for in-depth exploration, they manipulate ideas and draw generalizations about seemingly unconnected concepts, and they ask provocative questions. A program that builds on these characteristics results from appropriate modification of content, process, environment, and product.

Content consists of ideas, concepts, descriptive information, and facts. Content, as well as learning experiences, can be modified through acceleration, compacting, variety, reorganization, flexible pacing, and the use of more advanced concepts, abstractions, and materials. When possible, students should be encouraged to move through content areas at their own pace. If they master a particular unit, they need to be provided with more advanced learning activities, not more of the same activity.

To modify process, activities must be restructured to be more intellectually challenging. Activity selection should be based on student interests, and activities should be used in ways that encourage self-directed learning. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in 1956 offers the most common approach to process modification. Every teacher should know a variety of ways to stimulate and encourage higher-level thinking skills. Group interaction and simulations, flexible pacing, and guided self-management are a few of the methods for managing class activities that support process modification.

Gifted students learn best in a receptive, nonjudgmental, student-centered environment that encourages inquiry and independence, includes a variety of materials, provides some physical movement, is generally complex, and connects the school experience with the greater world. Although all students might appreciate such an environment, for students who are gifted it is essential that the teacher establishes a climate that encourages them to question, exercise independence, and use their creativity in order to be all that they can be.

Teachers can encourage students to demonstrate what they have learned in a wide variety of forms that reflect both knowledge and the ability to manipulate ideas. Products can be consistent with each student’s preferred learning style. They should address real problems, concerns, and audiences, synthesize rather than summarize information, and include a self-evaluation process.

The curriculum committee of the Leadership Training Institute developed seven guiding principles for curriculum differentiation that reflect the considerations of gift students: (1) the content of curricula for gifted students should focus on and be organized to include more elaborate, complex, and in-depth study of major ideas, problems, and themes that integrate knowledge within and across systems of thoughts, (2) curricula for gifted students should allow for the development and application of productive thinking skills to enable students to reconceptualize existing knowledge and/or generate new knowledge, (3) curricula for gifted students should enable them to explore constantly changing knowledge and information and develop the attitude that knowledge is worth pursuing in an open world, (4) curricula for gifted students should encourage exposure to, selection of, and use of appropriate and specialized resources, (5) curricula for gifted students should promote self-initiated and self-directed learning and growth, (6) curricula for gifted students should provide for the development of self-understanding and the understanding of one’s relationship to persons, societal institutions, nature, and culture, and (7) evaluations of curricula for gifted students should be conducted in accordance with the
previously stated principles, stressing higher-level thinking skills, creativity, and excellence in performance and products.

Due to the wide range of abilities and talents in gifted children, there are a number of tests available to measure the level of giftedness. Practically speaking, much of the identification of gifted children is done by classroom teachers. This assessment may be done by observations of classroom behavior or on group achievement tests. Solely relying on teacher assessment overlooks many gifted children. Several studies have found that teacher nominations correctly identify less than half of students later found to be gifted. About 10% of the students identified by teachers as being intellectually gifted were not. In addition, as many as 25% are missed by teacher nomination.

Another common approach to identifying gifted children is group tests. Usually these are tests of achievement but are often used by schools as measures of intelligence. School administrators sometimes assume that children scoring in the 90th percentile are intellectually gifted. Such an assumption is often not true. Group tests of intelligence often have the same limitations as group achievement tests. There is often a discrepancy between group test scores and individual intelligence scores, which increases as the child’s level of intelligence approaches the upper extreme.

In an effort to gain the most accurate measure of giftedness, multiple measures should be used. This often includes individual intellectual and achievement evaluations by a qualified school psychologist. Testing may be necessary to gain more information or develop a baseline of the child’s current functioning. Individual testing has special benefits. Because it is standardized, testing gives a benchmark that allows a child’s abilities and mental capacities to be compared with others of similar age.

The Renzulli Model for Giftedness Identification involves three elements in the identification of gifted children: above average ability, high task commitment, and high creativity. A child is identified as gifted when these three elements significantly overlap. According to the Renzulli Model, superior ability itself is not enough for identifying gifted children. There must also be motivation to use that ability, and it must be expressed in creative ways or to an unusual degree. Since this model emphasizes demonstrated achievement of classroom material, it is also important to recognize that not all children learn in the same fashion or have the same “kind” of intelligence. Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligences should also be incorporated when testing children for giftedness. In addition, sex differences need to be recognized. Through elementary school, girls generally learn better if materials are presented verbally; boys if materials are presented graphically or visually. Minority children are more difficult as well because the language they often are used to is different from that traditionally used in schools. The most often used individual (rather than group) intelligence tests for children are the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R) for age 6 and up and the Wechsler Pre-School and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI) for ages 4 through 6. They measure verbal aspects of intelligence (Verbal IQ) separated from visual-spatial intelligence (Performance IQ). This corresponds to some degree with left brain and right brain functioning. In addition, each of the two general areas of the tests are composed of six separate subtests. These measure factors such as general information, verbal abstracting, visual abstraction/organization, and the ability to use symbols.

The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale is also frequently used for children’s testing. Although this test does not have separate Verbal and Performance IQ scores, it has the potential advantage of having a higher ceiling score, particularly in children age 6 or younger.

Gifted children are often faced with a separate set of problems as well. Gifted children often feel “different” or isolated from peers their own age. If the gifted child feels like a failure socially, he or she may give up and focus only on mental abilities. Most gifted children are extremely sensitive or hypersensitive, making them especially vulnerable. Concerns about the environment, social justice, and other inequities in the world challenge the gifted child to search for meaning. These children may see the world as a frightening place and may act immature at times. Gifted children often have a heightened sense of perfectionism, attempting to achieve an ideal version of success. Since some children think they have to be perfect, they don’t try new experiences, thus explaining some cases of underachieving.

There are several signs that school personnel should be aware of that may lead to more serious problems. Danger signs include self-imposed isolation, extreme perfectionism, deep concerns with personal powerlessness, unusual fascination with violence, eating disorders, substance abuse, preoccupation with self, withdrawal into a fantasy world, rigid compulsive behavior, and preoccupation with death.
Students exhibiting these signs would benefit from sessions with a psychologist or school counselor. Studies have found that gifted students may need more than the usual amount of guidance to achieve and maintain a good sense of mental health.

—Carolyn Stevenson

See also Binet, Alfred; brain research and practice; curriculum, theories of; equality, in schools; individual differences, in children; intelligence; No Child Left Behind; personality; Piaget, Jean; testing and test theory development

Further Readings and References


GLOBAL CULTURAL POLITICS

Global cultural politics is the tensions created within and across cultures of nation-states, created primarily by the effect of a politics of difference. Relatedly, a politics of recognition surfaces as a defining element of global cultural politics, that is, as nation-states struggle for national and/or cultural identity as a nation-state, amidst the shifting of global boundaries and political alliances, political tensions emerge in response.

Global cultural politics is characterized by the struggle implied in the concept of the governing of culture. By this term is meant the struggle over the control, regulation, and distribution of resources that mediate the range of capacities and possibilities that enable individuals and social groups to choose, inhabit, and transform particular notions of identity, desire, and agency. Cultural politics is in part about the regulation and distribution of resources. But our capacity to think about politics is also mediated by the ways in which culture actually governs; the ways in which it actually shapes our conduct, social action, and human practices; and concomitantly the way people act within institutions and in the larger society.

Global cultural politics, as an evolution of a politics of difference, may be further explicated through culture, which enables a critical reading of the world from a position of agency, although within unequal relations of power. Global changes in the past two decades, for example, in the Middle East, Europe, Third World developing nations, and so on, have contributed to the politics of diaspora, immigration, identity politics, multiculturalism, and postcolonialism. It is helpful to conceptualize the world, and its many nation-states, in terms of “political space.” Space in this sense is where the tensions of a culture play out in patterns of human activity. Cultural space is the effect produced by the actions of individuals within the culture that orient it, situate it, temporalize it, and make it function in a polyvalent unity of conflictual patterns or negotiated boundaries. Within and across nation-states, culture, which is socially produced as both precondition and the outcome of social action, is made political as different actions are accepted and others are prohibited. Culture is made political space as patterns are shifted or boundaries violated, either by forces internal or external to the culture, which sets in motion political tensions. Political space may be either national or global. Discourses, policies (national or international), and political ideologies (i.e., neoliberalism, liberal democracy, globalism) each contribute to a “politics of difference,” which is a defining hallmark of cultural politics in general and global cultural politics in particular. Contemporary global cultural politics is part of the ever-increasing process of extending abstract space into all spheres of human life. Globalization represents a “re-scaling” of social relations. Spatial practices within and across nation-states that create political tensions are a function, in large part, of globalization.

As a primary force in global cultural politics, the progression of globalization is expressed in economic as well as social and cultural realms. Globalization has affected nationalism as well as the evolution of the political and cultural integrity of the nation-state. It challenges established notions of legitimacy of national identity in part because it represents an altered conception of the content and boundaries of spatial politics. Three additional factors are important in understanding globalization in relation to global cultural politics. First is the trend to the universalization of national citizenship and participation in governance,
civil affairs, education, labor markets, and consumption, including the participation of formerly excluded minorities. Second, there has been an increase in governmental sophistication, so that state effects are secured not so much by the volume of fiscal outlays and of direct production in the public sector as through civil institutions and through the shaping of individual behavior. Third is the rise of market liberal forms of government, including the partial deregulation of global finance and consequent constraints on national fiscal policies, contributing to an erosion of a universal welfare provision and an increase in unemployment and income disparities.

Most important, in response to globalization, the essential nature of the nation-state has evolved, creating significant shifts in human identities and loyalties. Citizenship and nationality no longer suffice to define who “we” are or where “our” loyalties lie, and “sovereign” borders no longer constitute the sole, or even the main, indication of who is “inside” or “outside” the boundaries of civic and moral obligation. Competing identities draw boundaries between communities of Sameness and communities of Otherness. Where identities and resulting boundaries reinforce each other, as do race and class in the United States, conflict potential is greater; where they crosscut, conflict potential is reduced. And as identity hierarchies evolve, some boundaries harden and others soften, even as new boundaries become visible. The result is the evolution of a politics of difference, of which identity politics has surfaced as a primary factor in global cultural politics and in concert with globalization and the remaking of nation-states under the auspices of a global cultural identity.

The nation-state, within an increasing globalization, is the chief battleground of cultural politics, and in particular identity politics. The nation-state is the place where “culturalism” (the formal fashioning of identities) takes place, while political reactions against globalization are mostly expressed against those state programs that are seen to have fostered multiple identity and extranational influence and against the media, seen as fused with a political establishment whose loyalties to singular national identity are in question. In this sense, cultural politics—the politics of difference and identity—are displayed in the contradiction between the premise that each nation-state can actually respect merely one ethos and the concomitant reality that nearly all nation-states historically invoke the amalgamation of many identities.

Global cultural politics resides in, and is imprinted by, the historical and cultural origins of a people, or a nation. In this context, culture may be understood as constitutive of agency(ies) and politics because it provides the resources through which individuals learn how to relate to themselves, others, and the work around them. Culture represents a site of production and contestation over power in political space. Specifically, it is the social field where power evolves, but in altered form or quality, where identities are in transit, and where agency is often located where it is least acknowledged. Agency, in the sense of global cultural politics, is not static; rather it is subject to negotiation/renegotiation. It is the interconnecting of capacities to the ability of people to intervene in and change social forms, either within a cultural group or on a larger scale such as a nation. How individuals or cultural groups deal with the place of cultural politics remains essential to any viable notion of politics concerned with how individuals and social groups analyze and struggle to transform those existing social, economic, and educational forces that maintain dominant relations of power.

Globalization, as a contributing factor to global cultural politics, has been defined as the worldwide social relations that link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by those events. The process of globalization is seen as blurring national boundaries, shifting solidarities within and between nation-states, and deeply affecting the constitutions of national and interest-group identities. What is new is not so much its form as its scale. Globalization dynamics are observable in a variety of ways. One of them is the increasing internationalization of production and trade.

Globalization is not only expressed in the economic arena but also in cultural and political realms. The parameters within which nations operate are radically changing. Whereas nation-states in the twentieth century had the capacity to control markets, promote economic growth, and keep social inequality to some extent in check, with increasing globalization of the economy this capacity has been eroded. Whereas governments decided how to use markets to benefit their citizens, they have become increasingly beholden to market forces. Global markets now define the limits of local and national politics. Globalization is redefine the role of the nation-state as an effective manager of economic and social relations.

Globalization, in the legal sense as well as in economic and technological terms, combined with other factors, represents a profound challenge to the national identity, and intensifies tensions that contribute to global cultural politics. Several factors of globalization
have significantly affected states. Factors affecting states may be viewed in three categories. First, these factors include the way processes of economic, political, legal, and military interconnectedness are changing the state from above, as its “regulatory” ability is challenged and reduced in some spheres. Second, these factors include the way local groups, movements, and nationalisms are questioning the nation-state from below as a representative and accountable power system. Third, these factors include the way global interconnectedness creates chains of interlocking political decisions and outcomes among states and their citizens, altering the nature and dynamics of national political systems themselves.

Global cultural politics manifests itself in claims for secession, autonomy, self-government, and federalism for national groups and in claims for polyethnic rights for immigrants and refugees. The problems of multiculturalism (and multinationalism) extend beyond the question of multiple rights-based claims and relate to the complex notions of recognition and nonrecognition.

Global cultural politics is further explained by the struggle of people actively seeking recognition for their particular culture, history, language, and identity. Nation building can be forged “from above” by elites or “from below” by social movements or other organized action. In both cases, nation building can be seen as a struggle for recognition, to ensure that a particular national community is recognized by the world around it and by those who see themselves as, or through, the political tensions of which they are a part. Applied to Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and the United States, such a process would draw on the uniqueness of the respective experiences, in terms of history, culture, and language, to create a unique national identity. The quest for internal cultural unity would be pursued in conjunction with a similar quest for delineating the unique features of Europe, Asia, or the Middle East, for example, so as to distinguish between Europeans in relation to non-Europeans or “the others.”

The politics of globalization, of a global cultural identity, is animated by the tensions of attempting to supplement or transform national identities. Such a consideration, that of a postnational identity, requires attention to the possibility that the contemporary context of identity formation may be quite different from that which existed at the time when the notion of national identity first emerged within and across nations representative of Europe, Asia, or the Middle East.

Global cultural politics are further intensified as cultures and societies are becoming increasingly tightly linked and interconnected and as societies become increasingly multicultural. These developments bring forth a heightened concern with identity, both regarding recognition of uniqueness as well as recognition of equality and of equal value. Nations, regions, groups (intra- and transnational), and individuals seek recognition of their unique identity. Struggles for recognition of uniqueness are labelled politics of difference. Politics of difference applies to group-based differences based on gender, sex, race, ethnicity, language, and not the least, nationality. The efforts by groups and collectives to protect and promote their difference and uniqueness must contend with the efforts by individuals and groups and collectives to ensure the recognition of equal rights and equal dignity of every individual being. The struggle for recognition or the politics of recognition becomes, increasingly, a defining characteristic of global cultural politics.

The interdisciplinary and rapidly growing body of literature on recognition and identity politics deals with the question of how different cultures can manage to live together and how it is possible to reconcile a multiplicity of different identity-based claims for difference with a common sense of community and identity. These concerns are highly relevant when considering the extension of political space beyond the boundaries of a nation-state, for example, as European nations work to create the European Union.

An example that further develops the notion of global cultural politics is that of liberal democracy, which has long been seen as a vital means of fostering the sense of commonality upon which modern societies can be built. Although such societies have developed deeply entrenched democratic regimes, they are still marked by deep tensions. The press of liberal democracy has prompted a politics of equal recognition, which has taken various forms and has now returned in the form of demands for the equal status of cultures and of genders. Instructive to understanding global cultural politics is the politics of recognition, initially based on equality and a heightened emphasis on the individual, or an individualized identity. It was associated with a notion of individual dignity that conceived of democracy in a universalist and egalitarian manner. This focus on the individual has served to strengthen the ideal of “authenticity,” which referred to being true to oneself and to search for a moral voice from within. C. Taylor argues that in recent years, the moral voice has been redirected and perhaps even become more silent. The modern sense of dislocation and atomization has greatly increased the need for recognition and contributed to identity
politics, both within a particular culture or nation as well as across cultures and nations.

The politics of recognition has increasingly taken on a group-based nature, and includes demands for recognition by social and ethnic groups, and not the least by nations. One particularly important, albeit controversial, claim is that each culture—in the case of global cultural politics, the culture of a nation-state—is unique and of equal value. There are two important discernible effects with respect to these claims. The first has been to produce a conflict between the politics of equal dignity and the politics of difference. The second has been to produce heightened tension between various claims for protection of difference or uniqueness. Here there is a tension between difference in terms of uniqueness versus difference as equally valuable, that is, that each culture is equally valuable. With respect to the politics of recognition—that is, identity politics—national identity has become a point of tension as globalization progresses.

Cultural politics—making space political—is animated by the politics of difference, which highlights the role and salience of groups in the shaping of political identities. It challenges established notions of legitimacy in part because it represents an altered conception of the content and boundaries of politics. Understanding the global nature of cultural politics entails a greatly strengthened attention to cultural aspects and the role of societal cultures and other group-based affiliations in shaping identities. It also requires understanding that as a community, the nation is based on a form of solidarity, which contributes to national identity.

—Patrick M. Jenlink

See also boundaries of systems; critical theory; cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; cultural politics, wars; economics, theories of; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; ethnography; globalism; human capital; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; organizational theories; politics, of education; recognition theory/identity politics; social capital; social context; social relations, dimensions of; terrorism.

Further Readings and References


GLOBALISM

Globalism, one of the highly debated subjects for which countless books and articles have been written, is proven the most difficult concept to define, as it involves a range of political, ideological, and ethical issues that spans the globe. One definition of globalism involves the idea that the whole world is the appropriate sphere for a state’s political interests. Globalism differs from globalization, which refers to the increasing integration of economies and societies of the world. Although the two are completely intertwined and are used interchangeably, the scope of globalism is expanded to include education.

Globalism is generally seen as a worldwide movement toward free market economies, where individual states are not bounded when trying to exert influence in the global arena, even though they have boundaries. During this process, globalism has changed the context in which education operates in terms of the requirement of information and learning, curriculum, function, and
structure. It is clearer when we look at T. Friedman’s globalization theory, which revolves around a “6-D” approach outlined as including international trade theory, international economics, international finance, and international marketing to international politics, culture, and national security, and then adding technology and environmental issues to the mix in an attempt to formulate an educated understanding of globalization (globalism). Given the increasing economics of globalization, education systems in countries are reshaped by incorporating the changes in the global economy and by creating new strategies for achieving competitive advantage. It is apparent that the U.S. educational system has been compared internationally in terms of math, science, standards, and testing to be competitive with special emphasis on the information technology and delivery systems.

Globalism also shaped the delivery system under the market approach to achieve the lowest cost, to create more efficient systems, which involved huge corporate interest, as the education market represents billions of revenues. Virtual universities (online education) have been created in addition to transnational education that involves educational activities in other countries. Traditional universities have branch campuses where foreign students are taught in their countries. Distance education programs involve satellites, the Internet, and other technological aids in instructional activities among countries. Moreover, corporate programs and franchising have been increasing in delivering teaching and learning across national borders.

Another area where globalism has affected the education system is the involvement of world organizations (e.g., World Bank) and international agreements and regional organizations such as the North American Free Trade Agreement. These interconnections and interrelationships show every sign of increasing in the twenty-first century.

—Orhan Kara, Ibrahim Duyar, and Fathollah Bagheri

See also boundaries of systems; cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; economics, theories of; ethnocentrism; global cultural politics; market theory of schooling; multiculturalism; planning models; politics, of education; restructuring, of schools; systems theory/thinking; World Bank, influence on education

Further Readings and References


GOALS, GOAL SETTING

Goals correspond to future tasks and results to be achieved in an organizational system. The task of setting goals is derived primarily from a management or business discipline. When applied to the field of education, it is recommended that goals be established at all levels of the school organization so as to provide direction for all school participants. Goals can be considered the links that move the school forward toward a unified direction. State departments of education and school boards expect school leaders to develop goals for a school or district. School leaders and administrators are expected to take the lead in setting goals over the long range and short range to meet the diverse needs of school stakeholders, such as students, teachers, staff, and interested members of the school community. The communication of goals should permeate the entire school and community. It is recommended that school stakeholders participate in goal formation or goal setting so that there is understanding regarding the purpose of the school organization and what it should be achieving over the long run and the short run. As schools change, the extent to which school stakeholders agree with goals should be assessed.

Goal setting is a valuable management tool and an integral part of the leadership process within the school organization. The development or setting of goals derives from classical or scientific management principles. Within the disciplines of business or management, goal setting is usually an integral part of the planning function but is often closely linked to other management functions, particularly the evaluating function. For example, once goals are decided upon, they are then tied to an evaluation par or standard in order to assess whether the goals of the organization are actually being achieved and carried out by organizational members. Management theorists posit that goals can keep employees, groups, and teams focused and facilitate activity if they are tied to performance standards within the organization. In the field
of education, values and beliefs are embedded in the process of setting goals. It is believed that in order for the individual to identify with the school organization, professional values and beliefs are expected to be intertwined with the goals of the organization.

From 1979 through the 1990s, basic business management goal-setting theory has been advanced through the work of Gary Latham and Edwin Locke. The researchers have consistently demonstrated that specific, challenging goals result in higher performance levels than having no goals or goals that are mediocre. According to the researchers, goals need to be specific, matched to the ability of the individual performing the goal, accepted by the individual, and accompanied by continuous feedback. Thomas J. Sergiovanni, however, maintains that schools are not business or corporate entities. They are loosely structured systems, and because of this, schools should not have specific or concrete goals. Instead, Sergiovanni recommends that schools have symbols that are tied to broad school goals, such as broad mission statements or goal statements like individual educational platforms or covenants of shared values among members of the school community.

USES OF GOALS AND GOAL SETTING

There are many uses for setting goals, such as developing strategy for the school organization, designing the mission of the school, developing an educational vision, motivating a school’s employees, and evaluating student and teacher performance. Within the planning function of management, long-range goals focus on the overall mission or strategy for the school, while short-range goals focus on objectives to be achieved within a shorter duration of time. Objectives may be considered the steps to a school’s long-range goals. When setting goals, it is recommended that they be clearly defined, realistic, achievable, observable, and measurable. Goals may focus on performance and task delivery in regard to quantity, quality, speed, and service. It is recommended that when developing goals, school leaders provide stakeholders with the information they need toward meeting long-range and short-range goals.

The long-range use of goal setting includes developing an overall strategy and mission for achieving results within the school organization. Strategy defines the mission and is linked to objectives. The mission guides the organization over a longer period of time, such as 3 to 5 years. It is recommended that the mission be continuously communicated to all stakeholders. Organizations outgrow their mission when new people join the organization or when circumstances change over the years. Operating objectives, which are more current and usually updated and revised each year, should be consistent with the organization’s strategy and mission. Objectives should permeate every level within the organization and should be linked to the performance of students and teachers. Student performance includes goals associated with national- and state-standards-based movements. Teacher performance includes goals that are linked to supervisory observational classroom visits, performance appraisals, and reward/salary policies. When linking goals to performance, it is especially useful to establish a par or standard early on so progress can be assessed and the proper feedback provided. When tied to standards, goals are measured and form the basis for setting up new goals for the following year and succeeding years. As conditions change, goals should be updated and revised.

IMPORTANCE OF GOALS AND GOAL SETTING

Goals and goal setting are important components of the management or leadership process of a school because they can define the school’s purpose and provide direction for all of a school’s stakeholders. Schools have multiple goals and objectives that are linked to long-range and short-range tasks, activities, results, and performance. It is important that feedback, communication, interaction, and participation among all affected stakeholders be part of the goal-setting process.

—Patricia Ann Marcellino

See also management by objectives; merit pay; performance assessment; performance evaluation systems; rational organizational theory; scientific management; standard setting; strategic planning

Further Readings and References


GOVERNANCE

Governance refers to the general exercise of authority within a system of control and accountability. Governing involves formal processes or procedures of control and communication, as well as informal processes or norms, intentional or not. Governance requires understanding the factors that shape the exercise and direction of this authority, including (a) the structures as well as the ensuing roles and relationships among actors and institutions, (b) the official processes and institutional norms that regulate behavior, and (c) the values and desired ends sought after by the system. Whether from its structure or its processes, from unofficial or authorized influence, researchers have studied governance from various vantage points, but each with an eye to understanding how educational organizations and systems should be and are directed and regulated.

The concept of governance has been approached in a variety of ways. At times, it has been studied through its formal structures and actors, examining the “proper” role and relationships among important policymakers. For instance, opponents of national tests argue that such tests usurp state and local control. Struggles over the proper role for various educational actors also occur at the local level. Current efforts seek to limit the role of school boards to setting policy and to leave policy implementation to superintendents and their staffs. Critical institutions and actors in education exist at multiple levels and assume multiple roles in the system. Governments authorize public schools. Taxpayers, foundations, communities, and businesses fund public schools. Teachers, administrators, and other district and school staff provide services and operate schools. Finally, parents, students, communities, and businesses receive the benefits (or lack thereof) of the educational opportunities provided in schools. Among these various actors, institutions, and levels, various arguments have been made for one or another of these groups to take precedence in governing schools. For instance, while reformers of the progressive era argued that professional managers (superintendents) using modern business techniques (scientific management) should manage schools, recent reformers sought to enhance the role of parents and school-site teachers in the daily operation of schools through shared decision making and site-based management reforms.

THE PROCESS OF GOVERNING

The process of governing involves the setting of roles and responsibilities and hence the relationship of various actors to each other. The issues focused on the process of “steering” a system or school involves issues of coordination and management of different actors in order to attain the desired ends. This process involves making policies, setting objectives, and using authority within an organization, agency, or institution. During the years when public schooling was expanding, bureaucratic management strategies, supported by ideas of scientific management, led to specialized tasks and jobs, the need for specialized training, and the use of rules and procedures to assess and address problems. Despite and in part because of the unresponsive nature of bureaucratic structures, other actors in the process—parents, community members, and even teachers—used school boards and other elected bodies to voice complaints and concerns. When parent and community values clashed with school curriculum or when teachers formed unions to secure fair wages and working conditions, interest and advocacy group politics put a different set of pressures on the informal influences that shape decision-making processes. For instance, union contracts have lingering effects that extend beyond a contract’s expiration and live on in the newly established norms of behavior set up among teachers and administrators. When conflicts could not be resolved through the bureaucratic or political processes, some groups asked the courts to adjudicate their concerns. Court rulings, such as Brown v. Board of Education and Zellman v. Simmons-Harris, provide striking examples of how judicial rulings reshape the governance landscape, changing the possible distribution and coordination of resources and the influential actors that could sit at the decision-making table. Whether due to advances in organizational management, contract negotiations, or court rulings, the more fixed these features in governance become, the more complex the governance structure and the more difficult to change or alter significantly.

WHAT KINDS OF ENDS?

Who governs and how is also shaped by the set of valued ends sought. During different periods of time, different demands have been made of the public schools. From the late 1880s to the early 1900s, waves of immigration made socialization and assimilation of
new immigrants a national priority. More recently, proponents of multicultural education argue that schools should proactively affirm racial, linguistic, or other diversity, and pushed for the development of new curriculum and new offices within district offices dedicated to this mission. Even current efforts to defend voucher plans must address the potential for “religious strife.” One of the recurrent tasks of public education has been to address the tensions of unity and diversity, with a focus on preparing students to be citizens in an increasingly diverse society. The public has also turned to schools to provide equal opportunities for students. Desegregation and detracking policies seek to ensure the fair distribution and access to learning opportunities for students. In doing so, such reforms cause changes in who governs schools, shifting control from superintendents or local communities to court magistrates, or from individual teachers to schoolwide administrative policies. Ensuring quality education and high academic achievement has been another enduring concern for public education. In response to concerns about national security, or ensuring the place of the United States in the new global economic marketplace, the public has turned to public education as both the cause and solution to these challenges. Current concerns with low performance have resulted in higher standards along with test-based accountability with high-stakes consequences for students, teachers, and administrators. The authority of educational professionals on the school level becomes constrained by external actors such as state governments, testing publishers, and national reform groups. As these valued ends float in and out of focus, various structures, processes, and actors also come forward or fall back in the governance landscape.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING VARIOUS GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

Changes in who should govern or how can be traced back to ideal characteristics of “good” governance models. The qualities of good governance include access (voice, participation, consensus-orientation), responsiveness, transparency, predictability and accountability, effectiveness and efficiency, equity and excellence. For instance, transparency in decision making becomes important when fears about corruption exist, while responsiveness becomes an issue when established structures and procedures do not reflect local needs. Various arguments are put forward to justify different models of governance and to provide different answers about how to ensure the characteristics of good governance. One set of arguments emphasizes the political foundation of educational governance and the public’s right to influence the direction of educational policy. Constitutional law and democratic traditions shape our notion of public rights and responsibilities. Authorized and funded by the public, public education is subject to “control” by the people via elected representatives, such as school board members, state representatives, or U.S. senators. Modifications, such as district as compared to at-large election of school boards, were proposed to ensure fair and adequate representation. School-site election of parents and community members, as in the case of Chicago school reforms, sought to ensure the voice and participation of those with a strong vested interest in the outcomes of education (e.g., educated students and future workers). Vested interests would also include primary funders of public education. For instance, during the 1980s, when state funding of local education budgets grew, state governments, especially governors, became increasingly active in setting educational policy. By participating in legislative processes, interest and advocacy groups, such as teacher unions, NAACP, or conservative Christian groups, may also influence the allocation of public resources as well as seek to set the direction and implementation of educational policy. While healthy interest group politics may be more responsive or even more effective governance of public institutions in a pluralistic society, interest group politics has not always been associated with the representation of the common good. Negative outcomes of interest group politics include policy stalemates or the establishment of contradictory or self-serving policies.

Scientific and professional knowledge provides a second set of principles used to support various governance models. This set of principles argues that expert knowledge and experience should guide the development of governance models. The sources of this expert knowledge and experience have been “internal,” drawn from the experiences of professional staff, and “external,” reported by researchers. For instance, while also enabling greater parent and community participation in managing schools, shared decision making also sought to capture and use teacher knowledge and
experience in operating schools. During this same period, practitioners played increasingly important roles in setting state and national policies and in developing standards for teaching as a profession. These examples stand in contrast to “scientific management” strategies of the progressive era, “teacher-proof” math and science curricula during the cold war period, and current calls for “scientifically based” reform initiatives when using federal funds under the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Sometimes scientific knowledge and professional expertise are at odds with each other. For instance, district use of scientifically evaluated, scripted reading programs seeks to standardize teacher instructional behavior and replaces local and context-specific knowledge and experience of the teacher with standardized external-generated knowledge. Expert knowledge, whether from researchers or the profession, provides an important claim about who should govern and/or how, and is often contrasted with the more unseemly side of politics. For instance, during the progressive era, reformers argued that under the principles of Frederick Taylor’s scientific management, superintendents and administrators needed to be able to manage districts independently from the political whims.

Finally, and much more prevalent today, is the use of market principles to justify changes in governance structures. Market principles emphasize models of governance that seek to establish the appropriate incentives for action. Market principles, such as creating situations of competition, measuring and disseminating performance data, or creating entrepreneurial schools, create very different governance structures and relationships between actors. The current crisis in education in performance and legitimacy have called into question existing models of governance reliance on professional and governmental models of governance. Current educational reforms emphasizing test-based, high-stakes testing, wide dissemination of outcomes, parent choice to leave “failing” schools, and the creation of charter schools rely on market principles. These reforms set forth clear expectations and incentives in order to govern the behavior of students, teachers, and other actors on the educational landscape. With its focus on outcomes and consequences (for failure or success), market-based reforms ensure accountability, responsiveness, and excellence by creating systems of competition (or sanctions) and through “consumer” choice to exit a school.

CURRENT REFORMS IN EDUCATIONAL GOVERNANCE

Some current models of governance include a recent shift in urban districts to involve mayors in the governance of large urban school districts. This shift reflects an effort to displace current intransigent politics of schools, involving divisive interest-group politics, claims of scandal, and obvious turmoil among important educational actors with a single point of accountability—the mayor. In addition to being elected, the mayor commands a number of government agencies (e.g., children services) that, when better integrated with school, would improve student achievement. In addition, a mayor provides a focal point for citywide support, highlighting the importance of education to the economic goals of a city. While at one time reformers sought to separate school administration from city politics, today’s reformers argue that mayoral control will enhance and refocus schools on their educational mission. City employees, rather than school district employees, manage district budgets. Superintendents become members of the mayor’s cabinet and less responsible to elected school boards. Business community members hold increased sway on education issues. Mayoral takeovers of school districts shift the essential players and relationships among them, thus altering the model of governance.

More recently, examinations of governance seek to create governance models that are obviously and strongly conducive to attaining valued outcomes (i.e., learning). These advocates argue for models of governance that provide the conditions and resources needed to attain quality schools and student achievement. Like market principles, performance models seek to establish conditions that support proper incentives among relevant educational actors. For instance, governmental support for voucher, public school choice, or charter schools creates an environment of competition among schools in which resources and accolades flow to the schools most able to boost student performance and away from failing schools. States took the lead in the standards accountability movement and used their authority over public schools to establish an incentive system through regulation, threatening to “take over” or close down “bankrupt” schools or districts and reconstitute them. School districts assume a similar position in relation to schools failing to make progress on federally required state-established markers of academic success. Whether through “deregulation” of
schooling or high-stakes accountability systems, performance models of governance seek to weaken traditional professional and bureaucratic controls on schooling by emphasizing a theory of “natural consequences” based on the quality of a given school system’s educational outcomes.

While the 1980s and 1990s saw an increased role of state governments and governors in governing schools, the new decade witnesses a significant and increased role of the federal government in educational policy. The most recent reauthorized federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), has resulted in significant shifts among the actors and in the processes used to govern school systems. In line with the performance-oriented models of governance, NCLB requires states receiving federal funds to establish test-based, high-stakes accountability systems for all schools. While the inability to meet benchmarked performance standards would initially result in additional support, failing schools faced sanctions and the possible loss of students, as parents were allowed to send their children to other schools. As this compensatory education funding represented significant proportions of local education budgets, the federal government was able to use this funding as a lever for broad policy shifts. This new and significant federal role appears as a capstone to the more than decade long national interest in education since the publication of A Nation at Risk.

Current reforms in governance reveal a common distaste for politics, bureaucracy, and professional knowledge and place great hope in market strategies and bringing in new players to govern our educational systems. If history is any guide, however, we are likely to see shifts again.

—Jennifer Gong

See also accountability; boards of education; Chicago school reform; decentralization/centralization controversy; desegregation, of schools; economics, theories of; Kentucky Education Reform Act; A Nation at Risk; No Child Left Behind; privatization; school districts, history and development; scientific management; site-based management; state departments of education; superintendency; voucher plans

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GRADERS, OF STUDENTS

The primary purpose of student grading and grade reporting is to communicate student achievement and progress in learning. Student grades have two purposes: to give information and to serve as a substitute for pay. Actually, grades can serve several purposes: an administrative function, to establish a permanent record of student achievement; a guidance function, to determine strengths, weaknesses, and needed goals and skills; a communication function, to provide information to students, teachers, parents, and others; and a motivational function, as a reward or sanction.

BACKGROUND

In the days of the one-room schoolhouse, before 1850, student progress in learning was usually reported orally to parents during a home visit by the teacher. The appearance of graded schools in the late 1800s saw the introduction of simple narrative reports of skills that students had mastered and work that still needed to be done. Percentage and letter grades were first used for subject-area grading at the turn of the
twentieth century as more and larger city high schools appeared. Comparative grading and rank-in-class were first introduced in 1912 to offset the low perceived reliability of grades. Progressive educators brought back narratives and conferences in the 1930s to support individualized education. Both colleges and high schools began to experiment with such grading alternatives as pass/fail and mastery grading in the 1960s and 1970s. Traditional grading practices came under more intense scrutiny in the 1980s and beyond with increasing research on school and teacher effectiveness and student performance.

DEFINITIONS

Four key terms must be distinguished to clarify the major issues in student grading and reporting, as noted by Howard Kirschenbaum and James Bellanca in 1983:

1. Evaluating or assessing is the act of judging the merits of a student’s work. Assessment may be either norm-referenced (comparative) or criterion-referenced (explicit performance criteria), formative (in-progress) or summative (final grade or listing of skills/competencies).

2. Grading is an omnibus term in the language of norm-referenced grading that lumps formative evaluation marks, summative evaluation, and feedback into a single act. In criterion-referenced assessment, grading refers only to the act of marking student work so that the teacher may evaluate the results and redirect each student’s learning.

3. Feedback involves informing students how they are doing, which may be accomplished with or without grades. Grades are useful as feedback only if they are rewards (not punishments) and to the degree that they provide clear knowledge of how students are really doing.

4. Reporting is the formal process of communicating student achievement and progress. It may take the form of a report card, a competency checklist, a narrative, an annotated portfolio, a performance certification (exhibition), or a combination of these. The school permanent record and transcript may vary accordingly.

Well-conceived grade reporting systems exhibit five characteristics:

1. Progress in learning receives the primary emphasis—reporting focuses on individual student accomplishments and growth.

2. Information is recorded on many objectives—mastery of subject matter skills, rate of progress, motivation, study skills, citizenship, and so on.

3. Comparative data are provided, when appropriate—for purposes of planning, promotion, college recommendation, and so on.

4. Parents and the public are able to understand the system—parent-teacher conferences, newsletters, and other forms of communication are incorporated for follow-up and feedback.

5. The system is cost effective.

GRADE REPORTING SYSTEMS

Most schools still use relative (norm-referenced) grading with the normal curve and the achievement of other students as the standards of comparison. Schools committed to personalization, differentiation, or individualization more often adopt an absolute or criterion-referenced approach to grading, with predefined and well-publicized standards of performance. In practice, most grade reporting systems are eclectic, combining two or more practices. The trend historically has been to move from discrete measures like percentages to scales with larger and fewer categories. The following are the most widely used systems:

- **Percentages (100-point scale).** Percentages offer the most categories available in a grading scale, ranging from 0 to 100. Percentages are still widely used but more so in Canada than in the United States. They are often utilized to explain alpha grades, with legends such as A = 90–100% or 93–100%, B = 80–89% or 85–92%, and so on. Percentages assume a precision in evaluation that usually is lacking. They tend to quantify the trivial, that is, 1 percentage point separates grades. Indeed, they convey little information about learning progress and are difficult to interpret.

- **Alpha grading (5-point scale).** Alpha grading is the most commonly employed system, especially in high schools and colleges. A, B, C, D, and F are given the value of 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 grade points respectively and in some districts/schools are defined by percentages or such labels as A = Excellent, B = Good, and so on. The categories are fewer, but the dividing lines between the grading levels are still arbitrary. Various distributions derived from the normal curve are used for grading. Generally speaking, alpha grades are poor indicators of individual progress. Their strength lies in simplicity and administrative convenience.
• **Plus/Minus grades** are frequently awarded to extend the scope of each alpha grade. Plus (+) and minus (−) signs divide each grade into three levels signifying high, typical, and lower performance; for example, A+, A, A−. The use of plus/minus grades is widely debated, with the basic issue reduced to whether a 13-category system is preferable to a 5-category one. Parents often favor the more discrete system, but the research indicates that the validity and reliability of the grading decreases as the number of categories increases beyond 5 or 6.

- **Weighted grading** is another variation on the alpha system, with differing grade points awarded for greater course difficulty or level of student achievement. The simplest version of weighting awards 0.5 additional grade points for honors or gifted classes. More complex systems assign predetermined weights according to the achievement level or challenge of the class. Weighted systems do tend to reward greater student motivation but also higher academic ability. Some districts/schools forgo weighted grades in favor of special honor rolls or “honors” designations on student transcripts.

- **Pass/Fail, Credit/No Credit, E/S/U.** Two- or three-level systems attempt to avoid the arbitrary features of percentage and alpha grading. Categories such as E = Excellent, S = Satisfactory, and U = Unsatisfactory can be clearly defined, but little information is provided about student learning, and any predictive value for college or job success is lost. Several studies also show that students opting for pass/fail exhibit lower achievement than students graded by conventional alpha methods. Pass/fail and its variations are most often used to grade elective courses.

- **Narrative or descriptive reports.** Narrative grading involves teachers in writing open-ended descriptions of student performance and other traits—descriptive comments about student achievement, work habits, and citizenship. Descriptive reporting can provide a holistic picture and flexibility for assessing individual learning. It is most effective when tied directly to student learning goals and objectives. Unfortunately, the process is time consuming and of questionable value when teachers employ standard-comment menus in computerized grade reporting. Comparative ranking of students is virtually impossible. Narrative grading, most common in elementary schools, is rarely used alone, but is often combined with alpha or standards-based measures.

- **Contract grading.** In educational contracts, the teacher (or teacher working with a student) spells out the course and unit requirements, performance expectations, work requirements, learning tasks, and so on. Students fill in a course or unit contract and work toward a specific grade. The contract approach typically employs alpha grades, which the student earns by reaching a predetermined performance level; each student who completes the contract receives the contracted grade. Standards-based grading is also used.

- **Standards-based grading.** Major learning goals or standards and related performance indicators are established first in standards-based grading. Then graduated “benchmarks” (levels of quality) are set. A definite level of performance is assessed either by a test score, the demonstration of a skill, or the development of some product. Descriptors such as Beginning, Progressing, Proficient, and Exceptional are used to define performance levels 1, 2, 3, and 4. Some systems add a fifth category to cover such labels as Not Applicable or Not Evaluated. Other standards-based approaches use continuous progress scales to rate student performance on each standard. Standards-based and other performance approaches demand a systematic curriculum and criterion-referenced evaluation. They also require more time to administer, but progress in learning is clearer than in conventional systems. Grading approaches that combine performance or mastery criteria with a modified alpha system and supplementary descriptive reports have been well received by parents.

**THE CHALLENGES OF GRADING**

In many school districts and colleges, educators have little control over the actual form of grading, but administrators and teachers can be alert to the following irresponsible practices:

- Teachers not following established grading criteria
- Teachers not collecting enough data for valid judgments, giving few assignments, or relying almost entirely on final examinations
- Grade deflation that eliminates A and B grades when teachers structure courses or give tests that make top scores unattainable
- Grade inflation that pushes grades higher when teachers lose their objectivity

Research both at the college and secondary levels, however, shows that grade inflation may be less of a problem than critics believe. The problem is often complicated by lack of clear performance standards and teachers not separating student achievement from other traits in the process of grading and reporting. When learning goals and standards are well defined, grade inflation generally disappears.
Thomas Guskey and Jane Bailey recommend standards-based grading and reporting as the current state of the art and encourage a two-part marking system. They also offer a number of prescriptions for better practice in grading that are based on research evidence. They caution that grading and reporting are not essential to instruction—checking on student progress in learning is. Teacher checking is essentially formative in nature; most grading is summative. Grading and reporting also require professional but subjective judgments and, especially when highly analytic and detailed, are subject to human error. But bias in grading must be avoided at all costs. This happens when teachers allow factors other than student achievement, such as appearance and behavior, to influence student performance marks. Fair grading and reporting should be done in reference to specific learning criteria. Grading “on a curve,” on the other hand, is overwhelmingly negative, turns learning into a win-lose game, and communicates nothing about what students have actually learned. Guskey and Bailey remind educators that grades have some value as rewards but no value as punishments; low grades are usually disincentives to learning.

—James W. Keefe

See also at-risk students; curriculum, theories of; elementary education; high schools; individual differences, in children; innovation, in education; instructional interventions; J-curve theory; learning environments; learning, theories of; mastery learning; performance assessment; reform, of schools; restructuring, of schools; S-curve theory; school districts, history and development; school improvement models; state departments of education; systemic reform; testing and test theory development; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


GRAVES, CLAIRE

Claire Graves (1914–1986) was a professor of psychology at Union College from 1948 to 1978. He developed a sociobiological theory of human development that emphasized an individual’s need to solve specific problems or answer specific questions at a given developmental level. Dr. Graves felt that different ways of thinking about and explaining the observable world was embedded in the neural structure of all human beings, and environmental events specific to each individual give rise to different “levels of existence.” He saw psychological functioning as an emergent, unfolding process marked by a progressive subordination of lower-level behavior systems to higher-level behavior systems according to the changes in that person’s existential problems. Therefore, each individual interprets the observable world based upon the paradigm associated with his or her developmental level. In essence, everybody is “wired” for all levels of existence but functions primarily at that level related to his or her personal life events and situation. For educational leaders, the work of Graves relates to leadership theory, conflict resolution, interpersonal relationships, instructional design, management, and motivation.

Graves was skeptical of paper-and-pencil tests as a means for evaluating individual psychological functioning. Observation that examined a person’s lifestyle, dress, and preferences was the preferred means of evaluation. For Graves, observable behavior was a reflection of those problems of existence people were attempting to solve and therefore a reflection of their personal level of existence. Once the level of existence had been determined, a method of teaching or managing an individual could be developed and implemented.

Graves described the most common levels of existence as being related to emotional states and thereby embedded in structures located in the limbic system of the human brain where emotions reside. Graves saw the brain as an evolutionary sandwich, with the cerebral cortex stacked on top of the limbic system. Upper-level structures were located in the cortex and involved rational, logical thought. Each level of existence has its own motivating value and manner of effective learning. While Graves saw no level as being inherently “better” than another, he felt that the upper levels of existence were most conducive to effective individual, group, and cultural functioning.
Graves emphasized differential management and motivation of persons depending on their individual functional level of existence. His perspective was that each individual should be approached and engaged within the framework of his or her personal worldview and value system. He felt that motivation and management were best accomplished by providing people with those things they valued and by creating dissonant events that could facilitate movement to more advanced levels of functioning.

Graves’s theory of sociobiological development has been applied to problems in business, medicine, education, industry, mental health, and international relations. Its greatest applicability in the field of education relates to human resource development, conflict resolution, and leadership and leadership styles in creating positive organizational culture and facilitating optimum organizational functioning. In addition, as each level of existence learns most effectively in a specific manner, Graves’s theory has application to the individualization of instruction and instructional design.

—J. M. Blackbourn, Jennifer Fillingim, and James Campbell

See also affective domain; attitudes; instructional interventions; problem-based learning; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References

GREAT MAN THEORY

The great man theory represented the primary view of leadership in European and American societies, especially during the nineteenth century. Advocates of this theory believed there were a few exceptional men in each generation who were born with qualities and characteristics that caused other individuals to follow them. Their ability to lead others was not found in a set of skills that could be learned, but was thought to be a unique, internalized characteristic that was inherent in personality to such a degree as to be part of a leader’s genetic structure. From an early age, leaders could attract followers through the magnetism of their personalities and their ability to direct the group in ways that produced significant changes to society. Until the last years of the twentieth century, school boards sought mostly men who the board members thought were heroic leaders that would unite citizens and develop successful educational programs for their communities.

Most proponents of this theory reserved use of the term leadership to great political figures such as Caesar, Charlemagne, and Napoleon, men who initiated major social and political events that changed the course of history. Thinkers who espoused this view of leadership believed these men affected the course of history rather than their being affected by historical events.

William James, the American philosopher, and the English author Thomas Carlyle were strong advocates of the great man theory. They believed that only a few persons possessed the power, initiative, and sense of obligation required for the major tasks of history. James took the strong position that the direction of world events would be different and not as positive if the great leaders had not their inborn leadership abilities.

Both of these men studied the biographies of historical leaders to identify characteristics they thought explained the special qualities of these men. However, James believed that not every great leader had worldwide influence. A few could be found in the professions or at the state and regional level of the sociopolitical structure. This view left open the possibility that some educational pioneers such as Ellwood Cubberley and John Dewey could be designated as great men. Although great women leaders had appeared in the past and were continuing to appear at that point in history, their contributions were largely ignored by the proponents of this theory.

By the beginning of the twentieth century, the belief that leadership was practiced by only a few special men gave way to a somewhat broader interest in the concept of leadership traits that could be identified and researched. Trait studies continued until the middle of the century, when Ralph Stodgill argued against further investigation into personal and behavioral
traits because such studies were unproductive in the process of identifying the nature of leadership. As other scholars accepted his thesis, leadership studies began a new focus that led to broader and more seminal concepts of leadership.

The great man theory continues to live in the minds of those who conduct biographical research of national and world leaders for detecting the special qualities that enabled these individuals to serve as leaders. It also emerges whenever a group recruits an individual for the express purpose of leading them from their present difficulties to a more satisfactory life.

—Max S. Skidmore

See also charisma, of leaders; Cubberley, Ellwood; Dewey, John; group dynamics; leadership styles; leadership, theories of

Further Readings and References


GREENFIELD, THOMAS BARR

Thomas Barr Greenfield (1930–1992) remains a signal voice in educational administration for a finely developed perspective that critiques, contests, and points beyond many of the assumptions that have guided the development of the contemporary field. Greenfield spoke vehemently and with eloquence for the human, subjective, and contextual realities that interrupt the promise of prediction and control in organizational and administrative life. Where management science envisaged a dispassionate and objective administrative mastery of organizational affairs, Greenfield saw organizations and their administration as an often volatile and sometimes anarchic playing out of power, difference, and volition. It is not in the tepid neutrality of facts, Greenfield argued, but in the examination of discordant values charged with human impulse and leveraged by position and power that we are best able to understand the lived and inexorably complex world of organizational experience.

This still atypical view of organization and administration emerged from an intrepid, lifelong exploration of ideas and their implications for the leadership of educational institutions. Greenfield’s path from his boyhood origins on a prairie farm in Saskatchewan, Canada, to Toronto’s Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, where his thinking and writing in educational administration would mature, is marked by both scholarly commitment and intellectual transformation. As experience and reflection would gradually push him to question the scientific perspective and practices that he had adopted as a graduate student, Greenfield was led to a dénouement that resulted in a profound shift in perspective. Consequently, the evolution of Greenfield’s scholarship lends itself to being understood in two distinct periods so divergent that they are bridged only by an experience of conceptual conversion.

In the first period, Greenfield’s work and study parallel the ascension of overtly scientific models and methods for research in educational administration. This period includes Greenfield’s master’s and doctoral work at the University of Alberta, a center of the then new and promising scientific approach to organizations and leadership. Adopting the seemingly persuasive, neopositivist approaches grounded in quantitative methodologies and statistical analysis, Greenfield’s graduate work culminated in his PhD dissertation, Systems Analysis in Education: A Factor Analysis and Analysis of Variance of Pupil Achievement. He would later critique this title and, by implication, the work it represented as being without substance.

During the 1960s, Greenfield became increasingly uncomfortable with the naturalistic assumptions about organizations and the emptiness of technically correct administrative prescriptions derived through the scientific reduction of human experience to formulaic certainties. Made increasingly uneasy by a perspective that failed to take account of organizations as social inventions and that ruled out the subjective roots of action, experience, and meaning, Greenfield began to question the predominance of positivistic science within what he had gradually come to regard as the thoroughly human enterprise of educational administration.

The most visible line of demarcation between the two periods of Greenfield’s scholarship is the 1974 paper that Greenfield delivered at the Third International Intervisitation Programme in Bristol, England. An extensively revised version of that paper was retitled “Theory About Organization: A New Perspective and Its Implications for Schools” and was
published in 1975. Although Greenfield was not seeking drama as he made his way to Bristol, his paper would stir considerable consternation and vociferous debate.

The ideas Greenfield presented in and after Bristol would require the field to consider facts and arguments that were both inconvenient and troubling to the predominant scientific perspective advanced by the theory movement and to the extensive body of research that had followed from it. In the papers that would follow the Bristol visit, Greenfield argued that our very understanding of science must be reconsidered in order to renew educational administration as a discipline capable of addressing the realities of practice adequately. The scientific attempt to discover the objective lawlike generalizations that would advance the regulation of individual conduct and the management of human interaction was, for him, a vain, an uninteresting, and an ill-formed quest. Instead, he proposed an existing but little utilized alternative for investigating the human reality of administration and understanding the lived world of organizations.

Given his critique of science, his skepticism of predominant ways of understanding and managing organizational life, and his interest in alternative forms of knowing, it is curious that Greenfield expressed so little interest in what was emerging during his most prolific scholarly period as postmodernism. This is especially puzzling, as so many who were labeled “postmodernists” argued for ideas seemingly parallel to those Greenfield welcomed. Although it would be decidedly mistaken to undervalue Greenfield’s pleas for the idiographic aspects of organization, his lack of interest in postmodernist thinking may be rooted in a fundamental and abiding acceptance of order, power, and administration as necessary aspects of human life and achievement.

Greenfield acknowledged unflinchingly that administration is an issue of will—affecting and being affected—and he expressed exasperation with descriptions of organizations that would attempt to elide the often harsh realities of power and its manifestations. Nor did Greenfield reject or disdain the reality of hierarchy. His hope that educational administration could become a humane science never diminished the significance and the necessity of either hierarchy or power in educational organizations. What Greenfield did insist, however, was that hierarchy and power should be continuously tested by the ends that they would serve. For Greenfield, organizations were an intentional moral architecture that could only be justified by the values they would advance. Here Greenfield often invokes a somewhat elusive sense of the “good” as that which is intractably mysterious but which persistently seeks realization through human thought and action. Not only would organizations become transparent when held up to the light of values, but organizations and administration could also become enlightened through the pursuit of “better” values.

Greenfield’s recurrent use of transcendental and sometimes overtly religious language suggests the profoundly spiritual aspect of his work. That Greenfield was drawn to the transcendental provides additional insight into why he was so critical of reductivist and formulaic approaches to educational administration, whether they emerged from the political/cultural left, from conservative orthodoxy, or from the supposedly objective workings of science. Equally apprehensive of critical theory, traditionalism, and positivistic approaches to organizational life, Greenfield was earnest in seeking to avoid systems that would reduce complex organizational realities to oversimplifications in which the ideologies of observers masquerade as facts that override the experience of participants.

—Martin Barlosky

See also administration, theories of; critical theory; empiricism; feminism and theories of leadership; governance; humanistic education; knowledge base, of the field; management theories; morality, moral leadership; organizational theories; scientific management

Further Readings and References


GROUP DYNAMICS

Group dynamics refers to the energy and interaction created through the interdependency of grouping two or more individuals together to achieve a goal or objective. The proper grouping of individuals aids the achievement of tasks, activities, and goals within an organization. Groups exhibit both external and internal dynamics. External dynamics focus on performance objectives, while internal dynamics are concerned with internal relationships and interactions of team members. In an organization, there are formal groups and informal groups. A formal group is one that is defined by management and the work situation; individuals become interdependent through the formal work that they perform. An informal work group is one that develops because of the interpersonal relationships and relationship building that develops among members; an informal group extends beyond the work-related boundaries mandated by management or the tasks to be performed. These groups develop norms and have social and technical needs. Because of the diversity of individuals that make up groups (according to age, culture, gender, race, ethnicity, background, experience), groups are utilized for creativity, problem solving, and decision making. Group members may function efficiently if they are cohesive, limited in size (two to six members), concentrate on goals and performance, and communicate openly.

There is a wide body of research regarding groups and teams. Very often the word team is interchanged with the word group. However, team theorists contend that there is a difference between a group and a team. Teams are groups, but groups are not teams. Teams are considered formal work groups, and in the last 20 years, there has been widespread expansion of their use at the workplace. Groups become teams through disciplined action that concentrates on performance goals, high levels of skills, and mutual accountability. In addition, groups and teams seem to be utilized differently in a business organization compared to an educational organization. Within the educational organization, there seems to be an emphasis placed upon the ability of members to work cooperatively and engage in teamwork, whereas in the business corporation, the emphasis is primarily on task performance.

Groups or teams need to have goal clarity, role clarity, and high efficacy in order to function successfully. There are certain individual member characteristics that have been researched through factor analysis and replicated with different populations, evaluations, and assessments that enable groups or teams to function more effectively. These are agreeableness, conscientiousness, extroversion, emotional adjustment, and openness to experience. Teams can function more effectively if team members exhibit team player characteristics and are more cooperative in their interactions with other members.

Although most group research specifies that there should be a group leader, there is a body of research that is developing currently that is investigating the concepts of shared leadership. Shared leadership focuses on leadership from a group perspective rather than from the perspective of the individual leader working within the group.

THEORIES OF GROUP DYNAMICS

Studies of small group research and group dynamics began in the 1930s with the Hawthorne Electric Works Studies. By the 1960s, group research was widespread, but the focus became the personal characteristics of team members (the influence of characteristics, such as gender, race, and personality traits). Group research seemed to wither partially in the 1970s and 1980s, but in the last 20 years, there has been a resurgence in team research, primarily with the investigation of contextual variables that lie outside a group or team but influence its work, such as the availability of physical or financial resources.

Furthermore, the Hawthorne Electric Works Studies in the 1930s began to change how researchers regarded the nature of work and the social aspects of
groups at the workplace. The Hawthorne Studies were important because they illustrated that work groups can influence performance and output. As a result, there was a paradigm shift that ushered in the behavioral or human relations movement in management. In the 1930s and 1940s, Kurt Lewin furthered group research and developed human relations and psychological theories about human behavior around the theory of force field analysis. Force field analysis contends that any situation can be explained by the set of forces or counterbalanced forces that hold it in place. The “force” refers to both physical forces and psychological forces that influence individual behavior and behavior within groups. Accordingly, there are both driving forces and restraining forces. Through the formulation of group norms, groups can influence the mindset of its members and their performance. Tradition and group norms are forces that can exert a strong pressure or influence.

Furthermore, an emphasis on group cohesiveness may create an environment that actually limits individual dissension and criticism, thereby limiting a group’s creative potential. Rather than extend the potential of the group, process loss may develop as a result of the lessening of individual influences within the group and the desire of group members to accommodate to the group. The desire of groups to emphasize group relations and conform to the group rather than generate or implement divergent ideas and notions is known as the concept of groupthink.

Groups or teams pass through stages of development. Groups develop through the stages of forming, norming, storming, and performing, but there are multiple studies that illustrate that groups or teams do not pass through this sequential or lateral process of development. Other theorists contend that groups pass through a fully integrated model of developmental stages that constitute dependency and inclusion, counter-dependence and fight, trust and structure, work and productivity.

APPLICATION OF GROUP DYNAMICS IN SCHOOLS

Applications of group dynamics in schools include the use of cooperative groups or teams in the classroom setting, sensitivity training groups, encounter groups, the development of site-based management teams, the use of quality circles in total quality management or continuous improvement models, and the advancement of virtual teams or global teams within the cyberspace arena. Because of technological influences, teams interact and may exist over the Internet through the development of groupware programs.

—Patricia Ann Marcellino

See also communication, theories in education; differentiation of stimuli; field theory; goals, goal setting; peer interaction/friendship

Further Readings and References

Haley, Margaret

Born in Illinois, Margaret Haley (1861–1939) fought for educational reform, especially teacher unionization and women's rights. Influenced by her Irish immigrant parents, including her father's active involvement in several labor organizations, she began to teach even before she graduated from school. She foreshadowed her future career when she told her school superintendent that she wanted a $5.00 raise or she would quit. She did not get the raise. She quit, yet she said in her autobiography that she hadn't wanted to fight—only to achieve the result.

John Dewey influenced her beliefs about active learning in conducive settings, yet she felt that elementary teachers, mainly female, were treated as factory hands. She had to teach classes of 50 to 60 students in the destitute Chicago stockyards, with a rigid curriculum imposed by school leaders. High school teachers, mainly men, worked under different guidelines and received higher pay.

She became a full-time union official in the Chicago Teachers Federation (CTF), fighting for higher salaries, pensions, tenure, and better school conditions. She successfully led her first action on behalf of the union. The CTF filed suit against the Chicago Board of Education, which had reneged on a pay raise for elementary teachers. The case revealed that the city's corporations did not pay a fair share of taxes, depriving the city of school funds. The case forced corporations to pay taxes and the board to follow through with promised raises.

The CTF joined the Chicago Federation of Labor, positively affecting the pension issue. Subsequently, the National Federation of Teachers appointed Haley president. She used that position to influence the National Educational Association (NEA), then dominated by male college presidents and administrators, to address elementary teachers' needs. She formed the National Women's Trade Union League with other women suffragists such as Mary Kenney O'Sullivan, Jane Addams, and Mary McDowell.

Haley strongly influenced unionism at the NEA meeting in St. Louis in 1904. As the first female ever to speak from the podium, in "Why Teachers Should Organize," she described obstacles to effective teaching: inadequate salaries, insecurity regarding tenure and pensions, overwork and crowded classrooms, and lack of recognition of the teacher as a professional due to pressure for an industrial model of schooling. She foreshadowed continuing issues in collective bargaining yet strongly promoted ongoing professional development. She promoted a connection between professional development and working conditions, saying that the most favorable self-development occurs when one knows the better path and is free to choose it.

She led successful campaigns in Illinois for pensions and tenure and helped organize the American Federation of Teachers in 1916. From 1925 to 1931 she published the Margaret Haley Bulletin and continued work with female contemporaries, nicknamed by media as "Lady Labor Sluggers," until her death.

—Helen C. Sobehart

See also Addams, Jane; American Federation of Teachers; Chicago school reform; collective bargaining; contracts, with teacher unions; Dewey, John; discrimination; equality, in schools; feminism and theories of leadership; fringe benefits; gender studies, in educational leadership; just cause; learning environments; National Education Association;
professional development; salary and salary models; sexism (glass ceiling); systemic reform; unions, of teachers; women in educational leadership; Young, Ella Flagg

Further Readings and References

HALL, R. VANCE

R. Vance Hall (1928–) was a behavioral psychologist who with Don Baer, Mont Wolf, and Todd Risley formed the core group of behavior analysts in the Department of Human Development and Family Life at the University of Kansas from the 1960s to the 1990s. Of the group, Hall’s work was most directly related to the public schools and K–12 education. His research focused on the impact of applied behavior analysis on children in the school and home environments and on teachers and parents as behavior modifiers. Hall began his career as a public school teacher and administrator. Therefore, his emphasis was on developing skills in teachers and parents that would enable them to structure effective, developmentally appropriate activities for children. For educational leaders, Hall’s work ties directly to the principal’s role in instructional leadership and improvement.

Hall pioneered the efficacy of techniques now widely employed in school settings, such as systematic teacher attention for desired behavior and systematic ignoring of inappropriate behavior. He also advocated the structured training of teachers, particularly beginning teachers, in the use of behavioral principles to enhance academic performance and study general classroom behavior. The ongoing development, revision, and validation of these procedures evolved into the responsive teaching model, which became the foundation of Hall’s work with teachers and schools.

Hall’s work also had an impact in the area of educational research. He developed the changing-criterion design for single-subject research and employed this design in a variety of settings with a variety of behaviors.

Along with Todd Risley, Hall spent over 20 years working with the Juniper Gardens Project, a federally funded program for parents and children in inner-city Kansas City, Kansas. This program supported parent training and a developmental preschool for low-income, minority individuals. It also served as a training ground for both teachers and psychologists. The Juniper Gardens Project became the most notable model for the application of applied behavior analysis in community settings. Hall’s work with this program resulted in the American Psychological Association honoring him with the Fred S. Keller award in 1998.

Hall’s work has had a direct impact on schools and schooling. Many of the techniques he pioneered are still regularly employed by teachers and form the foundation of the most effective classroom management programs. The principal’s role as the leader in school improvement and the efficacy of well-trained teachers were of prime importance to him.

However, Hall felt that the promise of behavioral techniques in the regular classroom were, as yet, unrealized. This failure was not due to teachers, but behavioral psychologists themselves, who failed to develop easily implemented techniques that fit regular classroom ecology and also failed to disseminate their research results properly to ensure their inclusion in undergraduate teacher training.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also behaviorism; classroom research; conditioning theory; learning, theories of; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References

HALO EFFECT

A halo effect is a systematic error influencing an evaluation outcome that is attributable to an interaction between the evaluator and the object of evaluation. In the simplest context, an outcome from an evaluation can be decomposed to reflect the influence of at least two separate components and the interaction of these two components. One component is the evaluator who is responsible for rendering a perception. The other component is the phenomenon being evaluated and
could include a person performing certain job assignments, as involved with performance appraisals, or a focal position within an organizational hierarchy, as involved with a job analysis, to mention two possibilities as the objects of evaluation.

Outcomes from the evaluation process yield an observed perception about the employee or the position being evaluated. Because this outcome is based on perceptions of the evaluator, it is subject to several different types of perceptual errors. Some of the potential perceptual errors in outcome measures may be attributable solely to the evaluator, while some of the other potential perceptual errors in outcome measures may be attributable to an interaction phenomenon involving an evaluator and an object of evaluation (halo effect).

With respect to those perceptual errors associated solely with the evaluator, several common types exist. For example, some evaluators may evaluate all employees artificially high within the appraisal process (leniency error) or different jobs of varying value equally within the job analysis process (central tendency error). That is, these types of perceptual errors within the evaluation process are constant across all objects within the evaluations of a particular evaluator.

In contrast to the above-illustrated perceptual errors attributable solely to the evaluator is the halo effect. The halo effect involves an interaction between the evaluator and a specific object of evaluation. As such, errors in the perceptions of an evaluator are not systematic across all objects being evaluated.

To illustrate, only certain employees are evaluated artificially high, or only specific jobs are erroneously overvalued with a halo error. Within the context of a halo effect, the evaluator’s perceptions are tainted by specific attributes associated with persons or programs that are unrelated to the purpose of the evaluation process. If an evaluator appreciates a specific trait of a particular employee such as appearance, then this appreciation influences the ratings of this particular employee across all aspects of the job performance evaluation on dimensions unrelated to appearance. Likewise, a job analysis can be unduly influenced by a specific job component associated with a particular job (e.g., public exposure), and this influence can color the analyst’s evaluation of all job components comprising a job.

To identify a potential halo effect associated with an evaluator by object interaction, descriptive statistics are calculated for each object of evaluation nested within every evaluator. Classical indicators of a halo effect are a high mean rating across all dimensions of a particular individual/job being evaluated accompanied by small standard deviations. This particular configuration of evidence is far from conclusive in proving a halo effect but does signal for further investigation on a case-by-case basis.

In the event that a halo effect is detected, remedies, although limited, do exist. One remedy involves confronting evaluators with empirical data suggesting a halo effect, and this remedy implies that evaluators are unaware of their invalid perceptions. Another remedy involves changing the format of the evaluation process whereby evaluators evaluate all persons/jobs on each criterion rather than each person/job simultaneously on all criteria.

—I. Phillip Young

See also accountability; classroom research; evaluation; favoritism; human resource development; research methods

Further Readings and References


HALPIN, ANDREW WILLIAM

Andrew W. Halpin (1911–1992) was a trained clinical psychologist who preferred to be called a social psychologist. Before becoming a university professor, Halpin was a school psychologist in New York and a research psychologist at Ohio State University in the Ohio State Leadership Studies. He was an innovative and forward-looking thinker who provided school administrators with practical tools that were based on strong theoretical underpinnings.

Halpin’s determination and intellect emanated from his early roots in Brooklyn. He was born prematurely in 1911, and doctors gave him little chance to survive. Because of his mother’s resolve, Halpin had a remarkable career and lived to age 81.

His strong spirit came from his immigrant parents. Halpin’s father worked hard, and his mother, fiercely protective of her small son, schooled him in their Brooklyn home. An avid reader, Halpin chose books
over ballgames. Esther, whom he married in 1967, said that he would sneak adult books out of the library and fool his parents into thinking that he was fast asleep while he read late at night.

Halpin attended Columbia University, where he received his bachelor’s degree in 1931 and his master’s degree in 1932. He then received his doctorate (1949) in educational psychology from Cornell University. An officer in the U.S. Army during WW II, Halpin was a psychologist for both the Army and Air Force. His research on the impact of military commanders on their crews contributed importantly to his later work. By focusing on multidimensional operational definitions, he brought attention to organizational complexity. After holding numerous faculty positions during his academic career, he retired in 1974 from the University of Georgia.

Halpin’s early models, which analyzed leader behavior and later impacted contemporary theories in organizational and situational leadership, were influenced by the new “theory movement” inspired by Roald F. Campbell and the 1954 National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA). Halpin is recognized for his involvement with two seminal educational leadership questionnaires that continue to be utilized in various forms today. In the 1950s, he and B. James Winer translated and refined the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which was originated by John Hemphill and Alvin Koons, and later shortened by Ralph M. Stodgill in the 1960s to identify several specific leadership traits.

In 1962, the second questionnaire, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCMQ), was introduced and later published in 1963, with eight dimensions. Known as the Halpin-Croft model of organizational climate, it was a pioneering framework for the conceptualization and measurement of organizational climate in elementary schools. The questionnaire still is used despite concerns about validity and reliability. The scholars who most influenced Halpin’s perspectives on leadership and organization included Roald Campbell, Chester I. Barnard, Arthur Coladarci, Jacob Getzels, and Herbert Simon.

Halpin’s work has been more recently referenced as an example of early leadership studies that suggest that one type of leadership can fit all situations. As evident in later writings, his studies of educational administration reflect his social science background and are applicable to other areas of administrative leadership.

—Elyse Yamauchi and Rodney Math

See also Barnard, Chester I.; climate, school; hierarchy, in organizations; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, situational; leadership styles; management theories; organizational theories; Simon, Herbert; superintendency; theory movement, in educational administration; trait theory

Further Readings and References


HARRIS, WILLIAM TORREY

The American philosopher and educator William Torrey Harris (1835–1909) was born near North Killingssly, Connecticut, and educated at Andover Academy and Yale University. Harris began teaching in St. Louis in 1857 and served as superintendent of schools in that city from 1868 to 1880. While superintendent, Harris established the first permanent public kindergarten in the country and advocated the teaching of a non-English language to the children of immigrants. His annual reports to the board of education were as famous and widely read as those of Horace Mann.

A lifelong scholar of German philosophy, especially the work of Hegel, Harris was a founder of the St. Louis movement in philosophy and edited The Journal of Speculative Philosophy until 1893. He also translated Hegel’s Logic into English. Hegel’s Idealism formed the basis of all Harris’s social and educational thought. This attachment to German philosophy has been criticized, as noted by Merle Curti and T. J. Fiala, as leading Harris to authoritarian and statist views of education and society.

Harris served as U.S. Commissioner of Education from 1889 to 1906. The author of nearly 500 journal articles, he also published An Introduction to the Study of Philosophy (1889) and The Psychologic Foundations of Education (1898).

Harris was the most influential figure in American public education in the last quarter of the nineteenth century and is ranked with Horace Mann and John Dewey as a founder of American educational philosophy. Harris is generally credited with the institutionalization of public education in the United States, and his influence is evident in the current structure of American schools.
of the common school in urban America and was a vigorous advocate for a humanistic curriculum for all students. He believed that every child had the right to an elementary education in grammar, literature and art, mathematics, geography, and history, knowledge of which equipped the child to participate fully in the culture of the larger society and laid the foundation for full participation in political and economic life. However, Harris viewed the common school as only one of the agencies of education for the child. The home, the church, the neighborhood, and the workplace also played significant roles. Harris became an advocate of free public high schools in which students also studied an academic curriculum.

Harris’s educational views lost currency as the new century unfolded. His advocacy of the common school, a common humanistic curriculum for all students, and textbook-centered teaching gradually gave way to the proponents of manual training, child study, and experiential learning. The characterization of Harris as the “great conservator” may not be totally accurate, but it has survived the test of time.

—Mike Boone

See also administration, theories of; critical theory; Dewey, John; dialectical inquiry; humanistic education; idealism, as philosophy in education; Mann, Horace; philosophies of education

Further Readings and References


**HAVIGHURST, ROBERT**

Robert Havighurst (1900–1991) was faculty member in the former School of Education at the University of Chicago. He was a twentieth-century developmental psychologist who formalized the concept of developmental tasks imbedded in the structure of educational and social organization. According to Havighurst, his concept of developmental tasks occupied the middle ground between the educational theory of freedom (i.e., a person will develop best if left as free as possible) and the educational theory of constraint (a person will become a useful member of society only by being shaped through societal constraints). For Havighurst, successful mastery of developmental tasks required that individuals be active learners who were constantly interacting with their environment. Therefore, Havighurst’s developmental tasks were, by definition, tied to problem-based learning. In essence, the processes within the educational system required that certain skills/knowledge be mastered during a certain time frame to ensure future success in the system. Failure to master these tasks increased the likelihood that a person would experience problems in future educational and social environments.

For example, a fifth-grade student might be intellectually and socially gifted (very bright and well liked by his peers) yet experience academic difficulty due to an inability to bring materials to class, write down homework assignments, or read required homework. These skills are developmental tasks associated with the middle school years and becoming a self-initiating, independent learner. His inability to master these developmental tasks might cause him to be retained for reasons not related to his ability (short-term problems). The failure to master the tasks of fifth grade could further put him at risk for success during his high school experience (long-term problems).

Havighurst attributed a great deal of his work and thinking to Erik Erikson, with whom he worked during a postdoctoral appointment at Harvard University. Havighurst’s developmental tasks and their impact on human development were similar to Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development and his perspective on the problems of various developmental periods.

A key component of Havighurst’s theory of developmental tasks was that of the *teachable moment*. He believed that there were periods during development in which specific developmental tasks were presented and mastered most effectively. These were the teachable moments, in which educational professionals should structure the instructional and classroom environments to enhance the opportunity for students to engage in the developmental tasks and facilitate mastery of those tasks.

Havighurst refined and expanded his theory as his work progressed to include adolescents, young adults, and mature individuals. He suggested that the nature
of developmental tasks was imbedded in all aspects of human experience and continued throughout the life span. He emphasized sociocultural patterns, values, and problems that adults had to adjust to as they matured. His theory has become an integral part of theory and practice at the secondary level of educational organizations and in adult education.

Havighurst held the position that the developmental tasks embedded in educational and social structures were weighted against persons of color and that the standard traditional methods of instruction were not only ineffective, but incomprehensible to these individuals. He suggested alternative educational methods and approaches for this group as a means of facilitating personal development. Havighurst’s work contributed to the later development of multicultural education initiatives.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also Black education; brain research and practice; child development theories; differentiated instruction; diversity; leadership, task-oriented; multiculturalism; problem-based learning; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References

HAWTHORNE STUDIES, THE

The Hawthorne Studies were carried out in the 1920s and 1930s under the leadership of Elton Mayo at the Hawthorne Plant of the General Electric Company in Chicago. Researchers were initially interested in studying the relationship between conditions of work and the incidence of fatigue and boredom among workers. The study later evolved into studying other phenomena that might increase worker productivity.

The studies challenged classical management theory by identifying an “informal organization” based on friendship groups, unplanned interactions, and the need for human motivation. The Hawthorne Studies are often interpreted as a warning to classical organizational theorists that work activities are influenced not merely by formal bureaucratic aspects of the organization but also by this human side. Emphasizing the Hawthorne Studies and theories of human motivation popular at the time, Frederick Herzberg and others suggested a less important role for increased wages and material benefits as motivators. These studies are often seen as a major impetus for the later development of the human relations movement in organizational management.

However, others provide evidence that this narrative is a self-serving one for American business and that social science provided legitimacy for countering a growing labor movement. According to Henry Landsberger, the published studies initially received mixed reviews and were not given much importance. Alex Carey along with many other social scientists of the time challenged the findings on methodological grounds. However, business leaders in alliance with some academics revived interest in the Hawthorne Studies. The studies provided a scientific veneer to a human relations movement that argued that motivation and behavior of industrial workers were mainly influenced by something other than monetary and material reward. In 1950, Peter Drucker commented that the human relations movement was not only a waste and a failure, but was viewed mainly as a way to bust unions. Despite these methodological and conceptual challenges, most organizational theory texts continue to present the Hawthorne Studies as scientific evidence of the principles of human relations management.

—Gary L. Anderson

See also behaviorism; capacity building, of organizations; communications, theories in organizations; consideration, caring; empowerment; ethos, of organizations; fringe benefits; human resource development; motivation, theories of; personnel management; productivity; salary and salary models; satisfaction, in organizations and roles

Further Readings and References

HAY, HENRY (HARRY)

One of the founders of the Mattachine Society in Los Angeles in 1951, Henry (Harry) Hay (1912–2002)
later established the Radical Faeries in 1978. Comprised largely of White, gay men, Mattachine was the first modern-era gay rights organization. As one of the founders, Hay also did much of the early theorizing for the organization.

Hay long had been a Communist Party (CPUSA) activist, joining in 1933. He had even married another party member to remain in good standing. During this time, both the U.S. government and the CPUSA banned gay men and lesbians (closeted or not). According to John D’Emilio in 1983, both parties saw gay and lesbian people as potential targets of blackmail and security threats. By the late 1940s, however, Hay was increasingly dissatisfied with the party’s hostility toward homosexuals and its poor-to-nonexistent theorizing regarding homosexuality.

In 1948, using the analytic skills he had honed during his work for the CPUSA, Hay began examining the status of gay men and lesbians in U.S. society. He concluded that homosexuals or homophiles (to use the parlance of that era) were a minority group just like any other. and similarly, they were discriminated against simply because of who they were. Hay quickly sketched a manifesto and sought out like-minded individuals to form an activist organization dedicated to promoting civil rights for homophiles. It took 2 years of cautious chatting in the Los Angeles area before he found anyone who would join him. Chuck Rowland and Bob Hull, who were also former CPUSA activists, helped Hay establish Mattachine. In 1951, Hay finally left his wife and the party, in that order.

The early meetings of Mattachine (1951–1953) were largely dedicated to education and consciousness-raising, with Hay typically facilitating the discussions. During his time with the CPUSA, Hay had worked as a community educator, so the efforts with Mattachine were a logical extension of his previous work. Furthermore, his work with the CPUSA and Mattachine can be seen as examples of educational leadership for social justice. Given the persecution of the era, the extreme secrecy and cell-like structure of Mattachine were also probably imported from the CPUSA—although Hay later denied this. Even in relatively progressive California, the caution was warranted. During the early 1950s, “open homosexuals” risked police entrapment, arrest, jailing (up to 20 years), dismissal from jobs, professional licensure revocation, and electroshock therapy.

By 1953, Mattachine had grown in strength and cohesiveness. It was able to launch ONE, the organization’s magazine. It became the first widely distributed prohomophile journal. Many of ONE’s authors used pseudonyms, although a few brave souls attached their actual names to their articles. Unfortunately for Hay, 1953 also marked the height of anti-Communism in the U.S. In early 1953, a local newspaper outed Hay as a Marxist. This, in turn, triggered more reporting on both Hay and Mattachine. Fearing any additional subversive notions would doom Mattachine, the organization’s more conservative members quickly purged the founders to shake free of any “Red” taint. Nevertheless, the foundations of Mattachine, as well as the nascent gay rights movement, had been laid. Hay would continue to be involved with varying aspects of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered (LGBT) rights movement, and he would continue to embrace radical and at times, wildly unpopular views, until his death in 2002. Persons such as Hay are important to know as founders in the movement to bring a wider perspective and understanding of the role of sexual orientation for educators at all levels.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also homophobia; lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgender issues in education; minorities, in schools; queer theory; sexuality, theories of

Further Readings and References


HAZARDS, ENVIRONMENTAL, IN SCHOOLS

There is potential for many environmental hazards in schools: asbestos, radon, airborne mold and mildew, poor ventilation, odors and noxious chemicals, cleaning agents, improperly maintained air filters, dust, lead, mercury, and carbon monoxide, to name a few. The following will review some of the most frequently noted hazards, with information about them.

CONTAMINATED WATER

Every state has its own set of agencies that have some control of the drinking water of a school. Knowledge
of these agencies and their regulations is important, especially if the school is on well water rather than water provided by the locality. Water may be contaminated with lead, mercury, or organic and inorganic compounds. Periodic testing will identify the safety level of the water. Personnel should be trained to take the water samples without contamination of the sample. States provide a complete set of waterworks regulations to the school organizations. These regulations include procedures, emergency information, enforcement guideline and exemptions or variances, and a complete plan for monitoring. All analyses ought to be performed in accordance with the regulatory guidelines, and the laboratories used for testing must have the necessary certification of the state agency in charge of waterworks management.

AIR QUALITY

Poor air quality ranges from poor ventilation systems to buildings that were not designed for the number of students and employees who are in the classrooms and hallways. Glen I. Earhman and Linda K. Lemasters noted the following caustic causes of poor air in schools: Carpet, pressed wood, cleaning materials, copy machine fumes, restroom air fresheners, adhesives, and many other sources account for indoor air pollutants. There may be ventilation systems that have accumulated dirt and other contaminants over the years. Water-damaged walls and carpets from flooding or a condenser overflow can be a breeding ground for mold and mildew. Another breeding ground for biological contaminants arrives in the building air from cooling towers, air conditioners, humidifiers, and other ventilation equipment.

Often a facility was designed for one purpose but used for another. This may mean that a computer laboratory is installed in what was formerly a room that was expected to have low occupancy. It was not conceivable that 20 students, a teacher, 20 computers, and printers would leave little well-ventilated air in the room. With improved construction methods, buildings in the recent past were built that were airtight, with little air exchange. In addition, synthetic building materials, housekeeping supplies, and the use of pesticides combined with the concern about economy with ventilation systems, the delay of maintenance to save money, and undersized HVAC (heating, ventilation, and air-conditioning) systems, have created air-quality problems.

Ignoring these problems may lead to asthma, Legionnaire’s disease, certain types of pneumonia, or psychological stress and discomfort. According to the World Health Organization, as high as 30% of renovated or new facilities generate air quality complaints from the occupants. This is of great concern when one considers that 1 in 5 Americans spend his or her days in elementary and secondary schools. One study of the General Accounting Office reported approximately 50% of our schools have indoor air quality problems.

RADON

According to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), radon comes from the natural breakdown of uranium in soil, rock, and water and gets into the air. It moves up through the ground through cracks and other holes in the foundation. Buildings trap it inside, where the gas can build up. Testing is the only way to know whether or not indoor air contains this radioactive gas. After smoking, it is the second leading cause of lung cancer in the United States. The EPA recommends using a contractor when fixing radon problems. If a school has its own well water, it too should be tested for radon.

ASBESTOS

Prior to 1986, asbestos was used in many building materials because it was strong, fire resistant, and a very good insulator, although it was first noted as a possible health hazard in the 1920s after asbestosis became recognized. Many schools installed flooring materials, pipes with insulation, and ceiling tiles that contained asbestos. Then, it was discovered that the small asbestos fibers were causing health problems, especially with employees who worked in positions in which the fibers became airborne (friable asbestos), increasing the likelihood that the fibers would be inhaled. On October 22, 1986, the Asbestos Hazard Emergency Response Act (AHERA) was signed into law. It provides guidelines to manage asbestos-containing materials in schools. AHERA requires school organizations to have a designated, trained coordinator. Asbestos abatement may be one of the most expensive regulatory issues. This is due to several reasons, including scientific testing and the fact that licensed personnel and firms must be used to remove it and disposal is an expensive component. Asbestos abatement in one facility can easily cost the school organization thousands of dollars.
LEAD

In addition to lead possibly contaminating the drinking water in a school, lead may be in other products of an educational facility. Many states require a lead screen of school facilities. Surfaces, which may contain lead materials, need to be tested for the presence of lead so that proper precautions can be taken. Custodians, maintenance workers, or construction workers should be trained in the regulations of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) on lead contaminants.

In the areas of scientific testing of air, water, and other components of our environment, school leaders should not permit money or other factors to inhibit implementation. There are certain regulations that must be adhered to—to the letter of the law—as they were put in place for the safety of the inhabitants of the facility. The only cost cutting may be bidding the testing to the lowest bidder, but the work must be done for the safety and security of all involved.

—Linda K. Lemasters

See also asbestos; learning environments; school plant management; school safety

Further Readings and References


HEAD START

Research has suggested that emphasis on early childhood education is one of the best ways to enhance educational success for children deemed at risk. Head Start is one of the most extensive programs the federal government has ever funded and continues to fund for the education of disadvantaged children, and it was the second major federally sponsored compensatory education program (the first being Title I). Head Start is a preschool program for children from age 3 to school entry, if the child’s family meets low-income guidelines and if there is a Head Start available in their community. Head Start is to provide a continuum of services for a “whole-child” approach to better prepare them for entrance into public school, including health care and family support services. As of 2005, over 21 million children have participated in a Head Start program. However, fewer than half the children from low-income families attend preschool, mainly because there are not enough Head Start programs to accommodate them.

Head Start began as part of President Lyndon B. Johnson’s War on Poverty. The Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) of 1964 established Head Start as last-minute legislation, and it was initially a summer program. Early indicators of the program immediately suggested, however, that more time was needed to help disadvantaged children be on an equal playing field with their middle-class peers by the time they entered kindergarten. As a result, Head Start quickly became a year-round program. In 1969, Head Start was transferred from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Office of Child Development in the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and it has now become a program within the Administration on Children, Youth, and Families at the Department of Health and Human Services.

As a comprehensive child development program, Head Start provides an educational program designed to more adequately prepare disadvantaged children for public school. The belief is that through these compensatory services, disadvantaged children can enter school with the same academic readiness as those of their middle-class peers. Head Start also provides health, dental, nutrition, social, and psychological services to children and their low-income parents. Essential elements of the Head Start program include: Enhance a child’s mental processes; improve general physical well-being; enhance social-emotional development; begin to build a pattern of successes; improve family relationships; begin to build social responsibility; and increase child’s self-esteem and general feeling of worth.

From its beginning, proponents of Head Start were adamant about not adhering to traditional educational programs, complaining that they were developmentally inappropriate and ineffective. Founders of the program insisted on what they deemed developmentally appropriate curriculum sensitive to each child’s needs and areas of development. Teachers were to be
facilitators of students’ learning, rather than directors. Children were encouraged to make individual choices about their learning, encouraging individual problem solving and a positive disposition for learning.

Head Start has long been recognized for its inclusion of parents in the program. Parent involvement is a key component of the program, and teachers have been required to make home visits to encourage parent involvement. Parents are provided with parenting information about how they can better prepare their children for educational success. Parents are also encouraged to participate by being on Head Start advisory boards to ensure their input into the program’s decision making. Parents are often hired to work as paid aides in the classroom or as volunteers in the Head Start center.

Effectiveness of the Head Start programs has been controversial. One of the earliest studies, conducted by the Westinghouse Corporation and Ohio University in 1969, found negligible sustained effects in children that had attended Head Start programs. Immediately criticized as a flawed study because of poor methodology, the study nonetheless became the platform for opponents of funding for Head Start. A later study conducted in 2003 found significant short-term effects of children who participated in a Head Start program. Participant children had substantial benefits in the areas of receptive vocabulary and phonemic awareness. In addition, participants had more positive health outcomes (e.g., immunizations up to date), and parents reported more positive health and safety habits. Some studies on long-term benefits of Head Start have concluded that gains decrease over time. However, more recent analysis of longitudinal studies has suggested that gains continue over time, although there might be some reduction of effects. While the aggregate of studies concerning Head Start participants have had mixed results, there have been individual Head Start programs that have documented successes for children participating in their programs. Nonetheless, studies suggest that Head Start benefits are not as substantial as other preschool programs (e.g., Perry Preschool) that were considered to be of higher quality. While children participating in Head Start are making progress, studies suggest they continue to lag behind their peers.

—Joan G. Henley

See also Black education; brain research and practice; compensatory education; creativity, theories of; critical race theory; critical theory; cultural capital; early childhood education; giftedness, gifted education; individual differences, in children; instructional interventions; Kentucky Education Reform Act; Latinos; life span development; literacy, theories of; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; No Child Left Behind; parental involvement; philosophies of education; special education; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


HEALTH EDUCATION

Health education is neither public health nor physical education. More often than not, the public perceives health education and public health as simply different terms for similar fields of knowledge. The distinction between them, however, hinges on health education’s foremost concern with health: *behavior*. While it may employ other change-promoting strategies beyond solely educational methods, health education is mainly interested in healthy behavior as its “product.” In contrast, public health—both historically and pragmatically—has had broader outcomes as its focus, including curbing epidemics of infectious diseases and conducting surveillance of newly emerging illnesses.

Also occurring frequently is the confusion between physical education (PE) and health education. Failure to distinguish between health and PE is usually attributed to these disciplines’ entangled historical roots and to colleges and universities often housing the two fields in the same department, sometimes with overlapping faculty and/or coursework. While health education and PE share important aspects—for example, health education will involve components of physical fitness that are stressed in physical education programs—health education has a much broader, multidimensional focus that expands well beyond fitness and physical health to include a wide variety of lifestyle factors.
HEALTH EDUCATION

The role of “health educator” has been classified as a distinct occupation since approval by the Standard Occupational Classification Policy Review Committee in 1997, but health education is more than simply an occupation. It has been described by some as an “emerging profession”: an area of study that falls somewhere between a discipline and a profession. It is founded in knowledge originating from a variety of disciplines. The health education body of knowledge represents a synthesis of facts, principles, and concepts drawn from biological, behavioral, sociological, and health sciences but interpreted in terms of human needs, human values, and human potential.

Health education incorporates ideas from numerous areas in order to develop strategies to encourage individuals and communities to adopt behaviors and practices that are conducive to better health. It is more than hygiene, more than fitness, more than anatomy, and more than medical intervention. It is a broad field that focuses not just on dissemination of information, but on development of critical-thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills.

Although education about health has occurred throughout history, attention to health education as a field became more concerted in the 1970s. Following increased control over communicable diseases, health professionals began concentrating on efforts to target chronic illnesses such as cardiovascular disease and cancer. Unlike their communicable predecessors, these noncommunicable diseases were associated with lifestyle factors rather than exposure to a disease-causing agent. With a new type of disease cause, it became evident that reducing disease-related deaths and cutting costs of health care would be best achieved through prevention and health promotion.

Following publication of Canada’s A New Perspective on the Health of Canadians in 1974, the United States passed the Health Information and Health Promotion Act, which resulted in the development of the Office of Health Information and Promotion. In addition, a series of government reports emerged to outline national measurable health objectives and provide a foundation on which to develop programs for improving health. Expanding on the 1979 Surgeon General’s Report, the third and most recent in the series focuses on two primary issues: (a) increasing quantity and quality of lives and (b) eliminating the health disparities among segments of the population. Goals are presented under 10 leading health indicators: physical activity, overweight and obesity, tobacco use, substance abuse, responsible sexual behavior, mental health, injury and violence, environmental quality, immunization, and access to health care.

HEALTH EDUCATION SETTINGS:
WHAT DO HEALTH EDUCATORS REALLY DO?

Health education encompasses a variety of methods and processes and can take place in a variety of settings. Individuals pursuing careers in this field may find themselves facing vastly different professional scenarios and leadership challenges. Employment opportunities are available in primary and secondary schools, higher education, nonprofit organizations, community settings, and corporate worksites. Job responsibilities could include developing exercise plans for company employees in on-site gyms, teaching students basic health concepts in the classroom, organizing programs to teach cancer prevention self-examinations to community members, or even working with political leaders to develop and implement health-promoting legislation.

The settings for health education may be best divided into four major areas: school health education, community/public health education, worksite health education, and health care setting health education. School health education is mainly focused around teaching children health-related concepts and healthy behaviors, and it often fits into a coordinated school health program that also involves physical activity, nutritious dietary options, nursing and health services, psychological and social services, and health promotion for faculty and staff.

In contrast, community/public health educators tend to be more focused on communities at large. Professionals in community settings might work for either voluntary or governmental health agencies and could address community health issues through a variety of methods, such as communication (sometimes through mass media), skills training, community organization, policy making, and advocacy.

Another opportunity for health education is found in worksite health promotion programs. Although worksite health education differs from site to site, it typically involves programming on three levels, educational, organizational, and environmental, for the purpose of improving the health of company employees and even their families. Health educators in worksite
settings may find themselves helping employees with exercise programs in on-site fitness facilities, educating workers about stress management, or working with food services to secure healthier food selections in the company cafeteria.

In addition to schools, communities, and worksites, some health educators find employment in health care settings. Sometimes, health education in this setting can be similar to worksite programs in that health educators may be hired to coordinate programs for health care employees, but other opportunities also exist. Health educators can provide education to patients in order to better equip them to handle a health condition upon discharge from a hospital or clinic; for example, a health educator might provide a heart disease patient with dietary suggestions for reducing saturated fat intake. At times, health educators in health care settings are involved in community outreach activities for their employers, such as planning local health fairs or blood pressure screenings on occasion.

HEALTH EDUCATOR

ROLES AND CERTIFICATION

While the specific settings and tasks of health educators can vary greatly, the processes they use to accomplish their work are very similar. It is based on this foundation of common knowledge and skills that professionals band together and work toward strengthening health education as a profession.

In 1979, for instance, funding began for the role delineation project for health educators. In this project, a task force of health education professionals from a variety of settings found similarities in their work and sought to translate the diversity of their experiences into a unified concept of the health educator’s role. This resulted in the development of a curriculum framework to guide the education provided to future professionals. A document authored by this task force outlined the responsibilities and competencies required to characterize entry-level health educators.

Seven responsibilities for health educators were identified: assessing individual and community needs for health education; planning effective health education programs; implementing health education programs; evaluating effectiveness of health education programs; coordinating provision of health education services; acting as a resource person in health education; and communicating health and health education needs, concerns, and resources. Each of these responsibilities is composed of competencies and subcompetencies that further detail the seven major areas.

In addition to specification of a curriculum framework and responsibilities, the task force established a certification process for health educators. In 1990, the first Certified Health Education Specialists (CHES) examination was given. To date, the CHES exam remains the certification process for health educators. Eligibility to sit for the exam is academically based, requiring a major in health education (or closely related area) or a minimum number of credits in coursework addressing the health educator’s responsibilities. After passing the exam, certified health education specialists can be identified through the initials “CHES” after their names.

PRIORITY ISSUES IN HEALTH EDUCATION

Health educators, in their many settings, face constant challenges in a world of ever-changing information. Due to the broad reach of health education and the nature of its content, several issues are currently receiving significant attention and are likely to remain focal points in the near future. These priority areas include but are not limited to health disparities, access to health care, national preparedness (or readiness for terrorist attacks, whether biological, chemical, radiological, or nuclear; obesity), diabetes prevention, age-appropriate screenings, and other disease prevention practices. Other current critical areas include the use of new communication technologies as health education tools, genomics and public health, chronic disease prevention and management, promotion of multidisciplinary approaches to health promotion, and community-based participatory action research.

As new health-related issues and concerns arise, health education will undoubtedly change its methods and adapt its strategies. However, the guiding values of the field—respect for human autonomy, social justice, caring, and responsibility—will definitely remain unchanged.

—Catherine Rasberry and Patricia Goodson

See also athletics in schools; death education; drug education; early childhood education; emotional disturbance; individual differences, in children; learning environments; physical education

Further Readings and References

HEURISTICS

A heuristic is a rule of thumb that can help a school administrator find a solution in a complex and uncertain situation. Heuristics is one version of “bounded rationality” used in organizational decision making. Administrative decision making is assumed to be rational. By this is meant that school administrators make decisions under certainty: They know their alternatives; they know their outcomes; they know their decision criteria; and they have the ability to make the optimum choice and then to implement it.

ASSUMPTIONS OF RATIONALITY

If a decision maker were completely rational, he or she would have perfect information, know all alternatives, determine every consequence, and establish a complete preference scale. Moreover, the steps in the decision-making process would consistently lead toward selecting the alternative that maximizes the solution to each decision problem (see Figure 1).

As noted by S. P. Robbins in 1993, the following summarizes the assumptions of rational decision making.

- Problem clarity. In rational decision making, the problem identity is clear and unambiguous. The decision maker is assumed to have complete information regarding the problem and the decision situation.

- Goal orientation. In rational decision making, there is no conflict concerning the goal orientation. Whether the decision involves increasing test scores, reducing dropouts, or developing new approaches to teaching, the decision maker has a single, well-defined goal that he or she is trying to reach.

- Known options. It is assumed that the decision maker is creative, can identify all relevant criteria, and can list all the viable alternatives: knows all options. Furthermore, the decision maker is aware of all the possible consequences for each alternative.

- Clear preferences. Rationality assumes that the criteria and alternatives can be ranked in order of importance, that there are clear preferences.

- Constant preferences. In addition to a clear goal and preferences, it is assumed that the specific decision criteria are constant and the scales or weights assigned to them are stable over time.

- No time or cost constraints. The rational decision maker can obtain full information about criteria and alternatives because it is assumed there are no time or cost constraints.

- Maximization. The rational decision maker always chooses the alternative that will yield the maximum payoff to the organization. It should be noted here that the decision maker is assumed to be maximizing the organization’s interests, not the interests of the decision maker.

Rational decision making assumes that decision makers have a tremendous mental capacity both for remembering and storing huge quantities of information and for processing that information in order to choose the optimum solution to each decision problem. Although administrative decision making can follow rational assumptions, most decisions that school administrators face do not meet all of the criteria of complete rationality.

LIMITS TO RATIONALITY

Frequently, school administrators are not aware that problems exist. Even when they are, they do not systematically search for all possible alternative solutions. They are limited by time constraints, cost, and the ability to process information. So they generate a partial list of alternative solutions to the problem based on their experience, intuition, advice from others, and perhaps even some creative thought. Rationality is therefore limited. Herbert Simon, in 1982, coined the
The term “bounded rationality” to describe the decision maker who would like to make the best decisions but normally settles for less than the optimal.

In contrast to complete rationality in decision making, bounded rationality implies the following:

- Decisions will always be based on an incomplete and, to some degree, inadequate comprehension of the true nature of the problem being faced.
- Decision makers will never succeed in generating all possible alternative solutions for consideration.
- Alternatives are always evaluated incompletely because it is impossible to predict accurately all consequences associated with each alternative.
- The ultimate decision regarding which alternative to choose must be based on some criterion other than maximization or optimization because it is impossible to ever determine which alternative is optimal.

One version of bounded rationality is the principle of satisficing. This approach to decision making involves choosing the first alternative that satisfies minimal standards of acceptability without exploring all possibilities. This is the usual approach taken by decision makers.

**HEURISTICS**

When school administrators make satisficing decisions, they may use a set of heuristics to guide their decisions. For example, an heuristic for dealing with other people is the Golden Rule: “Do unto others as you would have them do unto you.” Football coaches use the rule, “When in doubt, punt.” In playing chess, we follow the rule of “controlling the center of the board.” A heuristic for investors is that if a stock drops 10% or more below its purchased price, they should sell.

In management science, there are many well-known heuristics used to make a wide variety of decisions. Some of these include the following: “The customer is always right.” “Treat employees as mature adults.” “When in doubt, stick to the business you know best.” These are all rules that help simplify complex decision-making situations. Applying heuristics often helps school administrators make satisficing decisions possible. But the heuristic approach, as with judgment and intuition, has a tendency to oversimplify complex problems or introduce bias into decision making.

—Fred C. Lunenburg

**See also** administration, theories of; case studies; classification of education; conceptual systems theory and leadership; creativity, in management; critical thinking; dialectical inquiry; knowledge base, of the field; language theories and processes; learning, theories of; management theories; organizational theories; rational organizational theory; reduction in force; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; satisficing theory; social psychology; systems theory/thinking

**Further Readings and References**


Hierarchical developmental models figure prominently in many current theories of education. However, the idea of hierarchical development models is far from new, as seen in Plato’s three-tiered view of personal development and social organization in *The Republic*. In fact, Plato’s model has all the major elements of many conventional hierarchical developmental models. First, it deals with *maturation*; second, it assumes that *not all people will ultimately mature to the same level*; third, it is *invariant*, which is to say that one cannot “skip” stages; fourth, it is *unitary*—which is to say that a person moves as a whole from one stage (after having satisfied the requirements of that stage) to another, and does not partially remain in the earlier stage and partially go on to the other; and fifth, it has educational implications and applications. Not all hierarchical developmental models have all of these elements, but all of them have at least several of them. Developmentally appropriate curricula—from those suggested by Jean Jacques Rousseau, Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi, and Friedrich Froebel, to those championed by the Progressives in the first half of the twentieth century, to those still advocated today—typically rest on some notion of hierarchical development. There continues to be a particularly strong emphasis on developmentally appropriate education in holistically oriented schools, such as Waldorf and Montessori, and in the earlier grades in U.S. public education.

In the twentieth century, a variety of hierarchical developmental models were posited that continue to be highly influential in educational theory and practice. The Freudian model of psychosexual development, for instance, which was central to decisions about what to teach to students and when and how to do it, influenced schools throughout the twentieth century, as well as private institutions such as Margaret Naumburg’s Country and Day School, later called Walden Schools, where Naumburg asked all of her teachers to undergo psychoanalysis so that they would be adroit at handling psychosexually based developmental issues with students. The great Freudian psychiatrist of adolescence, August Aichhorn, also wrote in 1935 that such knowledge was essential for teachers.

Jean Piaget’s hierarchical developmental model has had widespread influence on curriculum theory and instructional practices. This model posits four stages: sensorimotor, in which the child is learning to organize its perceptual world and physically negotiate it (birth to 2 years); preoperational, in which the child becomes able to pretend and imagine (2 to 7 years); concrete operational, in which the child is learning the basic rules that govern his or her physical world (7 to 11 years); and formal operational, in which the person learns to think analytically about psychological, social, and ethical questions (12 years and on). Closely related to Piaget’s model of cognitive development is Lawrence Kohlberg’s model of the development of moral reasoning, which goes from preconventional moral reasoning (thinking something is good or bad because one’s parents said so) to conventional moral reasoning (making moral judgments based on social norms) and concludes with postconventional moral reasoning (determining what is right or wrong on the basis of putatively universal philosophical principles).

The Swiss psychiatrist Carl Jung noted in 1981 that most models of psychological development do not address the issues of people in the second half of life (generally seen as beginning around 35 or 40)—issues that in his view, were more spiritual in nature, dealing with things such as one’s overall sense of accomplishment in life, one’s heightened awareness of one’s own mortality, and one’s belief (or lack thereof) in some sort of continued existence after this life. The Freudian theorist Erik Erikson also turned his attention to such matters in 1997, speaking of the salient need later in life for “generativity” (the belief that one is making a positive difference in the world) and “ego integrity” (the sense that one’s life, seen as a whole, has made sense and had a purpose). These “second-half-of-life developmental models” have laid the groundwork for adult education over the last several decades.

A major criticism of developmental models is that they run the risk of claiming that certain *types* or *schedules* of development are existentially normative when, in fact, they are culturally conditioned. To privilege a certain developmental model, therefore—typically, of course, the one that reflects the norms of the cultural group that is dominant in a society—will marginalize people from other groups. In education, this

may lead to “diagnosing” a cognitive and/or developmental “problem” in a student where there is really just a cultural difference. This is an important critique, suggesting the need for the utmost cultural sensitivity in the pedagogical use of these models. Another criticism is that development is sometimes neither linear nor unitary. Some individuals may skip stages; attain certain stages in some respects and not in others; revisit previous stages either in part or in whole, and in general develop in complex and recursive ways that defy a simple linear analysis. A final critique of the standard models of development is that they generally do not account for what Abraham Maslow in 1968 called “transpersonal” domains of spiritual development, which go beyond the strictly psychosocial issues that lie at the core of most standard hierarchical developmental models. Hierarchical developmental models, despite their potential limitations, continue to serve important educational purposes.

—Clifford Mayes

See also adult education; child development theories; cognition, theories of; creativity, theories of; Freud, Sigmund; Jung, Carl; Maslow, Abraham; Piaget, Jean; multiculturalism; personality; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References


Hierarchy, in Organizations

Hierarchy refers to a fundamental characteristic of the classical bureaucratic organization as described by Max Weber in his seminal analysis of organizations. Specifically, the term refers to a top-down structure in which managers and workers have clearly defined spheres of responsibility in an organization. Authority is centralized at the top and flows down the chain of command.

The organization chart is the standard way to indicate spheres of responsibilities, reflecting a Weberian theory of hierarchy. Leaders at the top of the organization chart deal with more complex issues, have increased accountability, and hold concentrated authority. Vertical linkages indicate subordinates who have graded authority characterized by vertical communication.

Hierarchical strategies provide a straightforward, widely accepted way of managing organizations, offering the promise of efficiency, control, and predictable routines through the efficient deployment of workers. In addition, hierarchical strategies include the use of rational analysis to determine the “best” course of action and then the assertion of formal authority to carry it out. From a systems theoretical perspective, the hierarchy enhances the strength of a system because it ensures that environmental influence does not destroy a system in duress, but merely the part under pressure. This characteristic gives the hierarchy an advantage over other structures, which explains in part its dominance in organizations.

The word hierarchy often evokes a negative reaction, suggesting mindless compliance by subordinates, which leads to worker dissatisfaction, alienation, resistance, and hostility. A related criticism of hierarchy is that it tends to diminish workers’ creativity and commitments due to excessive control. A common complaint is that excessive layering in the hierarchy results in decisions having to pass through too many levels, leading to a lack of clear communication and timely responses.

In response to these shortcomings, new ways of understanding how organizations can function in noncentralized, nonhierarchical ways have been suggested. A central element in this train of thought is that hierarchy need not always be present for complex systems to do their work. Some organizations are breaking down the vertical hierarchy in favor of cross-functional teams, matrix groupings, and self-organizing systems, to name a few. Others, addressing specifically school bureaucracies, have postulated that changing the kind of hierarchy from one that hinders to one that enables is critical for improving schools. In exchanging the dysfunctional, hindering hierarchy for
an enabling hierarchy, rigidity, autocracy, and control are replaced with flexibility, cooperation, and collaboration. An enabling hierarchy encourages workers’ confidence and increases authority in their roles. Regardless of the kind of hierarchy and despite the criticisms, the hierarchical structure remains the dominant organizational configuration, due in part to the fact that effective organizations must have leadership, direction, coordination, and accountability, all characteristics commonly associated with a hierarchy.

—Susan R. Wynn

See also authority; bureaucracy; chain of command; Chicago school reform; organizational theories; power; rational organization theory; role conflict; role theory; span of control; superintendency; systems theory/thinking; Weber, Max

Further Readings and References


HIGH SCHOOLS

Expansion of purpose, access, offerings, enrollment, and support characterize the development of the high school in the United States. By the early twenty-first century, however, reform proposals challenged some or all of those developments.

HISTORY AND REFORM EFFORTS

Latin Grammar Schools were the first form of secondary education in America. Adopted from the English model, from the late seventeenth century to the late eighteenth century, these schools offered the sons of the social elite a classical curriculum that emphasized formalistic study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages and literature. A Latin Grammar School education prepared students for postsecondary study toward positions in the clergy, law, and politics. With the founding of the new nation in the late eighteenth century, a new form of secondary education emerged, the academy. In response to the demands of a rising mercantile middle class, the academy offered a relatively diversified curriculum that emphasized practical subjects over the classical curriculum. In addition to algebra, geometry, English, and modern foreign languages, academies included in their curriculum vocational subjects such as bookkeeping, navigation, and surveying. Academies were financed through tuition, public funding, or both.

With the founding of English High School in 1821, in Boston, the public high school began to develop alongside academies. Although previously, the distinction between public and private schools had been unclear, with both public funds supporting private academies and publicly funded academies accepting tuition, during the mid-nineteenth century, fully tax-supported high schools emerged. After the Civil War, public high schools largely supplanted academies, the latter typically either merging with public schools or becoming private boarding schools, a number of which still exist, especially in the Northeast. Although remaining an elite institution in both theory and practice until the early twentieth century, the public high school had by that time gradually expanded both its curriculum and enrollments.

Between the 1890s and the Great War, the American high school underwent a sort of revolution. During this time, in response to industrialization, immigration, and urbanization, enrollment and curriculum offerings expanded rapidly, and the high school began to be viewed as a mass institution. In 1890, for example, high school enrollment represented about 5.6% of 14- to 17-year-olds, and high school graduates represented about 3.5% of the population of 17-year-olds. By 1910, these figures were 14.3% and 8.8%, respectively; by 1920, they were 31.2% and 16.8%. Continuing a practice that began with the academies and that during the late nineteenth century received impetus from the vocational education movement, during the early twentieth century, vocational courses increasingly comprised part of the high school curriculum.

Around 1910, a debate occurred over whether American high schools should emulate European, especially German, models of secondary education in which academic and vocational studies and students were organized into separate educational systems, the latter governed by business interests, or whether vocational
and academic courses should be offered under the same roof. From this debate emerged a unique educational institution, the comprehensive high school. By assembling academic and vocational programs and pupils under one roof, the comprehensive high school sought to fulfill two functions. The specializing function would provide a comprehensive curriculum to accommodate the specialized interests, aptitudes, and aspirations of a heterogeneous adolescent population. The unifying function would provide opportunities for students from different walks of life to intermingle in order to promote social solidarity and cohesion. In a departure from the elite vision of the high school of the nineteenth century, the comprehensive high school would serve all youth.

The implementation of the comprehensive high school, however, was rarely true to its original design. As the specializing function of the comprehensive high school was embraced and operationalized through a growing range of new courses, the unifying function was neglected. In 1895, for example, a survey of offerings identified 16 different subjects offered in high school curricula, mostly traditional academic courses; by 1934, high schools offered no less than 204 distinct subjects. Expansion of subjects was greatest in vocational courses, although the enrollment in those subjects remained small. During the 1920s, as psychologists sought to impose group testing practices developed during World War I on the public schools, standardized testing followed by instructional and curricular differentiation were imposed on secondary schools, with the frequent result that differentiation trumped unification as specialized grouping usually crystallized into tracking. Although extracurricular activities also proliferated during this period, they could barely achieve the unifying effect originally sought for them.

During the 1930s and 1940s, as national energies were directed at resolving the great social crises of the era, namely the Depression and the Second World War, the high school was expected to contribute both to these specific developments and generally to the social functions of schooling. A commitment to improving retention rates was complemented by efforts to develop curricula that addressed the needs and concerns of youth. With the increase in vocational courses coupled with a continuing expansion of enrollments, the percentage of enrollments in traditional academic courses decreased from about 78% in 1914 to 1915 to about 62% in 1933 to 1934, while the percentage of enrollments in vocational courses increased from about 22% to about 38%. For the rest of the twentieth century, the proportion of enrollments in academic and vocational courses remained stable, with slight periodic fluctuations reflecting contemporary reform trends. As an increasing proportion of the age cohort attended and graduated from high school, a correspondingly increased proportion of adolescents accessed the academic curriculum.

Beginning in the late 1940s, however, bitter attacks were launched on the public schools, particularly the high school and especially on any program that smacked of “progressivism,” by self-appointed school critics who discerned in the expansion of “nonacademic” courses in the high school curriculum a drift from a historic commitment to academic curriculum. Implementation of the desegregation mandate of the Supreme Court’s Brown v. Board of Education (1954) decision, which had effectively affirmed the unifying function of public education, was shamefully slow. During the late 1950s, the Sputnik crisis made academic preparation for cold war military and industrial rivalry the national priority and the reform prescription for the secondary school. Although James Bryant Conant, in 1959, proposed a version of the comprehensive high school suited to a purported cold war need to identify talent in math, science, and foreign languages, his was to be the last high-profile advocacy of the comprehensive high school model. Surveys of offerings and enrollments revealed increases in enrollments in math, science, and foreign language courses, reflecting the post-Sputnik priority placed on these subjects.

During the 1960s, even as the cold war and its pressures on the secondary school intensified, the demand for academic priority was gradually displaced by new allegations of appallingly bureaucratic and depersonalizing school settings, as well as by belated federal legislation intended to promote equalization of social and economic opportunity through the public schools. In the wake of the discipline-centered reforms of the late 1950s and 1960s, attempts to enhance the “relevance” of the secondary school experience were manifest in an increase of elective courses during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Surveys of offerings and enrollments revealed a slight decline of enrollment in traditional academic courses and a corresponding increase in enrollment in courses such as sociology, environmental science, consumer education, earth and space science, and drama. As the nation slid into economic retrenchment and political malaise and disillusionment,
initially marginal calls for alternative forms of secondary schooling received the imprimatur of a series of blue-ribbon reports. Although alternative secondary schools never became widespread, during the late 1970s, economic retrenchment precipitated educational retrenchment as the scope of curricular offerings contracted and focus returned to basic academics.

The return to basic academics during the late 1970s prompted state legislatures to increase academic graduation requirements. This trend continued during the early 1980s, when anxiety over the inability of American corporations to compete effectively in the global marketplace led to placing the blame for the lack of international economic competitiveness of American corporations on the public schools, especially on the high school. Reform proposals recommended reducing the secondary curriculum to a narrow college preparatory program aimed at producing students knowledgeable of scientific and technical advances conducive to promoting global economic competitiveness. This push for educational, that is, academic, “excellence” over the next two decades precipitated calls for higher academic standards, for actual national and state curriculum standards, and for heightened accountability of secondary schools through high-stakes testing.

CURRENT ISSUES

A plethora of issues swirls around the efficacy of the American high school. Perennial issues include access to and the appropriate nature of the secondary curriculum. As the proportion of the adolescent population enrolled in secondary schools relentlessly expanded from less than 6% in 1890 to about 94% in 2000, issues pertaining to the kinds of curriculum appropriate for students and the organization of the curriculum persisted. What part of the high school curriculum should be common to all students? What is the appropriate nature of the common curriculum? What part of the high school curriculum should be specialized according to student aptitude, ability, and aspirations? What is the proper place of vocational education in the public high school? What is the proper relationship between vocational and academic curricula? Should students pursue differentiated curricula based upon aptitude, ability, and aspirations? Because research has revealed negative educational consequences from tracking, attention has been devoted to ways to eliminate the practice. At the beginning of the twenty-first century, major issues facing the American high school relate to matters of size, accountability, choice, commercialization, and purpose.

School Size

After 1960, as enrollment expansion was accompanied by sheer numerical growth of the adolescent age cohort, the average size of high schools grew in terms of the number of students housed in a given building. In 2000 to 2001, approximately 50% of high schools enrolled 600 students or less, approximately 20% enrolled between 600 and 1,000 students, and approximately 30% of regular high schools enrolled over 1,000 students. Significantly, however, about 62% of all students in regular high schools were enrolled in schools of 1,000 or more pupils. Overly large schools occasioned concerns about impersonal school environments that were not conducive to learning. A movement emerged to make high schools smaller in terms of the number of students in a given school. Because of the prohibitive cost of constructing additional buildings, other means of establishing smaller, personal environments received attention. Schools within schools, for example, were promoted as one response to the problems associated with size, although previous efforts of this kind were effectively ignored. Research on the optimal size for high schools, however, revealed not only that schools could be too large but also that schools could be too small. It has been estimated that the ideal size for a high school in terms of optimizing both academic achievement and its equitable distribution among students is in the range of 600 to 900 students.

Academics and Accountability

The push for academic excellence that began in 1983 with A Nation At Risk and permutated into the standards and then the accountability movements exerted unprecedented emphasis on academic achievement as the superordinate outcome of secondary education for all students. The initial rationale for focused emphasis on academic achievement was deployment of the public schools to train workers with the necessary skills to place the United States in a position of international economic competitiveness. This reform movement was based on the fallacious assumption that improved academic achievement translated into improved worker productivity. Although this movement also precipitated reforms in
vocational education, principally the school-to-work and apprenticeship initiatives, emphasis on holding schools accountable for high levels of academic achievement—the educational bottom line—only heightened. Not even the exposure of a seeming epidemic of irregularities in corporate accounting practices could thwart the thrust of this business model of school reform. Federal legislation, such as the Goals 2000: Education American Act of 1994 and the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, purposed to hold elementary, middle, and secondary schools increasingly accountable through stricter graduation requirements and a regimen of high-stakes testing and mandated “adequate yearly progress,” as indicated by test scores.

Choice

Calls for increased accountability of public high schools were often justified with appeals to market ideology, which purported that high schools should be held accountable to the bottom line of test scores. Market ideology also provided the rationale for proposals to compel schools to compete against each other for students and therefore be forced to improve in response to consumer demand. Some choice proposals, such as vouchers and intradistrict school choice, would provide parents with the option of moving their pupils and a portion of funding to public schools of their choosing. Some proposals for vouchers would transfer public funding to private schools. Other choice options, such as charter schools, would free schools from constraints of administrative code and some regulations in order to enable experimentation, innovation, and customization, usually along some specialized theme or focus, and thus make these schools responsive to the education marketplace.

Commercialization and Privatization

Although packaged as strict measures to reform public schools, choice-driven reforms also moved public schools toward privatization. Beginning in the 1980s, subtle forms of marketing to the captive youth audience appeared in schools, such as in corporate-generated instructional materials, while financially strained schools increasingly supplemented funding with revenues generated from in-house advertising. Around the same time, many aspects of school programs, from food and custodial services to curriculum and even to wholesale management of schools, were privatized or contracted to private concerns. The complexity of high schools has discouraged full-scale management on that level.

Purpose

The development of the comprehensive high school represented an extension of the common school ideal—education for all citizens—from the elementary to the secondary grades. Thus, during the early twentieth century, reformers envisioned the American high school as providing students not only with appropriate academic and vocational skills but also with the capacity and the dispositions requisite to effective participation in a diverse democratic society. By the late twentieth century, the political and social purposes of the high school, that is, preparation for citizenship in a democracy and life in a diverse society, became overshadowed by the imperatives of job training and college preparation. Moreover, as enrollment and graduation rates accelerated throughout the twentieth century, the high school diploma no longer sufficed for entry to well-paying jobs. The 2- but especially the 4-year college degree began to replace the high school diploma as the ticket to lucrative employment. As a result, speculation emerged that this credential inflation necessitated a rethinking of the role of the high school as a terminal institution and that instead, the high school should function as a transitional institution that prepares students for postsecondary education required for a competitive edge in the high-tech and information-based economy. How the approximately 40% of students who do not pursue postsecondary education would be served and how preparation for citizenship in a democracy and life in a diverse society would be accomplished in such a narrowly focused secondary institution number among the issues that remain unresolved in such a scheme.

Meanwhile, in the midst of reforms that exalt academic achievement, promote specialized and even special interest schools, and even lean toward the privatization of public education, that American invention, the comprehensive high school model, has, at best, become taken for granted, and, at worst, been dismissed by reformers in the United States. Ironically, however, during the same period in which American education reformers have lost sight of the comprehensive model, educators and policymakers in Europe have embraced the model as an instrument of enlightened educational
egalitarianism. The American high school has changed significantly over the past 200 years. Whether current reform efforts build upon and refine existing secondary structures or depart radically from the high school as it has come to be known remains to be seen.

—William G. Wraga

See also accountability; adolescence; charter schools; choice, of schools; curriculum guides; equality, in schools; extracurricular activities; junior high schools; market theory of schooling; middle schools; A Nation at Risk; No Child Left Behind; philosophies of education; principal-ship; privatization; productivity; scheduling, types of in schools; school size; social relations, dimensions of; staffing, concepts of; tracking, of students; violence in schools; voucher plans

Further Readings and References


HIGHER EDUCATION

Claiming foundational roots in the traditions of intellectual, advanced, and higher education of Ancient Greece, Rome, Middle East and Western Europe, higher education in the United States has a history focused upon issues of purpose and access. During each major developmental era in the history of American higher education, institutions have faced questions about purpose and also about access. Issues involving purpose generally focus on whether higher education serves society or critiques it and on whether it prepares students for graduate professional education and careers, for applied vocations, or for personal edification. Questions of access have centered upon admission requirements and upon cultural analyses of those allowed or chosen to enter institutions. In most recent history, issues of access have become as important as those of purpose, contributing in major ways to the modification of purpose. Primary factors in historical analyses of purpose and access have been the roles of colonial, state, and federal governments and, as well, roles of churches and private enterprise.

Higher education in the United States has a rather distinct history, beginning with colonization, proceeding through the early republic into the rise of the classical and denominational college, into the period after the first Morrill Act into a period of professional rights and responsibilities and standardization, into the academic revolution through to the end of the twentieth century, and into the twenty-first century of focus on access through distance education and instruction through digital frameworks, issues of intellectual property rights, and business partnerships. Closely related are conversations about the role of faculty in instruction and the changing role of the student, surfacing primarily in response to computer technologies and Internet access. Each period has in some significant, yet unique way addressed issues of purpose and access.

THE NORTH AMERICAN BEGINNINGS: COLLEGES OF THE COLONIAL PERIOD, 1636–1775

The first colleges of the New World’s British colonies were established for the purposes of supporting and promoting the precepts of the particular establishing colonial churches and were constituent institutions of these churches. Some settlers, alumni of Oxford or Cambridge, believed higher education to be important in the new colonies. The Puritans, for example, believed that clergy should be learned and that their civil leaders should be educated. Students of the original institutions were men who were preparing for the
ministry or civil positions within the established colonial churches and governments. The first three colleges of the American British colonies were Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale, with Harvard, the oldest, being chartered in 1636. Calvinist in origin, Harvard, like many of the first colleges, became more secular during the eighteenth century. Only Yale continued its strict church relationship well into the eighteenth century. While each college submitted to church authority to some degree, each also depended financially upon its supporting colonial governments.

While originally supporting a mission of educating ministers, each of the beginning institutions eventually moved away from this as its sole purpose and supported, in addition, education for public employment in areas other than the ministry. Harvard was the first to support focused professorships with the hiring of individuals, the first solely for the purpose of teaching divinity and the second for mathematics and natural philosophy. This division in disciplinary areas, reflecting the change in purpose, eventually became the norm.

This change in purpose was also reflected through the alteration of governing structures of some institutions as well as a change in academic goals of those admitted for study. By the end of the American Revolution, there were nine colleges and seminaries, some of which were formed during the time of the First Great Awakening (1730–1770), when a number of new Protestant churches were formed. With the founding of the College of New Jersey, in 1746, the traditional governing structure of reformation colleges was altered in that the Presbyterians of the New Jersey colony elected a board of trustees composed of ministers, laymen, and the colony’s governor, who served as convener of the board. While the college preferred Presbyterian students, it was tolerant of other religious denominations. This pattern also existed in other colleges, with only one college of this period deemed unsuccessful because of its failure to display tolerance in its mission.

Curriculum, at the end of this period, reflected preparation for the occupations sought by men who aspired to the status of the gentleman. Influenced by the works of John Locke and Sir Isaac Newton, the curriculum of this period reflected not only vocational purposes but also the culture of the times. Access was given to sons of landed farmers, especially those not in line for inheritance, who attended college because education gave them opportunities for other influential work in public life as ministers, lawyers, or civil servants. History reveals that the young, White men who attended these early institutions made memorable contributions to American political thought and action. While access was still elite and exclusive, a select number of Native Americans were admitted for missionary purposes. The real outcome of this era’s higher education, however, was the emergence of an American elite, exemplifying qualities of literacy, articulation, and responsibility.

While Latin had long been the instructional language prior to the end of this era, it no longer held this particular status and became, instead, a language to study along with Greek, thus making higher education more accessible. For the first time, professors participated in the recognized occupation of teaching. Interestingly, colleges of the period generally enrolled fewer than 100 students, with most neglecting to complete degrees.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC: THE RISE OF CLASSICAL AND DENOMINATIONAL COLLEGES, 1776–1850

While there was little activity on college campuses around the time of the War of Independence, those who participated in campus education heard the message of patriotism, a wartime message focused on the goal of establishing a new republic. During the war, college education virtually ceased but revived again near the time of the Constitution in 1788. Under the new nation, theology and science were taught side-by-side, with theology supporting the truth of science. The citizens of the new republic valued and supported higher education and colleges.

During the postwar era, states, such as Maryland, Georgia, and North Carolina, previously without colleges, quickly chartered state colleges, which eventually opened for students. During this same time, reorganizations occurred at some of the founding colleges. William and Mary, for example, instituted a new faculty structure, and the State University of New York was established to balance the perceived conservative nature of Columbia University.

Colleges continued to exist during this period despite extreme financial weakness and poor enrollments of only three fourths of the targeted male population, 1% being the optimum enrollment. This financial weakness can further be illustrated by the fact that Yale and Princeton employed only one professor each at the turn of the century, with Harvard supporting only three.
Previously perceived to be of high value for religious, civil, and personal reasons, higher education continued to suffer as the Second Great Awakening of the early nineteenth century confronted rational Christianity. In addition, the election of Thomas Jefferson is reported to have contributed by halting the previously touted patriotic foundational ideology of republicanism. Despite these seeming setbacks in higher education, several colleges reported success, and enrollments were at the viable 1% of male population by 1820.

Still open primarily to White males, this period was plagued by the desire of colleges to control the unruly men who attended them. Banding together, students resisted college authoritarianism, and riots became the norm at many institutions. Some institutions vowed to control rule breakers with humiliating public punishments, causing the reputations of some colleges to suffer. Seeking a solution to rebellion, several institutions reinstated the traditional Latin and Greek curriculum, hoping that rigor would control students who wished to remain at the institutions. By this time, professors knowledgeable of Latin and Greek were difficult to find, and other efforts to take the curriculum back to days before the formation of the republic failed. However, because knowledge of ancient languages and literature carried some clout in wealthy social circles and among those who were gentlemen, language study added some credibility to campus life. Because of curriculum changes and waning value of education, preparation for professions as an aspect of regular college study waned. Partially through strengthening language study, colleges established admissions standards, and the problem of student rebellion was addressed.

While an emphasis on professions declined in the regular college curriculum, a need for professional schools remained, promoting the establishment of professional schools, the majority of which focused on law, medicine, and the ministry.

With the transition from colonial to republican government, there arose a question of ownership of the colleges established during the colonial period. The Dartmouth Case of 1819 aided in clarifying ownership of institutions of higher education with the Supreme Court’s decision that the ownership of the classical American colleges belonged to the colleges themselves and not to the newly formed state legislatures trying to gain control of them. This case provided support for the new, private institutions emerging as professional schools.

During the period of 1820 to 1850, resulting from the return to classical curriculum and the Dartmouth decision, colleges emerged primarily as institutions for wealthy men and laid a classical preparatory foundation for professional studies. Classical studies served to provide mental discipline, culture, and balance and preceded the attendance at graduate programs focused on the professions.

Establishing this position as the norm for the wealthy, the Yale Report of 1829 justified classical studies as foundational. Therefore, colleges of the Northeast continued to focus primarily on a narrowly conceived classical, liberal education for the wealthy, while denominational colleges of the Allegheny and Appalachian West served to provide an education for less wealthy persons, sometimes offering work or barter for tuition. Admission to the western colleges was much more open than that of New England colleges, since towns of the new West wanted to establish themselves as cultural and economic centers. Interestingly, many of these western colleges initially wanted to replicate the classical curriculum offered by established eastern colleges. Coming as a result of the desire to establish a semblance of culture and reflecting the influence of their denominational foundations along with the influence of their professors from these classical colleges, western colleges soon provided preparatory studies to the more classical studies.

Influenced by the common school movement of the 1830s, colleges answered the need for teachers by establishing education preparation programs to which women were admitted and by opening new institutions, usually seminaries, established for women. Wesleyan Female College of Macon, Georgia, was the first such institution. It is important to note that Oberlin was the first college, in 1833, to admit women to an all-male institution, 50 years after the rejection of a woman’s application from Yale based on gender. Private, denominational colleges also emerged in the Northeast and South during this period and flourished. College enrollments jumped by approximately 80%.

While nearly 200 new institutions of higher education emerged during this period, colleges suffered high closure rates, and many struggled to remain open on a year-to-year basis. While there were many new programs at these colleges—engineering, science, law, medicine, among others—graduate degrees and certifications were in general not a requirement. Because there was a great need to produce family income, many families measured the need for income against the prestige of
college attendance. College often lost out among the middle class and small farmers. In New England, however, younger sons affected by the primogeniture laws often attended college in an effort to establish themselves in the ministry, law, or medicine.

It was not until after the 1837 economic crash that the validity of the curricula of Eastern colleges was questioned. Preparation of the wealthy for professional vocations only, neglecting the need for practitioners in the business and industrial world, was seen as shortsighted when the country needed more knowledgeable and responsible practitioners to aid in transforming the American economy and, as well, to run businesses of the industrial world.

**NEW VENTURES AND FINANCIAL SUPPORT: PROFESSIONAL RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES, STANDARDIZATION, 1850–1945**

Previous to the American Civil War, there were in existence examples of the types of significant reforms attributed primarily to the postwar period. There were, for example, forms of graduate education in place; colleges had begun to give access to students other than White males; colleges specifically for women and African Americans had been established; a number of colleges had been established by a variety of religious denominations; programs in the practical applications of science were in existence; and courses in business and teaching had been added to the curriculum of several colleges.

Significant permanent reforms were instituted with the Morrill Act of 1862. With its promotion of programs focused on scientific applications, the act had an impact on both purposes and access to higher education. Using profits from the sale of western lands, the act provided for the financing of programs, in new or established colleges, involving the study of agriculture, engineering, and military science, as long as these programs were offered alongside programs in classical studies. Often seen as promoting the democratization of higher education, the act provided for the possibility of educating students from industrial class families alongside students from the professional classes. While many of these new programs initially failed to produce large enrollments or high graduation rates, support from the act provided sustenance until their importance was realized. Interestingly, this act was passed during the Civil War, when Southern congressmen who might have opposed the legislation were absent.

The Second Morrill Act of 1890 continued federal involvement in higher education through annual appropriations to land-grant institutions. A second provision of the act was for the admission of persons of color to all land-grant institutions unless the state chose to build separate and equal facilities. Seventeen states chose to build separate, segregated institutions. Access for African Americans increased with this initiative, which, on the other hand, also instituted segregation. From 1887 until 1914, land-grant institutions gained general recognition and support.

Well-known women’s institutions were also funded during this period by well-known philanthropists—Matthew Vassar, Henry Wells, Sophia Smith, among others—who provided colleges for women that were to be equal to the best men’s institutions.

Initiating a significant change in the Harvard curriculum was President Charles W. Eliot, who assumed the presidency in 1869 with a vision of change. He led an initiative to replace the undergraduate practice of recitations and classical curriculum with an elective system accommodating more authentic learning. He also sought to replace the practitioner faculties of the professional schools with learned, full-time faculty members and eventually established a bachelor’s degree for each professional program, signifying a substantial change in rigor. Other institutions followed.

With the formation of the Association of American Universities in 1900 by 14 institutional presidents, the standards movement began. Presidents of Johns Hopkins, Harvard, Cornell, Princeton, Stanford, and others initiated standards that defined the university as an institution with an admissions process, with a 2-year general education program, followed by a 2-year specialized study program leading to the bachelor’s degree. In addition, a university standard became the offering of a doctoral program in at least five areas.

Other associations with influence over higher education were formed between 1887 and 1915. Among those were the American Association of University Professors, with a focus on professional rights and academic freedom; the Land-Grant College Association; the National Association of State Universities; and those supported by private funding, like the Rockefeller General Education Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, founded in 1905 for the purpose of providing pensions for college professors. Each of these associations led to standardization in some area of the university.
Between the world wars, higher education became more diversified and hierarchical in terms of resources and admissions requirements. Because women’s colleges, previously smaller, liberal arts institutions established with private funding, were no longer seen as equal to men’s institutions, women began to gain admission to a variety of coeducational institutions, such as the University of Chicago and Stanford. Different types of higher-education institutions catered to a variety of student types. The liberal arts college continued to cater to the full-time, residential student destined for professional studies. Junior colleges catered to mass numbers of part-time students, while teachers colleges, service-focused universities and larger city institutions catered to all who could meet the established admissions requirements of each. The Carnegie Foundation 1932 report *State Higher Education in California* outlined the state’s tiered approach to education, whereby separate roles were assigned to each type of institution within the state.

With the plethora of students wanting to attend college after World War I, several institutions, concerned about their images and seeking to boost their elite status, elected to accept students after a consideration of their social status. These institutions were able to raise vast amounts of money to spend on each student’s education without increasing the number of students admitted. Despite the few institutions seeking to enhance their elite status, a variety of institutions remained open to nearly all high school graduates, who increased in numbers by nearly 50% over the 30-year period before 1940. Over the next generation, access to higher education in general became more democratic, and the academic programs of most institutions became more rigorous.


The second half of the twentieth century was fraught with issues involving purpose and access to higher education. Immediately following World War II were 30 years of readjustment, including the American civil rights movement and continued questioning about access to higher education and its purposes. In addition, these years were marked by continued academic expansion and issues of standardization.

Of crucial importance to discussions of access was the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act of 1944, known as the G.I. Bill, which provided funds for returning soldiers to attend higher-education programs. The proportion of the younger population attending college between 1940 and 1970 tripled to 45% enrolled, with degree-seeking students increasing by almost 9 times, producing the largest percentage of growth in attendance of any period in American history.

Colleges responded to this tremendous opportunity in various ways, some by becoming more selective in admissions, many by becoming more academically rigorous, and others by becoming more expansive in program offerings. The new community college system was under great pressure as it struggled to open one new college each week between 1965 and 1972.

That the basic arts and sciences were popular majors for many students was validated with statistics reporting that these areas composed nearly 50% of selected majors of the 1960s. This increased interest in liberal arts provided support for the 1945 Harvard Report, *General Education in a Free Society*, proposing a valid program of study for liberal arts.

Despite the interest in liberal arts majors, federal support for academic research skewed toward physical sciences and increased even more in 1957 when the Russians launched Sputnik. Federal aid to the sciences was also supplemented by several American civilian agencies. Support for education also came from the National Defense Education Act, providing aid for students and new buildings. With the highest enrollments ever and with new federal support for programs, this period became known as the “golden age” of American higher education. In 1968, Christopher Jencks and David Riesman, in *The Academic Revolution*, referred to this era as an “academic revolution” because of the degree to which higher education was supported and transformed. This period was short-lived, however, as the Free Speech Movement at Berkeley, Students for a Democratic Society, and the national issues of the Vietnam War and racial injustice increased student dissatisfaction with higher education as they asked for radical answers to issues of purpose and access. Student interests during this era included the war, racial inequalities, poverty, and the environment. With the 1970 student shootings of 1970 at Kent State and Jackson State, the contract between students and higher education was broken.

Even with the tremendous increase in programs by and about women, African American studies programs, revision of the general education core, initiatives following from the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education* case, modified admissions more inclusive
of minorities and women, and the institution of Title IX, the golden age of higher education had ended. Since that time, student numbers have declined, and the proportion of men and women to the total enrollments have changed. While the 1975 figures reported 55% of enrollments to be men, the 1995 enrollment figures report 55% to be women. Numbers of women in graduate education programs have grown even higher in nearly all areas, with notable exceptions in programs like engineering.

The federal government provided support with new monies for student access during the 1970s, and the 1972 amendments to the Higher Education Act formalized a major commitment to provide aid through Pell Grants, followed in the 1980s by low-interest student loans.

Relevance became a major issue resulting from student activism. Initially, institutions of higher education responded with the issues of relevancy brought by students. One outgrowth was a significant increase in majors that were more tangible, those that were more vocational or professional in nature. At the end of the century, higher education was increasingly more important for acquiring workplace skills, especially among persons of the middle class.

THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

Higher education has encountered its share of continued debate about issues of purpose and access. Its purpose continues to be defined and refined by the power relationships of various groups that recognize curriculum as not being neutral and seek to influence the standards movement. A variety of national accreditation agencies exist for a number of academic areas and are supported by recognized academic and special interest organizations. Agencies such as the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, for example, supported by a consortium of nationally recognized academic and special interest organizations, publishes curriculum standards for a variety of teacher education programs, both at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Standards are now an active aspect of every academic discipline and influence the higher-education offerings of nearly every major area.

Issues of multiculturalism, diversity, and globalization continue to influence both purposes and access to higher education. Debates about admissions requirements defined in part by cultural identity have been decided by the courts. Curriculum areas continue, however, to be affected by philosophical stances about the inclusion of voices from diverse populations in curricula. Globalization threatens to redefine the chosen identity of persons in the United States by cultural difference across nations rather than by national identity and then by cultural difference, thus further complicating the issues of inclusion and definition of need in a complex society. There are growing numbers of Hispanic institutions of higher education that seek to meet the needs of a multiplying Hispanic population. Issues surrounding standardization, accreditation, and curriculum threaten to present debate.

Undergraduate and graduate degrees continue to grow as they continue to meet the needs of the twenty-first century. Newly defined degrees focused on specific scientific industrial and business applications are becoming a part of academic programs. These programs promise solutions to the need for industry to further educate its employees. In addition, there has been a growth in security-related majors in answer to the needs defined by the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks on America and in medical-related professions.

Technology still is in debate, both from the standpoint of purposes and access. While technology provides access to a number of students who do not live near an institution of higher education or who cannot afford to become full-time, nonworking students, it presents a variety of problems. Debates ensue about intellectual property rights, communication privacy, and electronic property of employees and students; the changing roles of professors and students in Web-based teaching environments; modifications of curricula in Web-based environments; institutional liability, with unintended server access to illegal Web sites; and the institution of higher education as a place. Many of these issues will be decided by the courts, while many others will continue to be debated by administrative, faculty, and student groups who use computer technology and Web-based environments and who will commit to define policy and procedures that can affect their work positively.

—Roma B. Angel

See also accreditation; Black education; globalism; Latinos; learning, theories of; learning environments; management theories; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education; organizational theories; Supreme Court, United States, key cases in education law; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration
Further Readings and References


Deepening and enriching history teaching is the acknowledgment that history, without culture, is little more than memorized dates and facts. History in contemporary classrooms where students are engaged is imbued with stories and relationships. While the framework of chronology is present, there is depth. Controversial issues are considered, discussed, and pondered while the contexts of the time are noted. Concepts of democracy, freedom, individual rights, and personal responsibility are part of the discussions. Students are encouraged to view events from multiple perspectives. They look at situations and employ problem-solving techniques.

History teaching itself has become a controversial issue. State or regional boards anticipate the adoption of history materials will be questioned and considered by more than just the members. Ethnic, cultural, religious, and other groups vie to have what they consider accurate become part of the history being taught in the schools. Even the numbers of pages or references are compared to support claims of slighting. Fair and balanced portrayals of events are necessary. Community review and input is increasingly important as materials are selected.

Others are concerned about what and how history is taught. History often is a subject where special education students are mainstreamed. Materials and teaching methods must accommodate a differentiated curriculum. Children and youth learn in a variety of ways, and they are sophisticated in the technologies of today.

History courses no longer can depend on lecture and reading alone. They must be enriched by a variety of tools. Kits and Internet sites provide rich primary source materials. Simulations, both technology based and paper, are in wide use from primary grades through high school. Cross-curricular connections also encourage engagement. While most frequently involving literature, these connections also may include subjects from mathematics to physical education. Relating history to other areas promotes systems thinking and looking at knowledge as a whole rather than a series of random pieces.

Project-based learning, performances, imbedded assessment, comparison and contrast, extension activities, and team activities support the move to a highly interactive teaching model that is the hallmark of excellent history classrooms. Well-placed technology serves to enhance these developments. WebQuests and other structured assignments for groups and individuals offer great promise in the history classroom as they guide students through projects on the Web, encouraging use of primary sources and emphasizing critical thinking skills and information literacy. Interactive maps and Web sites developed to expand on learning about specialized areas and topics by teachers, universities, museums, and other agencies have the potential to enrich class assignments and provide activities, including virtual field trips. Targeted active learning can easily promote increased depth of learning.

History teaching, as in all other subjects, is driven by results. Assessments are based on standards. These assessments often use rubrics, but there also are more traditional forms of testing as teachers prepare students for the norm-referenced tests that are a requisite part of every district’s program. Multiple measures offer a means to ensure students are learning and meeting the standards.

Within those results is a hope that the history taught will offer the students a sense of the past and will have created within them an ability to learn from experiences, building on them as critical thinkers and consumers.

—Penelope Walters Swenson

See also Asian Pacific Americans; Black education; Christian Coalition; civics, history in schools; cultural politics, wars; Dewey, John; elementary schools; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; fundamentalism; globalism; high schools; immigration, history and impact in education; junior high schools; Latinos; liberalism; literacy, theories of; mainstreaming and inclusion; middle schools; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; museum education; Parent Teacher Association; peace education; philosophies of education; politics, of education; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; social studies; textbooks; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References

**HOLMES GROUP**

Begun in the mid-1980s, the Holmes Group worked to elevate the profession of teaching, restructure colleges and departments of education, reform teacher education, and strengthen ties between K–12 and higher education. The consortium of 96 major U.S. research universities was led by their deans of education, with Judith Taack Lanier, Dean, College of Education, Michigan State University, as president; and Frank B. Murray, Dean, College of Education, University of Delaware, as chair of the executive board. The name Holmes honored Henry W. Holmes, Dean of the Harvard Education School in the 1920s, who envisioned a more professional teacher corps in the United States.

The Holmes Group published three influential reports. *Tomorrow's Teachers* laid out goals for increasing the academic rigor of teacher preparation, distinguishing different levels of teaching proficiency, reforming state licensure of teachers, making schools better places for professionals to work, and forging stronger links between schools and higher education. A key recommendation was that teachers should have a strong arts and sciences undergraduate degree and that teacher education would be a graduate program. *Tomorrow's Schools* proposed the creation of professional development schools (PDS), defined as schools for the development of novice professionals, for continuing development of experienced professionals, and for the research and development of the teaching profession. The most controversial of the reports, *Tomorrow's Schools of Education*, outlined reforms needed in the teacher preparation programs themselves, addressing curriculum, faculty, scholarship, the setting for teaching and learning, and the diversity of the students. It was criticized for not really addressing how universities and schools of education would make the transformation, for overemphasizing PDS, and for concentrating on the preparation of teachers while neglecting the preparation of other education specialists, such as counselors, administrators, and so on.

The Holmes Group sponsored regional and national conferences and published a newsletter to showcase implementation of reforms. In an evaluation of the organization’s first 10 years, Michael G. Fullan and his associates noted five primary accomplishments, in addition to the publication of the three reports: (a) framing the debate about teacher education reform and establishing PDS, (b) encouraging school-university partnerships, (c) enhancing the status of schools of education within their universities, (d) providing direction and networking for reform, and (e) strengthening minority representation on education faculties, especially through the Holmes Scholars.

The concept of the PDS was that it would serve the education profession the way a teaching hospital serves the medical profession. Fullan found that each of the Holmes Group members had established at least one PDS. The purpose of the Holmes Scholars was to nurture and network graduate students from underrepresented groups to become eventual faculty members. More than 400 students participated in the network, and at least 100 went on to tenure-track faculty positions.

The Fullan evaluation report concluded that the Holmes Group had had a considerable effect but that the universities weren’t able to accomplish teacher education reform by themselves. In 1996, the Holmes Group reorganized into The Holmes Partnership, whose members include research universities, public schools, and six national professional educators’ organizations.

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See also higher education; professional development schools; schools of education; student teaching; universities, preparation of educational leaders in

**Further Readings and References**


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**HOLOCAUST EDUCATION**

The immediate post–World War II years brought an acknowledgment of the importance of teaching about the Holocaust and helping students become aware of
the importance of making choices to prevent evil. Now, over a half century later, the Holocaust has been recognized as an important topic for study in schools across the United States and around the world.

In America, a number of states require Holocaust education in public schools. Other states highly recommend it, and still others have developed curricula to be used for Holocaust studies. Some states have published books of lessons and materials based on oral histories of Holocaust survivors who live in that state. Other states have produced videos and study guides for classroom use as well as developing teacher-training programs to support Holocaust education. Teachers often use history and literature of the Holocaust to teach critical themes, such as the effects of institutionalized intolerance and genocide. In addition, the history and literature of the Holocaust offer teachers and students a timely and relevant way to encourage student sensitivity to diversity and multicultural societies in the world community.

One central question often raised related to Holocaust education is, “Why remember?” One answer is, “So that it never happens again.” The rationale for the importance of this education is an awareness that students of this generation need to learn about that period of world history and its lessons in ethics and civics. Current educational programs often not only focus on the historical events but also interpret those events for current examination. Critical questions about political power, moral responsibility, and the relationship of the individual to the state are reflected in the teaching materials.

Another reason for offering Holocaust education is to correct often-held misperceptions. Authentic education on this topic reviews the fact that all Jewish people were targeted despite their levels of religious observance. The historic targeting of ethnic groups other than Jews is also described in the literature.

Holocaust education generally began in the nation’s schools and universities during the late 1970s and early 1980s. With the advent of the U.S. Holocaust Memorial Museum, which opened in Washington, D.C., in 1993, the years since have witnessed the continuous development of the Holocaust as a topic of study.

Countries around the world have incorporated Holocaust education into their school curricula. Holocaust education in Ontario schools is taught to promote antiracist goals. In Scotland, the Holocaust Memorial Day and Holocaust education in the primary curriculum are seen as important stimuli to develop lessons and events in history among young people and are considered of vital importance for today. The Holocaust was officially remembered in Britain for the first time in 2001 and is now an annual event intended to provide a focus for work in schools. Holocaust education is also offered in the Netherlands and in Germany.

The types of curricular material for Holocaust education vary. Some curricula describe the historic Nazi campaign to exterminate the Jewish Community during World War II. Some of the educational materials clarify the traditions and conditions that allowed Hitler to exterminate more than 6 millions Jews and a significant number of non-Jewish people across Europe. Other curricula include visits to historic Holocaust sites. Some educational materials include traveling exhibits that tell stories and show reproductions of photographs and documents. Many curricula feature Holocaust survivors’ videotaped oral histories. Researchers have attempted to document the Holocaust through these oral histories. These organizations assist school districts to develop curricula.

Contemporary themes often emerge from Holocaust education. Scholars have noted that such study, when taught properly, can civilize and humanize our students to the dangers of indifference, intolerance, and racism. Multiculturalism and diversity are critical aspects of these educational materials. Holocaust education literature evidences the view that teachers use these themes to develop pupil skills, knowledge, understanding, and informed attitudes about Holocaust history. Multidisciplinary units have been developed that include the teaching of history, religious education, and citizenship. Today’s educators have developed units and courses for all grade levels related to understanding the Holocaust and its implications.

Moviemakers and authors of both nonfiction and fiction have also developed movies and books from which students can learn about the Holocaust. To encourage the use of film for Holocaust education, Steven Spielberg makes a copy of Schindler’s List, with a study guide of related activities, available to every high school in the country. Teachers who rely on literature for teaching about events during World War II often rely upon Anne Frank: The Diary of a Young Girl, as well as other personal accounts of the Holocaust. There are extensive reviews of Holocaust literature written since the 1950s that can be located in professional journals for educators. Those reviews of Holocaust literature establish guidelines for evaluation,
provide recommendations for developmentally appropriate materials for different age groups, and provide comprehensive bibliographies.

Teaching of the Holocaust is now considered of critical importance as the living memory of that event passes away with the generation of people for whom the Holocaust was a world reality. Knowledge of the Holocaust depends upon information and education. Holocaust education is now globally recognized as critical in schools all over the world for children of all age groups. It is hoped that learning about this specific historic instance of murder, injustice, and intolerance will lead to more global understandings for future generations.

—Vivian Hopp Gordon

See also anti-Semitism; discrimination; diversity; eugenics; fascism and schools; fundamentalism; history, in curriculum; multiculturalism; Neo-Nazism; peace education

Further Readings and References


HOMEOSTASIS

Homeostasis is a concept used to describe the tendency of living entities to maintain a stable, steady internal state despite change, disturbances, and variations in their external environments. Although its roots are found in the natural sciences, the concept has been used by social scientists to describe the tendency of social collectives—social systems, formal and informal organizations—to maintain their identities, in whole or in part, in the face of planned or unplanned change forces.

ETYMOLOGICAL AND CONCEPTUAL ROOTS

The word homeostasis is derived from two Greek words (homo: “same” and stasis: “state”). Its literal meaning is “same” or “steady state of being.” Both the idea and nominal concept have their roots in the field of physiology. The Frenchman Claude Bernard (1813–1878) was the first to articulate the idea of homeostasis. The term itself was later coined by Walter Cannon in 1932. Physiologists used homeostasis to describe the ability of the body to maintain a stable internal state despite environmental variations and disturbances (e.g., temperature changes in the environment). It is argued that this tendency toward the maintenance of a homeostatic or “steady state” of equilibrium is attributed to an ability of the human body to sense and adjust to environmental changes. Working in conjunction with the brain, the body is endowed with multiple feedback inhibition mechanisms that enable it to counteract those influences that would lead it toward disequilibrium. As a result, these mechanisms create for the body what is known as homeostatic stability.

HOMEOSTASIS, SYSTEMS THEORY, AND SOCIAL SYSTEMS THEORY

With its reference to system change, stability, and maintenance, homeostasis is one of many concepts associated with systems theory. A system is any set or group of interrelated elements that when considered together constitute an identifiable entity in which a change in one part of the elements affects some or all of the elements of the system. Such systems may be natural (human body, the cell, the solar system, etc.) or man-made (a formal organization). Hence, the full conceptual import of homeostasis is realized as one considers its meaning in the context of (a) the logic of systems theory and (b) the relationship it shares with other key systems concepts (e.g., system, environment, inputs, outputs, cybernetics, feedback mechanisms, energy importation, entropy, equilibrium, equifinality).

Inspiration for the use of systems theory in the social sciences came from an attempt to establish parallels between physiological systems in medicine and social systems in the social sciences. As such, systems theory was the dominant paradigm in sociology in the 1950s and 1960s. Work in this area is associated with a group of social theorists centered around Talcott Parsons in sociology and David Easton in political science. Within this context, a social system is defined
in terms of two or more social actors engaged in more or less stable interaction within a bounded environment. While this theoretical framework has been applied to a variety of contexts across the social sciences, the immediate concern here is its use as a sense-making tool in organizational sociology (i.e., its use in the study of formal organizations of which educational organizations are a part).

**HOMEOSTASIS AND FORMAL ORGANIZATIONS**

As a concept embedded in the theoretical paradigm known as systems theory, homeostasis provides a means for understanding in part the dynamics associated with organizational change. It provides a tool for conceptualizing resistance to change (planned or unplanned) and hints at the challenges to be anticipated in seeking to sustain and/or institutionalize this change. What is it about organizations that makes change difficult? Is there an enduring quality or state of being, homeostasis, to which an organization gravitates when environmental change or turbulence occurs? What explains that inert or recursive quality exhibited by the organization when change is encountered or introduced?

As a concept, homeostasis can provide educational leaders with a measure of insight into these and other such questions. However, in assessing the utility of homeostasis as a conceptual tool, one should not overlook the criticisms leveled against the theoretical soil out of which the concept has emerged. It is argued that systems theory promotes a conservative way of thinking. That is to say, the state of equilibrium promoted within the social system by homeostasis is often reified and critical reflection on this state discouraged. While such criticisms cannot be ignored, one should not conclude that systems theory and the concepts associated with it (e.g., homeostasis) have little or no value in enriching our understanding of social life. A reflective approach suggests that both be used by educational leaders with these limitations in view.

—Bob L. Johnson Jr. and Michael A. Owens

See also communities, types, building of; conceptual systems theory and leadership; infrastructure, of organizations; management theories; organizational theories; rational organizational theory; social relations, dimensions of; systems theory/thinking; theory movement, in educational administration

**Further Readings and References**


**HOMESCHOOLING**

A home school is defined as any learning situation occurring where the parent or guardian has assumed direct responsibility for the education of the child. Those who homeschool have enjoyed increased media exposure and attention, but the practice is not a new or revolutionary method. There are families who do not want the outside world to influence their children in any way contrary to the beliefs of the family or group. However, possible influence contrary to the family’s belief system is not the only reason families select homeschooling. For some families, the rise of drug use, gang activity, and violence on school campuses is the reason. For still others, there seems to be a growing dissatisfaction with schools and their results as measured by achievement tests. Some oppose standardized testing in any form; others oppose what they see as a lack of success on standardized tests.

For reasons as varied as how to approach curriculum to the teaching of belief systems, homeschooling is growing and affecting American school society. Some estimates of homeschoolers nationwide approach 2% of the student population. According to some homeschool sources, in 1999-2000, there were between 1,300,000 and 1,700,000 home-educated students. The number of homeschoolers does vary according to different sources. The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) estimated the number to fall between 709,000 and 992,000. One of the main difficulties of studying homeschool populations is that there is no definitive method for obtaining the exact number of homeschoolers, and thus sampling methods are difficult to utilize or validate.

Van Galen placed homeschoolers into two main categories: ideologues and pedagogues. Ideologues who homeschool believe that public schools do not teach the core values, beliefs, and skills that they want their children to have, or they believe that schools will
teach their children values, beliefs, and skills they do not want their children to have. Often ideologues emulate the public school process by using packaged curricula, maintaining a schedule, or evaluating work in traditional methods, but the family has guided the process of choosing what they want the curriculum to be based upon, a process some refer to as “school-at-home.” Ideologues tend to be strongly motivated by religion or religious beliefs. According to Basham, Christian homeschoolers tend to be the stereotypical image of those who have chosen home education and indeed make up a significant portion of the United States homeschool movement. Research suggests that other groups with differing faiths and values within the ideologues are growing as well.

The second philosophically driven group of homeschoolers are pedagogues. Pedagogues choose homeschool because of a belief that public schools do not meet the needs of the child. Pedagogues tend to believe that the problem with public school does not lie in what they teach, but rather that they do not teach well. Pedagogues hold belief patterns similar to humanist John Holt, author of many books criticizing the public school system and often credited as being a leader for pedagogues. Pedagogues believe that formalized public education does not address children’s needs, but instead curbs learning. Such an approach taken by pedagogues and even some ideologues has also been referred to as “unschooling.” Unschooling is often defined as allowing learning to take place in terms of when, where, and how in a manner that is directed solely by the learner.

Families who choose to homeschool, regardless of prevailing philosophy, often believe they are protecting their children and helping them to accomplish more through individualization than the children could have accomplished in public education. The academic perspective centers on the idea of fitting the education to the child and not the child to the education. The benefit of instruction between one teacher and one student, or perhaps a few students in the case of siblings, drives the idea of fitting the education to the individual.

Another implication of the increased numbers of homeschoolers is that as the movement gains more recognition, more pressure is brought upon states for further deregulation, which, in turn, adds even more to the growing number of homeschoolers. Early in the modern homeschool movement, the greatest difficulty in dealing with state regulation centered on compulsory attendance laws. State compulsory attendance laws require that children be in school; as a result, many states believed that homeschool was in violation of the law. Parents challenged the assertion that they can have no control over their children’s education based on the First and Fourteenth Amendments. The U.S. Supreme Court found that compulsory school requirements conflicted with constitutional rights in Wisconsin v. Yoder (1972). The court found in the Yoder case that families with a religious or educational concern, in this case Amish, had the right to offer an alternative education to protect their beliefs. Many other cases have cited Yoder as one defense of homeschooling, though other court cases have cited different rulings. All states currently allow homeschooling but do require that children ranging from 5 to 16 years of age attend either public or approved nonpublic school, which can include homeschooling.

State laws can fall into a varied continuum of regulations for homeschoolers, but generally, all states require homeschoolers to at least file a notification of homeschooling intent with local districts when first becoming a homeschooler. State laws differ sharply after the requirement of a letter of intent. Some states require student progress evaluations, most often chosen by the family, to be submitted by the parent. States can even require a submission of a curricular plan or satisfactory progress on a state-based assessment.

—Darol Hail

See also church state issues; class size; compulsory education; law, trends in; parental involvement; philosophies of education

Further Readings and References


**HOMOPHOBIA**

Homophobia is the fear of or contempt for people who are or who are perceived to be lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgendered, transsexual, or intersexual (LGBTI). This fear can be extended to any material, literature, curriculum, program, artistic expression, or other human endeavor that is perceived to be “queer”—regardless of its actual content or intent. Homophobia is a fear, either irrational or cultivated, and those who suffer from it tend to react harshly if they believe something or someone is “queer.”

The term *homophobia* first entered the American lexicon in the 1970s, when it was coined by psychologist George Weinberg in his 1972 book, *Society and the Healthy Homosexual*. Weinberg noted that some individuals had a true phobia when confronted with “queer” people. Weinberg’s definition was expanded in 1975 by psychologist Mark Freedman, who described homophobia as rage at and fear of homosexuals. In addition, there is some clinical evidence that the most homophobic of individuals may well be LGBTI themselves, but at this point, the research is still preliminary.

When wielded by individuals in power, homophobia can terrorize and demonize LGBTI people. Concurrently, those in power tend to rally other individuals who share the same level of antipathy for various political, social, and/or religious causes. Historically, homophobia has been used to build power by individual politicians as well as larger conservative reactionary social movements. On an individual level, homophobia and homophobic behavior can take the form of name-calling, exclusion or shunning, or even violence, sometimes termed “bashing.”

In the United States, homophobia has greatly influenced political discourse and public policies, especially those involving public schools. Particularly during the cold war (1948–1991), when homosexuality was consistently linked with possible Communist sympathies, public school leaders were at pains to ensure their staff was free from any subversive taint. Not only did states and school boards expect public school administrators (principals and superintendents) to purge any suspected “queers” from their midst, administrators too had to be demonstrably heterosexual. Merely suspecting homosexuality was reason enough to fire a teacher. Furthermore, since sexual orientation was frequently confused with gendered stereotypes, educators had to be either “manly men” or “womanly women.” Those individuals who departed from these rigid stereotypes, particularly single, male educators, were largely unemployable.

Since the early 1990s, U.S. public schools have increasingly tackled homophobia, whether it was found in teaching materials or in the attitudes and behavior of students and staff. Some school districts have instituted diversity and tolerance programs as part of their larger antibullying efforts. Nevertheless, homophobia is a major problem that shapes the experiences of public school children. According to one recent study, as many as 2 million students experience homophobic bullying during a typical school year.

—Catherine A. Lugg

See also bullying; discrimination; diversity; fundamentalism; gender studies, in educational leadership; lesbian/gay/bisexual/transgender issues in education; queer theory; school safety; sexuality, theories of; violence in schools

**Further Readings and References**


Howe, Harold (1918–2002), a teacher, principal, superintendent, and U.S. Commissioner of Education in the Lyndon Johnson administration, courageously led the federal government in the fight to desegregate public schools. A preeminent educator of the twentieth century, Howe was instrumental in redefining the federal role in schools and advocated for a new definition of education that includes the world beyond the schoolhouse. He pursued a lifelong agenda to ensure that all share in America’s bounty.

A champion of minorities and the poor, as U.S. Commissioner from 1966 to 1968, he was a key figure in the Great Society movement to abolish segregation in schools under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Howe was responsible for implementing the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA). Title I of ESEA provided funding to high-poverty schools, which, under Howe’s direction, was distributed to schools that did not discriminate, creating an uproar among those who wanted to preserve the status quo and earning him the sobriquet “U.S. Commissioner of Integration.”

Howe’s moral drive likely stemmed from his roots as son of Reverend Arthur Howe, president of Hampton Institute in Virginia, which had been founded as a trade school for freed slaves by his grandfather. He served as captain of a minesweeper in the Navy during World War II, which reinforced his strong belief that schools must make better use of the power of experience in learning. A graduate of Yale and Columbia University, Howe taught history at Phillips Academy; was principal in Andover, Cincinnati, and Newton, Massachusetts, where he restructured the high school into smaller units to personalize education, a practice now common; and was superintendent in Scarsdale, New York.

When Howe left Washington, D.C., he joined the Ford Foundation as an advisor to India and vice president for education, whereby he established funding for predominantly African American colleges and minority doctoral student scholarships. Later, he was a popular senior lecturer at Harvard University. During that time, he headed a commission that produced the report The Forgotten Half, which focuses on youth who do not attend college and influenced the development of national school-to-work policy.

Outspoken on many educational subjects, “Doc” Howe targeted school funding and campaigned for equity. He promoted service learning and interdisciplinary learning and argued that “tests have become the tail that wags the dog in the public discussion of educational change,” questioning how new tests and standards would cure what ails American education and help teachers teach diverse groups of students. Although responsible for increasing the federal role in schools, he cautioned that there must be restraints in place to provide support but not be intrusive. He was most passionate about the importance of broadening the definition of education and viewing the family and community as educational institutions. Howe’s legacy is that educational leaders and government should always think about our children and improve education for all.

—Patricia Maslin-Ostrowski

See also Black education; children and families in America; civil rights movement; decentralization/centralization controversy; desegregation, of schools; equality, in schools; equity and adequacy of funding schools; governance; leadership effectiveness; politics, of education

Further Readings and References


Human Capital

Capital is an asset, one that yields income and outputs over time. Capital is the value of productive services. The value (or the capital good) is the market price paid. In economics, human capital is restricted to the value of skills and productive capacities acquired at a cost. Human capital is a valuation of people’s productive,
marketable skills; it is a stock of assets one owns that allows one to receive a flow of income, which is like interest earned. Investment in schooling, training, and health care are investments in human capital—so called because persons cannot be separated from knowledge, skills, health, or values in the same way they might be separated from their physical and financial assets.

In formal economic literature, Adam Smith is credited with development of the concept in his seminal work of 1776. He advocated that education confers both direct and indirect benefits upon the individual receiving the education, thus linking the development of human capital and role of government in education. The concept gained a firm foothold in the field of economics in the 1960s and earned extensive attention in the latter half of the twentieth century. Theodore Schultz along with the works of Gary Becker and Jacob Mincer were among the first to identify the importance of the relationships among investment in education, human capital formation, and the general health of nations.

The basic premise of human capital is that variations in labor income are due to differences in labor quality (i.e., the amount of human capital acquired by the workers). Beginning in the 1960s, researchers focused on the direct monetary returns from investments in education using cost-benefit analyses to measure the effects of education on people’s lifetime incomes. Researchers probed the connection between education and earnings using increasingly complex analytic techniques. Because we cannot accurately measure human capital since we do not have an observed price, two alternatives exist for calculating the capital value: producer cost and the value of future discounted earnings. The basic question is: Given the investment for schooling, what annual rate of return on the investment can be calculated? The rate of return is related to the value of future discounted earnings. Determining producer cost requires a calculation of a rate of return by first determining the investment, then assessing earnings of a person during the lifetime and upon retirement, and finally calculating the rate of return on the investment—a cumbersome process and not one that lends itself to forecasting benefits of investment for groups in society. A more useful technique is the calculation of the value of future discounted earnings. The value of human capital is calculated through measuring the present value of future earnings, with adjustments for survival to a given age and employment opportunities over a lifetime. The person’s net value is the calculated value less costs of living during the time income is earned. Increasing one’s human capital, accomplished by increasing investment in education, leads to higher productivity of workers, which then leads to higher earnings.

Formal education is not the only way to invest in human capital. Workers learn and are trained outside of schools, especially on jobs. Activities, classes, and experiences that raise earnings are also investments in capital. Proponents of human capital theory advance education and training as the most important investments in human capital. Monetary gains from investment in education were well documented through the 1960s. The return dipped in the late 1960s, but recent research has shown the premium for getting a college education in the 1980s to be over 65%. Earnings of high school graduates over dropouts have increased also. Currently, policymakers and scholars are addressing issues related to the provision of adequate quality and quantity of education and other training.

Increased levels of education increase overall income over a lifetime. Evidence to this fact exists in over 100 countries and cultures. The outstanding economic records of Japan, Taiwan, and other Asian economies in recent decades dramatically illustrate the importance of human capital to growth. Economic growth closely depends on the synergies between new knowledge and human capital, which is why large increases in education and training have accompanied major advances in technological knowledge in all countries that have achieved significant economic growth. The expansion of scientific and technical knowledge raises the productivity of labor and other inputs in production. And the increasing reliance of industry on sophisticated knowledge greatly enhances the value of education, technical schooling, on-the-job training, and other human capital.

Becker also described the effect of the economics associated with human capital in at least two areas relevant to policymakers interested in schooling. First, a dramatic change in the incentives for women to invest in college education has occurred in recent decades. Prior to the 1960s, American women were more likely than men to graduate from high school but less likely to continue on to college. The enormous increase in the labor participation of married women is the most important labor force change during the past 25 years. Second, the economics of human capital accounts for the fall in the fraction of Black high school graduates who went on to college in the early 1980s. Costs rose more for Black college students than for Whites.
because a higher percentage of Blacks were from low-income families and, therefore, had been heavily subsidized by the federal government. Cuts in federal grants substantially raised the cost of a college education for African American students.

Some economists criticize the process of explaining all differences in wages through human capital theory. It may not be the education or training that one has that determines the value of one’s education, but the prestige of the credential or degree received. Some postulate that those who get degrees from elite schools will likely receive higher incomes than those who obtain degrees from large government-funded institutions, even if the recipients have gained the same knowledge. Others point to the existence of market imperfections that imply the existence of noncompeting groups or labor-market segmentation. In these theories, the “return on human capital” differs between different labor-market segments. Similarly, discrimination against minority or female employees may imply different rates of return on human capital.

Paul Anderson made an argument that human capital is not really capital at all. The term was coined so as to make a useful illustrative analogy between investing resources to increase the stock of ordinary physical capital (tools, machines, buildings, etc.) in order to increase the productivity of labor and “investing” in the education or training of the labor force as an alternative means of accomplishing the same general objective of higher productivity. In both sorts of “investments,” investors incur costs in the present with the expectation of deriving extra benefits over a long period of time in the future. The analogy between human capital and real capital breaks down in one important respect. The value of resources that have been invested in physical capital by an investor can often be readily recovered later through resale, with the proceeds being easily redeployed into purchases for consumption or reinvestment in other types of capital goods as the investor may choose. However, human capital is by definition inseparably embedded in the nervous system of a specific individual, and it thus cannot be separately owned apart from the individual’s living body itself.

—Barbara Y. LaCost

See also at-risk students; child development theories; compensatory education; competition, forms of, in schools; economics, theories of; elastic tax; finance, of public schools; human resource development; market theory of schooling; privatization; social capital; underachievers, in schools; voucher plans

Further Readings and References


### HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

People are the most important asset in countries, economies, social systems, and organizations. Human assets allow nations, regions, trading blocks, multinational organizations, and local firms to compete to achieve competitive advantage. In our information-based, technologically advanced society, people contribute via their knowledge, cooperation, innovation, and commitment to the success of their organizations. The creation of new knowledge, sharing it within one’s organization, applying it to practical situations, and formulating new meaning constitute the emerging importance of intellectual capital of human resources, which is claiming a central role on more and more organizational balance sheets. Although these claims may not be readily supported by a robust financial research base, there is a rapidly growing body of work suggesting that human resources are the key to success in any endeavor, whether corporate or societal, as in educational institutions.

### ORIGINS OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

The study of the history of learning reveals that training and education of all types, whether academic or work related, are largely the products of economic and social conditions. Furthermore, human resource development (HRD) is a field with historical roots in both education and the world of work, and it is, first
and foremost, a field of education that is for and about work. Although the field of HRD has grown significantly since World War II, its historical origins cannot be separated from those of education and training.

Understanding of the current struggle surrounding HRD requires consideration of its history, underlying foundations, and conceptual frameworks. Some would say HRD has moved from the traditional to the contemporary or the modern to the postmodern. That depends upon one’s perspective and one’s view or definition of HRD practices.

Prior to the 1800s, individuals acquired knowledge or training in the home, on the job, or via an apprenticeship. The early 1800s witnessed development of, in today’s terms, vocational education and technical schools. Furthermore, the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 firmly established vocational education in the public school system; thus began the shift of training from home to schools. Passage of the Morrill Land Grant act of 1862, for example, was influenced by the need for a system to train mechanics for complex farm machinery. Institutions of higher education were now in position and called upon to train workers for the industrial economy.

Industrialization also influenced Frederick Taylor, an engineer, and his concept of scientific management. Taylor believed that productivity increases could be achieved by reducing wasted effort, improving job design and worker selection, and training. Taylor believed in “one best way” to do a job; hence, employees should be trained in that “best,” most efficient way.

In 1913, the National Association of Corporation Schools was organized, evidence that company training schools were flourishing and the focus of training was again shifting, from public schools to business and industry. Shortly thereafter, the Hawthorne studies of the 1920s revealed that the amount and quality of attention given to employees affect their productivity. Findings such as these fueled the human relations movement of the early 1900s.

World War II was a catalyst for training as thousands of men and women were needed as workers or for the military. High school and college teachers were recruited as trainers in the military and industry, and research became crucial to find better ways to produce trained personnel. In essence, HRD was born, although the term had not yet been coined. In 1942, many employees assigned HRD responsibilities formed an organization that is known today as the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD). Though still labeled “training,” HRD was now a common component of organizational behavior and structure.

The 1950s and 1960s witnessed the rise of the behavioral science movement, the works of B. F. Skinner, Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, and Peter Drucker, and emergence of a new social responsibility. The importance of human resources was now recognized. Legislation affecting training included the Government Employees Training Act of 1958 and the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962.

The last three decades have witnessed emergence of HRD as an important, if not critical, activity within organizations. Indeed, the term is now commonly understood. Increased concern for employees, their training, education, and development combined with competition, globalization, and rapid advances in technology shape management practice and HRD on a daily basis.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN HRD AND HRM

There are differences between HRD and human resource management (HRM). HRD represents the learning and development orientation of both the individual and the organization, whereas HRM represents the remaining constructs such as management, planning, and compensation, as follows:

- **Human Resource Development (HRD)**
  - Individual development (often called “training and development”)
  - Career development
  - Performance management
  - Organizational development (referred to as the “components of HRD”)

- **Human resource management (HRM)**
  - Organization/job design
  - Human resource planning
  - Selection and staffing
  - Human resource information systems
  - Compensation/benefits
  - Employee assistance
  - Union/labor relations

CRITICAL COMPONENTS OF HRD

HRD encompasses four fundamental areas: career development (professional), individual development (personal), performance management, and organizational development. These represent the focus of HRD
initiatives and serve as the microelements of HRD. From organization to organization, the importance of each component varies according to the complexity of the operation, the criticality of human resources to organizational efficiency, and the organization’s commitment to improving human resource potential.

The components of HRD are results and focus. Results are measured in the short-term, generally from 1 day to 1 year, or the long-term, beyond 1 year, while the focus of HRD is either on the individual employee or the organization. When these descriptors are assigned to each of the four components of HRD, the results can be seen in Table 1.

### Table 1: Four Components of HRD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career development</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual development</td>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance management</td>
<td>Short-term</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization development</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>Organizational</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CAREER DEVELOPMENT

By providing employees with a continuous developmental approach to reaching ever-increasing levels of competency, career development is more long-term than individual development and much more complex. Career development significantly impacts organizational efficiency. As the individual grows and develops, so does the organization.

Career development provides the analysis necessary to identify the specific interests, values, competencies, activities, and assignments needed to develop skills for future jobs (development). Both organizational and individual activities are involved. Organizational activities include job-posting systems, mentoring practices, career resource center development and maintenance, using managers as career counselors, providing career development workshops and seminars, human resource planning, performance appraisals, and career-pathing programs, while individual activities include career planning, career awareness, and utilizing career resource centers.

### INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT

Individual development includes the acquisition, application, and integration of new knowledge, skills, and/or improved behaviors that result in performance enhancement and improvement related to one’s current job (training). Learning activities may involve formal and informal learning engagements, although learning often occurs through informal, on-the-job training activities. Individual development is a short-term orientation to performance improvement, involving improved knowledge, skills, or behaviors that affect a single job or groups of jobs.

### PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Performance management relies on a systemwide approach to monitor and enhance organizational performance. Common components of performance management systems include effective recruiting, training, coaching, evaluation, and compensation. The goal of performance management is to guarantee that the right individuals have the knowledge, skills, motivation, and environmental support to do their jobs effectively and efficiently. Thus, performance management relies on performance, causal, and root cause analysis to identify current and desired performance.

Performance management includes the organization’s motivation system, work climate, and performance appraisal system. It takes into account the employees’ competencies and material resources necessary to produce performance outputs. Quite simply, performance management is a comprehensive tool for identifying performance breakdowns within an organizational system and appropriate interventions useful in achieving the desired performance results. Performance management is the primary component of organizational performance, which relies heavily on human performance technology as its foundation. Performance improvement and management are essential to all HRD initiatives.

### ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Organizational development (OD) encourages new and creative solutions to performance problems and inefficiencies by enhancing congruence among the organization’s culture, structure, processes, mission, policies and procedures, managerial practices, strategies, and leadership. The ultimate goals of organizational development are to develop the organization’s self-renewing capacity and enhance its competitive
readiness, which refers to the organization’s ability to look introspectively and discover its problems and weaknesses and to direct the resources necessary for improvement. When confronted with new and ever-challenging circumstances, the organization will be able to regenerate itself repeatedly. This occurs through collaboration of organizational members with a change agent (an HRD professional), using behavioral science theory, research, and technology.

THE CULTURAL ASPECTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Understanding culture helps those responsible for HRD to understand organizational behavior and its elements, which include various levels of interrelated values and beliefs. Each of these values drives or reacts to the others in a multitude of circumstances, resulting in norms for acceptable and unacceptable behavior. A nation’s culture may have the most powerful effect on how employees perceive training, career, and organizational development interventions and may serve as a barrier to change efforts. To further complicate matters, one’s workplace and organizational cultures may provide counterproductive goals resulting in conflict and ineffectiveness. The challenge, therefore, lies in the ability to identify the unique characteristics of these cultures and subcultures in order to maximize an organization’s effectiveness while managing one’s own ethnocentricity.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

There are five sociological issues facing organizations in the global HRD context. These include:

1. Breakdown of traditional institutions
2. Emergence of multiple perspectives
3. Shift to an information-based economy
4. Increased rate of change
5. Inadequacy of traditional models

The challenges from these sociological issues require new insights, such as understanding:

- the learning challenges of older workers and the elderly; developing alternatives for older workers regarding retirement, internal job transfers, and declining career opportunities; creating new ways to use older workers in entry-level positions; and developing support services for dual-career couples;
- career development and its importance in human resource planning and forecasting;
- the need to increase efforts to improve cultural understanding and sensitivity and support improved educational programs for minorities;
- the need to encourage bilingual and multicultural training programs for workers and managers, develop creative, realistic workplace child care options, and design wellness programs for all types of employees;
- the need to improve ties between HRD, local economic development efforts, and the strategic business efforts within one’s organization;
- the need to provide more learning initiatives in work attitudes and ethics and educate management about the importance of employee attitudes and their relationship to productivity;

One of the most significant factors in the future of HRD is the continuing evolution of the workforce, which is both the receiver and deliverer of HRD initiatives. The workforce will continue to become more diverse as more minorities and females enter the labor pool in record numbers. Many of the changes taking place in the workforce include the following:

- More women and minorities in the workplace
- Slower rate of expansion due to a labor shortage in specialized sectors
- Increased educational attainment
- Illiteracy
- Aging population
- Changing and evolving value orientation
- Decline of the efficacy of the public schools

U.S. demographics have changed significantly over the past century. According to 2000 U.S. census data and the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, women constituted approximately 50% of the population and 50% of the workforce in 2000, while minorities comprised approximately 25% of the population and 29% of the workforce. These numbers will continue to rise in the new millennium as the immigrant population (primarily Asian and Hispanic) swells and women increasingly seek work outside the home.

Today, more than 35 million adult Americans are “functionally illiterate,” with another 55 million marginally literate—functioning at about fifth-grade level. Experts predict the number to grow at about 2.5 million
people per year. Unfortunately, some managers falsely believe that employed individuals are literate and unemployed ones are not. Some organizations are finding retraining of nonmanagement employees only minimally effective because of the low literacy level. They contend that if an employee cannot read or write, it is very difficult to train and retrain for new jobs requiring new competencies and skills.

It is obvious that the workforce is aging. By 1995, three quarters of the labor force was within the prime working ages (25–54), compared to two thirds in 1984. The age of the labor force affects how HRD learning programs are designed and delivered. Although e-learning and computer-based learning are exploding throughout the world, an older workforce has poorer visual and learning acuity. In the coming decades, the percentage of the workforce aged 16 to 24 will drastically decline, while the number of older workers eligible for pensions and/or who elect early retirement will increase. Many organizations have elected to actively recruit workers in upper age brackets to take jobs traditionally handled by high school and college students.

The interests, priorities, and values of the workforce are also changing. One concern of organizations is that an aging workforce creates a trend toward more leisure time, less company loyalty, and less inclination of (older) employees to seek leadership roles at the expense of family responsibilities. Some workers are not interested in relocating to less desirable locales despite significant increases in salary and responsibility. A movement to change corporate culture is well under way. Employees are demanding more participation, sharing, openness, flexibility, risk taking, and improved quality.

THE GLOBAL ENVIRONMENT AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Globalization issues are broader than trading and business activities, even though they are triggered by economic drives. Globalization can take various forms, such as information and communications networks, trade, cultures, environmental initiatives, political actions, practices or policies, and military actions across borders. The emergence of a global economy is one of the factors affecting the enhancement of the global environment. It has been characterized by an increase in worldwide economic interdependence and dissolution of traditional national economies.

POLITICAL ISSUES IN HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

HRD’s primary role is to enhance the long-term sustainability of organizations; thus the impact of politics and power on the development of environmental and human resources requires serious inquiry. An examination of politics is needed to:

- remove constraints to sustainable development of human resources,
- enhance the development of global systems that support sustainable HRD, and
- build socially and politically responsive individuals and organizations.

ECONOMIC PERSPECTIVES AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Economic theory provides a vantage point from which to understand the discipline of HRD. Economics can be examined in context of the two major strands:

1. Personnel training and education
2. Organization development

Likewise, HRD can be examined in light of two major economic theories:

1. Human capital theory
2. Organizational theory

Training in any form is a way of influencing human capital formation. Consequently, the process of human capital formation results from deliberate investments in the development of people for the expressed purpose of improving organizational results. From this standpoint, education (workplace or general) involves processes that are intended to enhance the individual’s skills and knowledge that are useful in improving a person’s career development opportunities.

Human capital and organizational theory greatly influence HRD and thus the performance improvement and performance management processes, respectively. An organization will invest in specific training only when it can improve its return-on-investment position. An economic orientation of HRD encourages organizations to enhance their intellectual capital, which includes the capability to articulate and aggregate knowledge. Consequently, organizations collect and share the knowledge of employees, which begins the process of human
capital formation and is further refined through the application of organization development interventions. Quite simply, organizations provide employees with specific training in an effort to enhance their intellectual capital.

Organizations must view human capital theory and organizational theory as inputs to HRD, while training and organization development, which develop knowledge, should be considered outputs. All of these serve as inputs to the overall organizational performance improvement process within an organization.

THE FINANCIAL ASPECT OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

For several decades, HRD has been perceived as a cost-based support service to organizations. As a result, HRD programs are often viewed positively during good economic periods but negatively during bad times. Central to financial analysis is a concept known as the exchange process, which can be defined as the offering of value to another party in return for something of value. Within HRD, clients must view a training activity or consulting service as at least equal in value to the time, energy, effort, and personal commitment exchanged for them. If the value received from an intervention or consulting activity is viewed as greater than or equal to the value given, an exchange will take place. If the perceived value gained is less than the value given, no exchange will transpire. Consequently, the more positive exchanges that HRD professionals engage in, the better the HRD program will be perceived. In short, financial analysis is the process of determining the benefit that occurs as a result of an exchange.

THE EMERGING PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Effective HRD programs appear to incorporate the following components:

- They integrate eclectic theoretical disciplines, which include economic, psychological, and systems theories; organization theory; and change theory.
- They are based on satisfying stakeholders’ needs and expectations.
- They use evaluation as a continuous quality and improvement process.
- They are designed to improve organizational effectiveness.
- They rely on relationship mapping to enhance operational efficiency.
- They are linked to the organization’s strategic goals and objectives.
- They are based on partnerships.
- They are results oriented.
- They utilize strategic planning to help an organization integrate its vision, mission, strategy, and practice.
- They reconfigure formal analytical processes to identify priorities.
- They are based on purposeful and meaningful measurement.
- They promote diversity and equality in the workplace.

The major conclusions one draws from the converging trends, concepts, narratives, and practices are that HRD is focused on the whole employee, his or her motivation to work, to grow personally and professionally, and be a team member in productive work settings and that programs that facilitate such development enhance an organization’s effectiveness and efficiency.

—Jerry W. Gilley and Ann Gilley

See also adaptiveness of organizations; attitudes toward work; career development; collaboration theory; conflict management; consideration, caring; creativity, in management; discrimination; division of labor; economics, theories of; esteem needs; ethos, of organizations; evaluation; group dynamics; hierarchy, in organizations; infrastructure, of organizations; job security; leadership, system-oriented; leadership, theories of; locus of control; management theories; morality, moral leadership; motivation, theories of; multiculturalism; open systems theory; organizational theories; performance assessment; performance evaluation systems; planning models; power; problem solving; productivity; professional development; role conflict; role theory; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; social relations, dimensions of; stratification, in organizations; systems theory/thinking; values of organizations and leadership; work task measurement; working conditions, in schools; workplace trends

Further Readings and References


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**HUMANISTIC EDUCATION**

The term *humanistic education* has been interpreted by various educators and philosophers over many centuries. Though specific definitions vary widely, several characteristics are commonly agreed upon. Education that is humanistic in nature cultivates the individuals for their own and society’s good, promotes respect for human dignity, and seeks to help learners attain the highest goals possible.

The roots of humanistic education can be traced to Plato, whose educational principles included improving human beings’ self-awareness and nurturing the expansion of knowledge and critical thinking abilities. By providing these learning opportunities, Plato believed students would become lifelong learners, allowing them to able to live and learn to their full potential, as well as to contribute to a strong and cultured society. This became a theme that appeared in many forms as humanistic education evolved over the centuries.

During the Renaissance period, humanistic educators attempted to cultivate in their students an appreciation of the arts and inquiry into sciences along with an understanding of classic literature and philosophy. They believed that through this form of education, individuals and society would be at their best. In the eighteenth century Age of Enlightenment, the primary goal of humanistic education became more focused on developing the ability to think independently and analytically. Kant identified the need to fully develop people’s potential by providing an education that nurtured the spirit at the same time as it developed thinking and reasoning skills.

In the nineteenth century, the term *humanism* came into use to represent the ideal education, which included the study of the classical languages and culture. The purpose of this classical-humanistic education was to help students become more aware of their abilities, develop the values and attributes required for participating in a democratic society, and promote the underlying knowledge that would be needed in order to be vocationally successful as adults. Philosophers Dewey, Freire, and Whitehead contributed extensively to the body of literature regarding humanistic education during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. By the latter half of the twentieth century, Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers developed theories of humanistic psychology that were highly influential on the humanistic education movement. For Maslow, humanistic education was one of the methods by which a person could achieve self-actualization, the highest level of his or her needs hierarchy. Rogers described educator attitudes of care, trust, empathy, positive regard, and respect for the learner as those that would promote learning. Recently, Noddings has popularized the practice of caring in education. This extension of the humanistic ideals suggests that in order for students to develop the abilities to be sensitive and caring members of society, students should be taught such values by teachers who themselves demonstrate the ability to care. Present literature indicates that students value teachers who care, develop relationships, and build trust.

Currently, the term *humanistic education* can be identified as referring to two separate but historically related concepts. The first is the use of the phrase as it is associated with study of the humanities. Liberal arts educators may be referred to as humanists, as their focus is on providing an education that will provide students with a wide base of knowledge and cultural appreciation such that they may appreciate and contribute to society. The terminology of humanistic educators can also be seen to refer to a set of educational tenets that encompass a humane approach to education. This aspect of humanistic education emphasizes collaboration, trust building, care, and respect. In this sense, humanistic education is a way of approaching education that places high priority on the dignity of each person and promotes respect for self and for others.

—Sarah M. Ginsberg
Hypotheses, in Research

The hypothetico-deductive method together with observing phenomena and collecting facts complete the dominant paradigm for scientific research. Hypotheses are tentative answers to problems that can be subjected to empirical testing. Hypotheses link abstract theories and sensory experience by operationalizing and connecting the ideas that underlie a research project with measurable variables and thus making sense of what is observed. The key characteristic of a hypothesis is that it is falsifiable; that is, it can be refuted if there is strong enough evidence contradicting what has been hypothesized. It is important to realize that the test of hypotheses is indirect, by determining whether the statements derived from the theory (that is, the hypotheses) are valid, rather than by addressing the status of the underlying theory directly.

Testing hypotheses thereby makes it possible to test scientific theories, which are sets of generalizations that are connected through deductive reasoning. All hypotheses should be deducible from or be used to deduce other statements contained in a theory. For a concept to be testable, two fundamental circumstances must be true.

First, the hypotheses should be clear conceptually and make sense to anyone who studies the field in which the hypotheses are generated. A fancy way of saying this is that the hypotheses should provide for the intersubjective transmissibility of knowledge. You can tell this has been achieved when other researchers agree on how to interpret the results of their studies using the same hypotheses.

Second, the concepts that are used in hypotheses must be defined operationally and be measurable, with minimal expenditure of resources. In short, if you can’t measure it, you can’t test it. For example, a study applying Astin’s input-environment-output (I-E-O) model needs to be able to make clear distinctions between what variables count (a) as student input characteristics at the time they start college (e.g., high school grade point average, high school class rank, ACT or SAT scores, number of high school units of mathematics, or family income); (b) as environmental conditions they encounter in their higher-education experiences (such as whether they are in a learning community, receive supplemental instruction, or live on- or off-campus); and (c) as output variables (for instance, retention to the sophomore year, cumulative college grade point average, or graduation within 6 years).

In addition, each of these variables needs to be measurable and operationalized to be able to evaluate the hypothesized connections between student outcomes and what background the students bring with them into the campus environment, as well as how that environment mediates the connection between the input and output variables. For example, to determine whether participating in supplemental instruction makes a difference in whether students with lower ACT scores perform better in a freshman physics course, you need to have a pretty good idea of how much participation in supplemental instruction is likely to make a difference. Merely attending one session in a semester probably isn’t going to do much, so a dichotomous measure of attending or not attending doesn’t seem ideal. Instead, you might want to operationalize supplemental instruction participation as the proportion of all available sessions that each student attends.

The classical logic of hypothesis testing works by counterfactual evidence. We actually test the null hypothesis, which is the statement that there is no difference between groups or no relationship between variables. Logically, if the null hypothesis is rejected, something else must be true, which is called the alternate hypothesis. If the null hypothesis states, for example, that there is no difference between two group means, strong evidence against that claim will show up in the form of a large difference between the means,
relative to a much smaller amount of variation within the two groups. If there is sufficiently strong evidence against the claim of the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the two groups, the conclusion is that we reject the null hypothesis. If the null hypothesis is rejected, we accept the alternate hypothesis that the two means are different. This is an example of a two-tailed, or directional, hypothesis test. Hypothesis tests also can be directional, with a null hypothesis indicating that one mean is larger or smaller than the other, in which case the alternate hypothesis postulates the difference to be in the opposite direction.

Knowing what to conclude about a hypothesis depends on the criteria that are used. For example, to test whether there is a difference in the mean grade point performance of freshmen physics students with and those without supplemental instruction, you need to know how big a difference between the two means there needs to be before you can conclude that the supplemental instruction works. To do that, you have to think in terms of how much variation, or uncertainty, is built into that comparison of means. That uncertainty is measured by the standard error, which is a function of the numbers of students in each of the two groups and how much variation there is in each group. Dividing the difference in means by the standard error of the difference results in a test statistic that follows a \( t \) distribution, assuming that the two groups have equal variances. This assumption can be tested with an \( F \) test based on the ratio of the larger variance to the smaller variance. (If the variances are not the same, standard adjustments are available to resolve what is known in the statistical literature as the Behrens-Fisher problem.) The resulting calculated value of the test statistic then is compared against the critical test statistic value with degrees of freedom equal to the combined group sizes minus 2, for a preset value of Type I error, which is the probability of being wrong if you reject the null hypothesis that the two groups are the same. A value of .05 (5%) for Type I error is common in education and social science research, although a smaller value (say, .01, or 1%) would provide stronger evidence against the null hypothesis.

Simply comparing calculated and critical values of a test statistic doesn’t quite get the job done, however, because it is possible to specify the exact probability, or \( p \) value, of being incorrect if we reject the null hypothesis based on the amount of sample evidence to the contrary. The \( p \) value is calculated as the probability of obtaining a test statistic that is more extreme than what we actually got from the sample-based calculation, and it translates as the probability of being wrong if we decide to reject the null hypothesis with the amount of sample evidence against the null hypothesis. The smaller the \( p \) value, the less the probability that the decision to reject the null hypothesis is wrong.

In addition to the calculation of Type I error, it is possible that we have failed to reject a null hypothesis that, in fact, is false. This second kind of error, commonly referred to as Type II error, is more difficult to calculate because its value depends on the true value of the population parameter being estimated. A common benchmark is to accept a 2%, or .20, level of Type II error, which also would be referred to as 80%, or .80, power, which is defined as the probability of correctly rejecting a false null hypothesis.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also empiricism; evaluation; measurement, theories of; paradigm; research methods; quantitative research methods; variables

Further Readings and References


Idealism, AS PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION

Idealism describes philosophies that assume that reality is essentially mental or spiritual, human selfhood is central to understanding life and the world, humans come to know truth by examining their own ideas, and goodness is best described in terms of conformity with mental or spiritual ideas. Thus it may be more accurate to describe it as idea-ism. Idealism focuses on the self and on the development of individuals to bring them through education to appreciation of and conformity with transcendent spiritual or mental ideas. Thus, idealism is fundamentally opposed to naturalism and sees the purpose of education not in society’s needs but in the need to pursue a spiritual ideal. This implies that one role of the educational leader is to keep the focus on the spiritual and the transcendent, so that the philosopher and administrator are united in the same person. But in general, educational administration and leadership literature has found little of importance in idealism in the past half century, probably due to idealism’s apparent unconcern with the gritty problems of everyday life and to notions that educational administration research should be value free.

An example of the idealist worldview is Plato’s allegory of the cave. He described human beings as chained in a cave, facing the wall, on which a fire casts shadows of the real world outside. The real world outside is one of ideas (or ideals): perfect justice, perfect beauty, and so on, and all that human beings typically see are the shadows of them. But people of high character and mental ability can be educated to exit the cave and see the real world of ideas. Then they can return to the cave and teach others about them.

J. Donald Butler noted in 1966 that other versions of idealism include (a) Descartes’s urging that the foundation for knowing anything is the awareness of one’s own self and moving from that awareness to belief in God, (b) Spinoza’s pantheism, (c) Leibniz’s positing points of mental force as the basic entities of the cosmos and his description of human selves as spirits, (d) Berkeley’s argument that the concept of matter is meaningless without the concept of a mind to perceive it, (e) Kant’s reminder that the world’s unity depends on our conscious experience, and (f) Hegel’s prescription for finding the meaning of each specific phenomenon only in its relation to the Absolute Idea. Some versions of idealism are religious in a conventional sense; others are not.

Though idealist philosophers have written extensively about the implications of idealism for students, teachers, and curricula, operationalizing idealism for a system of education is tricky. First, there is debate over whether any philosophy has clear exclusive implications for educational practice. Second, idealism is so concerned with transcendence that any attempt to put its implications in practical terms (of morality, character education, doctrinal orthodoxy, or specific curricula or teaching methods) tends by definition to make of it less than it aims to be, to be less idealistic than ideological. In 2004, Gerald L. Gutek described ideology as based on specifics rather than universalities. To use Kantian terms, administration is often concerned with hypothetical imperatives of the form “If I wish to achieve end x, then I should behave in the way y.” Idealism would have us be concerned
rather with categorical imperatives that would not only apply in every circumstance but would in fact justify all our hypothetical imperatives.

We can find several candidates for idealism in education and educational leadership: religious origins of the common school movement, parochial schools, efforts by the “religious right” to influence public education, transformational and transformative approaches to leadership, and Christopher Hodgkinson’s 1996 suggestion that the primary stages of administration involve broad organizational goals that essentially involve ideas. But all of these movements can be rejected as candidates, either because there is controversy over whether they are best characterized as idealistic or ideological or because they are not explicitly derived from idealist views.

For example, public education in the United States, from the 1647 Old Deluder Satan Law, had an overtly religious character, and the Common School movement of the early 1800s involved a sense of creating a society guided by Christian principles. These may sound like versions of idealism, but some critical opinion has presented them rather as ideological.

In another vein, transformational leadership seems consistent with idealism, with its language of idealized influence, transcendence of self-interest, emphasis on deeply human relationships, and pursuit of higher purposes. But transformational leadership still concerns itself with organizational rather than transcendent goals, and transformational leadership literature does not explicitly link it to idealist worldviews.

Idealism may seem irrelevant to contemporary scholars of school administration because it provides little specific guidance for the complex day-to-day work of educational leadership, subject to the constant influence of competing stakeholders, and sometimes being reduced to satisfying, choosing the most desirable (or least objectionable) outcomes from a mixture of choices wherein possible good and possible harm are intermixed. Idealism is also vulnerable to charges from postmodern perspectives that it attends too little to struggles for power among various groups in society and to how worldviews are constructed to serve the needs of one group or another. Idealism arose and developed in simpler times and contexts and thus may be irrelevant for today.

—Gary Ivory

See also ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; philosophies of education; Plato; postmodernism; transformational leadership

Further Readings and References


IDEOLOGY, SHIFTS OF IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP PREPARATION

The United States is undergoing an ideological shift from that of civic promotion of the common good (progressivism) to that of restoring the citizen’s right of private property (neoconservatism). After over 100 years (approximately 1840s–1950s) of providing its citizenry with government protection from capitalism’s rough edges, the ideological pendulum has swung toward citizens’ rights to private property as goods and services are being redistributed from the public to the private sector through privatization and marketplace competition.

This shift in national ideology has a crucial implication for the field of education administration (EA): as the public school is subjected to market forces and is decoupled from schools of education, the EA field inexorably is shorn of its institutional lifeblood for political protection and its supply of administrator candidates. As argued below, the public school even during the height of progressivism in the nineteenth century exhibited a precarious cyclical existence. In this current neoconservative era, the public school is likely to endure continuing erosion of its institutional support as charter schools and vouchers make their mark on the public sector. EA’s long-term survival becomes increasingly precarious as the “iron triangle” (schools of education, school districts, and state education agencies) further dissipates and political support wanes.
That the downward spiraling of institutional support for the public school is producing political reverberations within the field of education administration seems far more a by-product of political ideology than the result of the litany of practitioner complaints that, after all, originated at least as far back as the 1880s. In expanding upon this theme, this entry (a) defines the term ideology, (b) contrasts progressive versus neconservative ideologies as to how each frames the institution of the school, (c) demonstrates how the public school has fared first under progressive ideology and now under neoconservative ideology, and (d) extends current trends in the political landscape surrounding the field of education administration.

POLITICAL IDEOLOGY DEFINED

James Cibulka defines a political ideology as a collective belief system about what is and ought to be in defining how government relates to civil society and the economy (i.e., the role of the state). Pertaining to civil society, these beliefs include the rights of individuals and the scope of government involvement in shaping value orientations and the life changes of individuals. Pertaining to the economy, political beliefs express preferences for how much the government should regulate economic growth, accumulation of private capital, and distribution of economic benefits.

In Western democracies, citizens reconcile individual differences through consultation and negotiation as their political leaders represent competing ideologies and help mold democratic institutions (e.g., the school, court, church, media) as to what results can and should be achieved. As ideologies change, institutions change in ways that promote the mutual benefit for the citizenry. Institutions deemed valuable in contributing to mutual benefit of the citizenry are supported, just as those institutions viewed as not contributing to mutual benefit atrophy.

Ideologies therefore predispose leaders to “read” problems that often preclude alternatives seen as more desirable to many citizens. President Bush’s call for tax cuts in 2003 while facing soaring deficits seems irrational to some citizens because taxes throughout U.S. history, beginning with the Civil War, have been increased to finance war efforts. However, supporting a strong defense, reducing the overall role of government, and returning taxpayer personal property through tax refunds even at the expense of a soaring national deficit endure as beliefs underpinning neoconservatism. U.S. leaders appeal for support in configuring our democratic institutions to reflect competing ideologies in the marketplace of ideas.

Progressive Ideology and the Institution of the School

Lawrence Cremin defined American progressivism as the attempt to spread America’s concept of democracy throughout the urban-industrial world. (This author prefers the term progressivism to liberal because the former term connotes the belief in the steady improvement in the human condition grounded in the peculiar American species of moralism.)

In expanding the scope of government, progressives envisioned the government as a reform tool to better society. Early-twentieth-century progressives (e.g., industrial leaders, women suffragettes, education reformers) focused on municipal reform in defining the role of the state as the safety net for the disadvantaged. The Great Depression expanded the activist role of government in promoting old-age pensions, unemployment insurance, and health care. John Kennedy (federalist intervention in segregationist policies in Mississippi), Lyndon Johnson (Great Society), and Jimmy Carter (multicultural political representation in Democratic caucuses in 1976 and 1980) sustained this tradition throughout the 1970s.

Horace Mann framed the common school as the democratic institution through which citizens consider the welfare of the entire citizenry just as individuals do for families. Mann, Jefferson, Franklin, and Dewey comprise a lineage of national leaders envisioning the public school as a micropolitical society in which children prepared for intelligent, responsible citizenship and learned to value democracy, universality, and equality. Our system of the common school, according to John Goodlad, grew out of what householders of the early colonial towns perceived to be the common good: teaching young citizens the laws of the land and the civil principles supported by religious belief connecting their own being with the provision of education for all. Students in the common school understand that what holds a democracy together is the moral coercion of informed public opinion, not physical force or legal penalties, according to John Stuart Mill. The common school tradition currently is characterized by the traditions of multiculturalism, the importance of diversity, and promoting equal opportunity and funding for all Americans.
Neoconservative Ideology and the Institution of the School

In minimizing the influence of government, neoconservatives seek to restore the rights of accumulating and maintaining personal property in reducing the role of government by redistributing goods and services from the public to the private sector.Neoconservatives believe that people vary in intellectual capacity, talents, and ambitions. Inequality is not only normal but also desirable, because society benefits when the most able and ambitious citizens contribute their talents to the social good. Neoconservatives are committed to core values like respect for authority, obedience to God and the religious scriptures, hard work, and commitment to the sanctity of marriage: essentially to preserve the social fabric. In protecting the privacy and sanctity of the family from the federal government and from professional elites seeking to impose their will through governmental authority and intervention, they define the role of the state as minimalist.

Neoconservatives define democracy as embodying the rights to private property within a market economy in extolling the rewards of the capitalistic system for superior effort and talent. Now that many Americans perceive that all groups, regardless of race, creed, and ethnicity, have access to economic success, the resurgence in conservatism represents the political backlash against progressivism by minimizing both “big government” and “welfare dependency.”

Predisposed to viewing democracy as the individual right of accumulating property, neoconservatives view the school as a consumer good serving multiple, private interests. The charter school exudes the values of competition, markets, and individual choice. Many neoconservatives also view the voucher as the mechanism linking the property right with values of sanctity and privacy of the family. Parents can use the voucher to choose schools consonant with their own ideological views in circumventing “government schools,” which teach multiculturalism, secularism, and right from wrong as relative values. The voucher helps recontour the school as a property right in accelerating the power of the marketplace through competition among service providers. Neoconservatives project their hostility toward the entire public sector upon the school as the institutional symbol of America’s moral decay and government inefficiency. Public schools are under attack not just because they are ineffective but because they are public.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SURVIVAL OF EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION PROFESSORATE UNDER NEOCONSERVATIVE IDEOLOGY

The public school and district, arguably, has been the lifeline to education administration. With the university established as the institution providing professional knowledge during the era of scientific management, the public school has provided teacher and administrator candidates to schools of education from the 1910s onward. In the 1950s, school districts, state education agencies, and universities formed political alliances to ward off scrutiny from legislator education oversight committees.

Yet the school even during the height of progressivism in the nineteenth century was far from a secure institution. In the 1840s, the school, often referred to as the “free school,” struggled for its existence as the very state legislation establishing free schools often was repealed in the following year. Horace Mann, Massachusetts commissioner of education, doubted whether the school would survive—given poorly paid teachers, dilapidated buildings, and boring, repetitive lessons.

Even as the school achieved a foothold among the American citizenry, schools in the 1890s were in a depressing and sorry state. Rural schools in particular, built in the education renaissance of the 1840s and 1850s, had fallen into disrepair and disrepute. In the cities, young immigrants from many countries swelled the schools already badly lighted, poorly heated, and frequently unsanitary. Superintendents hoped to reduce class size to 60 per teacher: a forlorn hope, as it turned out. Rote learning reigned because such a classroom approach was the best path to survival.

The history of the voucher demonstrates the school’s institutional ambiguity in American sociopolitical life. Vouchers were provided in the nineteenth century for New England children to attend public and nonpublic schools in districts that, due to low enrollments, had no secondary schools. In the early 1970s, the federal Office of Economic Opportunity experimented with vouchers and parental choice in the Alum Rock, California, school district. The U.S. Supreme Court in 2002 declared that vouchers used in Cleveland for religious schools were legal because the voucher has played a time-honored role in American social life. President Bush pledged in the 2003 state of the union speech that drug addicts would receive
vouchers in choosing from an array of services, including faith-based providers.

In that the institution of the school exhibited an institutional precariousness even during the height of progressivism, what might be the long-term future of education administration, with its need for teachers who become administrator candidates in its more than 500 preparation programs? The very political fragmentation and redistribution of goods and services, from the public to the private sector market forces affecting the public school, are now political forces threatening to eviscerate the education administration professoriate.

The Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) represents the downsizing machinery of the emerging political landscape of the school administrator training industry. Empowered by the National Policy Board of Educational Administration to review higher education programs, the ELCC is promulgating practitioner-driven standards and forcing the universities to compete in the marketplace. Implicit in this review process is that there are too many university-delivered programs that are inadequate in preparing school administrators. About 50% of the programs have been rejected. According to Fenwick English, the Interstate School Leader Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards were created in part to drive out the competition of those who were unable or unwilling to comply with accountability. As far back as 1988, a review of over 500 education administration programs indicated that only about 200 had the resources to offer quality programs.

Evidence of the neoconservative emphasis on marketplace consumer choice can be seen in the alternative routes to administrator licensure in addition to those sponsored by universities. At least 14 states have alternative routes to the principalship. Half of the 26 states responding to a national survey initiated legislation or had bills under discussion that signal shifts away from maintaining the university as sole paths to administrative licensure. Several states, including California, are providing incentives for private sector providers to enter the EA field.

THE FIELD AND PRIVATIZATION OF PREPARATION

That the field of education administration is now threatened with privatization and market-driven competition runs far deeper than over a century of practitioner complaints about program quality. The more deep-seated reason is ideological, as displayed by two phenomena. First, as members of the public recast the public school with a history characterized by institutional ambiguity as a citizen’s property right in the marketplace, the education administration professoriate has been sheared of political protection in its alliance with districts, who supply administrator candidates. Second, in this neoconservative era of redistributing goods and services from the public to the private sector through institutional downsizing, it seems inevitable that massive elimination of EA programs will occur, perhaps through the Internet.

Can online coursework replace the thoughtful contemplation of the practitioner’s relationship between theory and practice as envisioned by John Dewey? The field increasingly may be driven by the ISLLC Standards in part because standards enable marketplace competition to thrive. Without standards and assessment, the outcomes of competing service providers have no measurable market value. The shape, content, and independence of preparation programs in educational administration may well be reforged by these forces in the next century.

—John L. Keedy

See also accountability; authority; choice, of schools; competition, forms of, in schools; cultural capital; democracy, democratic education and administration; Dewey, John; economics, theories of; fundamentalism; globalization; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; Jefferson, Thomas; knowledge base, of the field; leader effectiveness; Mann, Horace; market theory of schooling; philosophies of education; productivity; reductionism/parsimony; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; standard setting; state departments of education; value-added indicators; values of organizations and leadership; vulnerability thesis, of superintendents

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Imagination

For educational leaders, imagination is the spark that provokes the will into action. Imagination combines intelligence, desire, the ability to create, mental sensing, and a reasoning component in a mental capacity for experiencing, constructing, or manipulating mental imagery.

Despite its familiarity as a commonly used word, the concept of imagination is complex and contested in academic circles. Ask 10 different philosophers or scientists how they define imagination, and you will get 10 different responses. For example, controversy exists as to whether thoughts are synonymous with imagination or merely a component of the process. Like consciousness, the concept remains a fascinating enigma and one that is not easily dissected through empirical observation. No one yet knows where imagination is located in the brain, or indeed if it has a location or what sort of processes are involved in its production.

Imagination is critical in the learning process as learners make meaning out of experience and knowledge through critical reflection. Aristotle was the first to conclude that imagination presents us with images and that the soul thinks in images. Imagination, he said, was vital to all forms of thinking, not just creativity, and was separate from common sense.

Like a yo-yo, interest in the study of imagination has peaked and waned throughout the centuries. Researchers lost interest in the seventeenth century, then regained interest in the eighteenth century when imagination became associated with original, creative thinking. By the mid-twentieth century, it had lost significance again, and behaviorism, with its emphasis on language as thought, pushed imagination further into the hinterlands of scientific discovery. Today, brain research is linking images to thought, thus rejuvenating Aristotle’s theory. The same regions of the brain light up in MRI studies whether a person imagines a place or actually sees it.

The vision component of strategic planning is an attempt through imagination to bring about a different reality and liberate the organization from conventional thinking. Three types of imagination are used in this creative endeavor: descriptive, creative, and challenging imagination. Descriptive imagination identifies patterns and visualizes the indefinable, the unknown which is out there. Flowcharts and portfolios are examples of this kind of imagination. Creative imagination transforms existing concepts. Challenging imagination is the technique of critically evaluating the progress made from the previous imaginings and, if necessary, starting all over again.

Imagination is part of how we think and achieve, and some of us are better at it than others. Olympic athletes use mental imagery, as do pro golfers and basketball stars, to increase their performance. Studies show that mental imagery can help with balance and motor function after a stroke. The self-fulfilling prophecy is that expecting success leads to thinking and acting in a manner that brings about success. Daydreams have always had a place in making sense of the world and our interaction with each other and the environment.

We know that imagination as an intellectual activity is an integral part of creativity, the search for truth, and consciousness. The commercial success of the Internet, movies like The Matrix and Star Wars, and other forms of entertainment illustrate that imagination can be a vehicle that bridges that gap between theory and practice. Amazement, wonder, and mystery,
the embodiments of imagination, are essential qualities of being human.

—JoAnn Franklin Klinker

See also Aristotle; charisma, of leaders; creativity, in management; creativity, theories of; critical thinking; heuristics; leadership styles; leadership, theories of; metacognition; neuroscience; perceptual psychology; problem solving; theories, use of; transformational leadership

Further Readings and References


## Immigration, History and Impact in Education

Educating immigrant children in the United States has always been a complicated and contested issue. Current trends, such as a swelling immigrant population, more ethnic diversity and the impact on schools of social and political changes begun in the 1950s, will only serve to increase these challenges. Globalization also has an impact on education in general and educating immigrant children in particular.

Over the last two centuries, the United States has experienced a flood of immigration. The Hispanic population has been the fastest growing ethnic group in the United States, from less than 1 million at the turn of the nineteenth century to 37.4 million in 2002, and is now the nation’s largest minority population. The Asian population in the United States has shown a similar pattern of rapid growth, from less than a quarter of a million to 12.5 million over the same period. Approximately 34 million immigrants currently reside in the United States, and over 9 million U.S. schoolchildren are from immigrant families. Among foreign-born children, 53% are Hispanic, 25% are Asian, and 7% are Black, with a minority being White Europeans. This substantial demographic change is transforming American society not only in large cities but also in towns and rural areas. Mounting concerns exist at national, state, and local levels on how to absorb the vast number of newcomers into American society in a timely fashion without jeopardizing immigrants’ linguistic and cultural identities. These concerns reflect societal anxieties within the American public about finding a balance between maintaining solidarity and endorsing diversity.

Studying the history of immigrants’ education is challenging to researchers due to its interdisciplinary and controversial nature. Immigration itself is a complex field, requiring a multidisciplinary understanding of sociology, anthropology, political science, and linguistics, among other fields. The theoretical constructs of classic assimilation and acculturation frame the discourse on immigrants and their children’s enculturation process. Assimilation envisages upward progress with each succeeding generation for all groups, although perhaps at different paces. Acculturation emphasizes the structural context of the multiple, contradictory paths immigrants take, and predicts different outcomes due to these variations. While classic assimilation emphasizes self-sufficiency (individual motivation, effort, and self-empowerment), acculturation focuses on restricted social and economic opportunities via racial exclusion, xenophobia, and ethnic stereotypes. The two theories are not mutually exclusive, and dynamic exchanges between them are a basis for two models, one called “subtractive” and the other “additive,” for education policy making and practice.

The subtractive model of classic assimilation emphasizes the handicaps associated with foreign status (such as poor English proficiency and unfamiliarity with social networks) and the possibility of quick, complete Americanization through a monolinguis-tic/monocultural approach. It deemphasizes the need for structural change of institutions and instead emphasizes the correction of children’s non-American attributes. This model fails to recognize the cultural and psychological strengths of immigrants and the resources within ethnic communities.

The additive model of acculturation has dominated educational research and cultural studies since the 1990s. It stresses the importance of multicultural identities in first- and second-generation immigrant children and their ability to communicate in home languages with family and community. It is believed that maintaining such identities encourages social and psychological well-being. This model advocates changes at institutional levels for mutual adaptations between immigrants and their surrounding environment, acknowledging cultural relevance in curriculum reform, and promoting mutual respect and cooperation between schools, families, and communities.
IMMIGRATION AND IMMIGRANTS: THEN AND NOW

The Four Waves of Immigration

Immigrants to the United States have varied considerably in numbers, composition, and means and have encountered their new country during very different economic phases. In 2003, Philip Martin and Elizabeth Midgley described the four waves of immigrants who came to the United States. The first wave (1790–1820) came from the British Isles to a colonial, agrarian society. The second wave immigrants (1849–1850s) were predominantly Irish and German settlers that arrived when the United States was undergoing rapid industrialization and expansion. The third wave (1880–1914) came from southern and Eastern Europe and found manufacturing jobs in large cities. Changes in U.S. immigration laws over time have helped determine who the immigrants are. The immigrants in the first three waves reflect the changes in U.S. immigration laws over time with preferences for and restrictions to various groups due to their countries of origin. For example, the 1924 National Origins Act established quotas favoring northwestern Europeans. The 1952 McCarran-Walter Act and the 1965 Immigration Act abolished the national-origin quotas. This change not only increased the number of immigrants but also shifted their countries of origin from Europe to Asia and Latin America. The 1965 Immigration Act and 1976 Amendments to Immigration and Nationality Act put countries on a relatively equal footing via a limit of 20,000 immigrants annually per country and gave priority to immigrants with family ties to the United States or skills desired by the United States.

The 1965 Immigration Act paved the way for the fourth wave of immigration, the largest in U.S. history. A majority of newcomers from Latin America and Asia entered a postindustrial and service-oriented U.S. society. Approximately 1 million immigrants, both legal and undocumented, entered the United States every year in the 1980s and 1990s. This has substantially changed the proportion of immigrants in the U.S. population and will continue to have effects on the U.S. ethnic composition for years to come. Immigrants now account for one third of the net annual U.S. population increase. It is likely that by 2010, one in four Americans will be either an immigrant or a child of immigrants, with a minority population comprising approximately one third of the U.S. total. The Hispanic population will be over 45 million and account for about 15% of the total U.S. population, and the Asian population will reach 17 million, or about 5%. These recent trends have begun to change the United States from a largely biracial society to a multiracial and multiethnic one, with several racial/ethnic groups of considerable size. The influx of Hispanic and Asian students has been particularly dramatic in the West, Southwest, and Northeast of the United States, where in some districts Spanish- and Asian-language-speaking students comprise a fairly large proportion of the school population.

Since immigrant students bring different life experiences, cultural communication patterns, languages, and educational traditions, their rapid addition to U.S. schools poses a challenge to many public education systems. This includes affecting school budgeting, especially in urban areas where most new arrivals live. Schools also have to fight negative immigrant stereotypes, as many taxpayers see non-Western backgrounds as detrimental to both national identity and educational standards. However, others believe that immigrants’ optimism, work ethics, and cultural/linguistic resources not only enrich the U.S. national heritage but also enhance its status in an increasingly globalized world by providing new talents, contemporary skills, and trade that fuels economic expansion.

The fourth wave of immigration differs from the first three in several ways. First, its immigrants are entering a postindustrial society. While the previous “push and pull” theory, as described by Everett Lee in 1966, attributed large global movements of people to individual and family decisions, international labor market redistribution theories explain human geographic movement via the inevitability of free market labor flows to and between postindustrial societies in a global economy. Temporary and transnational immigrants change the stereotype of uprooted immigrants, permanently severed from their motherland, and turn the concept of “enculturation” into a process of transacculturation. Migration, in many cases, is a social/economic process involving networks that link origins and destinations. Second, new demands by globalization have attracted different types of immigrants than those in the past. Based on 1990 census data, Xue Lan Rong and Judith Preissle’s 1998 report that immigrants in the 1990s were the most diverse population ever to come to the United States—bringing a variety of business, administrative, and political skills, as well as diverse cultural, language, religious, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Many arrivals came with postbaccalaureate degrees and
abundant knowledge of Western society and English fluency, quickly becoming entrepreneurs, scientists, engineers, and other professionals. (Others, however, with less education or fewer skills, have encountered numerous barriers for successful integration into U.S. society.) Also, refugees may suffer psychological traumas in both their home countries and in the emigration journey. These divergent backgrounds are reflected in various settlement patterns in the United States and may affect children’s linguistic transition, schooling behaviors, and educational achievements. Hence, the increase in size and diversity of the fourth wave demands a wide range of services (linguistic, curricular, instructional, counseling, to name a few), which the nation’s educational institutions must respond to.

Moreover, this fourth wave emerged during and after the civil rights movement, thus giving it a unique cultural and political context quite different from those of the past. In the contemporary social climate, more progressive segments of U.S. society advocate a pluralistic approach to immigrants’ enculturation. The non-European background of the majority of immigrants puts the traditional American school practices (i.e., monolingualistic and monocultural) under scrutiny and severe strain. In the last two decades, arguments for heritage language and culture preservation are better established in social and educational theories, the alliances between immigrant communities and political leaders are more powerful, and movements for immigrants’ rights are stronger. Nevertheless, in recent years opposition to these pluralistic approaches in schools has resurfaced and grown, making the education of immigrant children increasingly controversial. In the past, immigrant minorities such as Hispanic Americans and Asian Americans fought legal and political battles for desegregation in schools, and even today many still fight unofficial school segregation. Attempts to ban undocumented Mexican immigrant children from attending local schools in Texas and Florida resulted in Plyler v. Doe, a 1982 Supreme Court ruling that no child may be refused enrollment in a public school solely on the basis of the child’s or parents’ immigration status. Another attempt, embodied in California’s 1994 Proposition 187, to limit education and health services to undocumented immigrants and their children, was thrown out by California courts.

Though the immigrants’ situations have differed with each wave, they have also shared some similarities. Immigrants—especially cultural, political, religious, and racial/ethnic minorities—are likely to become convenient scapegoats during wars, political crises, and economic downturns when nativist feelings are high. While poorer immigrants are often demeaned as a “societal burden and are welfare addicted,” middle-class immigrants are resented as “crossovers.” Furthermore, refugees from nations at war with the United States are even more likely to be viewed with suspicion, such as dissidents from Middle Eastern countries being viewed as potential terrorists, just as dissidents from Cuba or Russia were viewed as communist sympathizers. A typical example of scapegoating is the internment of Japanese American adults and children who were treated as enemies within during World War II. There has also been a pattern in U.S. history of rejecting immigrants with different religious backgrounds, such as early Irish Catholic immigrants, later Jewish immigrants, and more recently, Muslim immigrants. Comparing current trends with those of the past may help American society learn lessons about its misconceptions and wrongful treatment of certain groups and shed light on future changes in people’s attitudes and public policies.

THEORIES AND PRACTICE

Classic Assimilation and Acculturation Theories

Research on immigration and education was once dominated by classic assimilation theory, which predicted a straight, upward progression into American culture. That is, each successive generation residing in the United States would improve its education and socioeconomic status as children and their families become more familiar with American culture, the English language, and school environments. This perspective postulates higher educational and occupational attainments for each successive generation in the United States, although rates might vary by group.

Acculturation theory is comprised of many strands, such as selective assimilation, pluralism, accommodation without assimilation, and socioecological theory. Progressive scholars conceptualize immigration as a complex process involving multiple stages of incorporation into American society. This theory posits that in a multistriated system such as the United States, immigrants’ characteristics of race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, age of arrival, and so forth interact with the characteristics of the communities in which they settle. These interactions can then affect their children’s initial and continuing adjustments. These microlevel
factors also interplay with many macrolevel factors such as socioeconomic conditions, sociocultural/historical traditions, laws and policies, and native residents’ responses to immigration. Together, these interactive effects may result in different acculturation patterns that predict the complex schooling behaviors and different educational outcomes for immigrant children in the United States. Acculturation scholars who specialize in critical pedagogies tend to highlight the structures of inequality (such as poverty, inferior education, and occupational stratification) that require governments to act affirmatively to promote opportunities for minorities. Cultural researchers tend to define overassimilation as an adoption by immigrant youth of the outlooks and behaviors of U.S. popular culture that can distract from schoolwork (for example, paid labor, dating, nonmarital fertility, extracurricular activities, or even drug and alcohol use). Furthermore, rapid overassimilation also permits immigrant children to move away from supervision by their families and ethnic communities, thereby decreasing even more their influence.

While this entry focuses on distinguishing the two theories and their educational relevance, there is a need to point out that the relationship between the two models (i.e., classic assimilation and acculturation) is more complex than that presented here. They share some commonalities: both acknowledge that immigrants have historically suffered from exclusion, alienation, and marginalization, though each may interpret the causes and remedies differently. Both theories recognize the cultural discontinuity between home and the adopted countries, and agree with the need for basic assimilation steps, such as acquiring English language proficiency and learning social customs. Their arguments, however, not only differ regarding how to achieve the basic assimilation steps but also on the extensive assimilation steps, such as abandoning one’s heritage language and culture and moving away from an ethnic community. For example, the assimilationist aims to quickly eliminate ethnic boundaries, while the pluralist or multiculturalist aims to accommodate them. There are two different visions of America: a melting pot with a single American identity or a cultural democracy with pluralism.

Classic assimilation has been criticized for its pervasive and coercive exclusion of immigrants’ cultures and ethnicities in the melting process. It has also been questioned by many researchers who noted an intergenerational decline—rather than progression—in education and incomes for some groups, as well as persistent social mobility gaps between White and non-Whites across generations. Acculturation theory has been criticized for overemphasizing a minority immigrant’s vulnerability while losing sight of the individual’s decisions. However, in recent years, acculturation theory has moved to a more comprehensive framework that not only focuses on institutional barriers but also views the social structure as enabling by recognizing individuals and family and ethnic communities as agents for provision of social/cultural/psychological and economic capitals.

To better understand the development and impact of these two major theories, we need to turn to the past. A review of the literature reveals gaps between early and later scholarly work concerning the goals and means of language education, and cultural adjustment/adaptation. The fields have evolved in the last two decades, however, and a historical review shows that issues for schools working with immigrant students are inextricably linked to broader societal attitudes about immigration. Schools throughout the century have found themselves in a recurring pendulum swing between theories of assimilation and acculturation. Without acknowledging the historical trends, the analysis of the two models may be seen as a clear-cut dichotomization.

Research into school achievement of immigrant children can illustrate how the classic assimilation and acculturation theories have been applied. Past studies framed by classic assimilation theory tended to claim the progressive effects of Americanization on immigrant children’s educational achievement. Because students from immigrant communities were often portrayed as underachievers due to perceived social and cultural deficits, many communities were afraid that an increase in immigrant enrollment might cause a decline in the quality of their schools. These fears occurred despite the fact that immigrant children’s schooling behavioral patterns were complex and their educational performances were variable.

Some studies have shown a curvilinear pattern for the achievements of students across generations. Superior attainments were shown by the second-generation students (American-born children with immigrant parents) in comparison with immigrant or native-born groups (although immigrant youths who have arrived at a young age may perform similarly to second-generation students). Other, more recent studies have reported even a downward trend with time of
Additive and Subtractive Models and Practices in Education

The subtractive and the additive models derived from classic assimilation theories and acculturation theories correspondently offer contradictory views on many educational perspectives such as educational policy making and implementation, school organization and school outreach efforts, curriculum design, and professional development of teachers and assessment of students. Research findings in the last two decades have seriously challenged many of the previous assumptions about immigrant children’s educational experience and produced a large amount of scholarly writing using the additive model. This entry introduces additivists’ three major arguments about school education for immigrant children.

To ease the cultural dilemma, a typical phenomenon in immigrant children’s social and psychological development, the two models are based on very different philosophies about what it means to be an American and how to become one. Contemporary scholars criticize the subtractive, “melting-pot” approach as coercing newcomers into quickly relinquishing their heritage language in order to achieve “full” acceptance by American society. They argue that immigrants who trade their heritage language and culture for complete Americanization are severely challenging this commitment to providing immigrants the educational opportunities, possible attraction to a defensive identity and ambivalence toward authority. While basic assimilation is regarded as necessary, extensive assimilation or overassimilation is regarded as negatively affecting education attainment, perhaps even causing education decline for succeeding generations.

Marcelo Suarez-Orozco wrote that there are social, economic, cognitive, and aesthetic advantages for immigrant children, permitting them to traverse cultural spaces. Rather than having immigrant children abandon all elements of their first culture in a transnational journey, a more promising path would be to cultivate and nurture the emergence of new hybrid identities and multicultural competencies in such children.

In regard to curriculum redesign and school reform, school administrators and teachers need to examine the traditional belief that “complete Americanization” is beneficial for children’s schooling. They must also consider what other resources and strengths these children have. While educators design programs to help the initial adjustment of immigrant children, strategies need to be invented to help them maintain their native languages and draw strength from their heritage cultures. This can then help them develop a positive sense of their ethnic/immigrant identity and to serve as cultural resources. In order to do so, school curricula should be culturally relevant, sensitive, and responsive. Their designs need to have global perspectives in terms of understanding the transnational nature of immigration and acknowledging local immigrant communities. This educational approach would accommodate the needs of a culturally diverse student body while at the same time enrich the education experiences of all students, immigrant and nonimmigrant alike. Another approach to school reform would be targeted at the recruitment and training of teachers. Schools should make true efforts to hire teachers with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Preservice and inservice teacher training programs need to help teachers develop an understanding of different cultural expectations and an awareness of the need to encourage immigrant students to maintain their heritage languages and cultures through many approaches, including creating and enhancing community outreach programs. Educational systems can work with parents to support and empower students, and these efforts should be persistent throughout the child’s school life.

In terms of policies, since the additive model puts more emphasis on the contextual factors of immigration, major social and educational institutions are assumed to have the main responsibilities for accommodating immigrant families and communities in their initial and continuing adjustments. Current monolinguial/monocultural movements in many states are severely challenging this commitment to providing...
equitable and effective education to all students. These movements may cause the most damage to children in minority immigrant groups and recent arrivals. When examining immigration-related educational policies, additive scholars frequently consider how policies have been made, how they were implemented, and whose interest they serve.

Looking back on how U.S. immigration and related educational laws and policies have been made, immigrants who belong to a small percentage of the local population and who are unfamiliar with the American legislative and legal processes lack social and political connections and are likely to be vulnerable to discrimination of all kinds and have little opportunity to be involved in the policy-making process.

Policymakers and school administrators should learn from history. When Americanization was equated with Anglicization, and English acquisition was viewed as bleaching one’s ethnicity and heritage language, schools were likely to conflict with immigrant parents and communities. Since the fourth wave immigration is a direct consequence of civil rights legislation, contemporary immigrant groups are better able to lobby for self-advocacy than their predecessors. Educators should advocate a constructivist approach, focusing on schools’ and newcomers’ mutual accommodation. Schools need to rethink their outreach efforts—treating immigrant students and their communities not as passive service receivers but as active and critical participants in their own learning, encouraged to become their own agents for change. Establishing true partnership between schools, parents, and communities may not be easy, but it can produce workable policies and programs that strengthen ties between school, family, and community and bring lasting success to immigrant children. Finally, policies and practices in language education require a more comprehensive understanding of the three aspects above.

Although in the past Americans have often shown suspicion and resentment of language preservation efforts by immigrant communities, those communities endeavored to preserve their heritage languages—battling public educational systems for effective bilingual education programs and maintaining the ethnic language outside the school system via weekend community schools with parent volunteers. However, bilingual education research reveals sharp controversy regarding how best to teach English to immigrant children. The 1974 Supreme Court ruling in Nichol v. Lau required the state to provide language aids to immigrant children who had not developed English proficiency. English as a second language (ESL) classes and bilingual education policies (known as the Lau Plans) were developed and enforced in public school systems in many states thereafter. However, the implementation of bilingual education has provoked a backlash by English-only advocates, such as California’s 1998 Proposition 227, the “English for the children movement.”

Acquiring English fluency has been viewed as crucial for immigrant children’s academic success. Maintaining the ability to communicate in home languages with family and community is also recognized as necessary for immigrant children’s socialization and psychological well-being. When immigrants lose their heritage language, they may also lose many aspects of their heritage culture. Some scholars argue that the outcome of a child’s language transition depends on the interplay between many factors, including place of birth, age of arrival, length of U.S. residency, social class, parental education, family language, neighborhood language diversity, the English environment, availability of schooling, and quality of ESL or bilingual education programs.

Language policymakers should consider the process of language learning in public schools as a mutual, adaptive collaboration between school and immigrant children and an accommodation among multiple ethnolinguistic groups. They also need to understand that unless the links between English acquisition and heritage language retention and attrition are concurrently addressed in family environments, U.S. schools cannot effectively teach English to every immigrant child.

Several lessons need to be learned when making and implementing language policies. First, reducing acculturation to one factor only (e.g., English speaking) is a typical subtractive approach. Second, those programs that worked (or did not) for our grandparents’ generation may not work for current immigrant children. Third, states newly receiving waves of immigrants must draw on the experience of states that have worked with immigrant children for decades in the past.

—Xue Lan Rong

See also: Afrocentric theories; Asian Pacific Americans; at-risk students; Black education; critical race theory; cultural capital; discipline in schools; dropouts; ethnocentrism; eugenics; expulsion, of students; grades, of students; language theories and processes; Latinos; literacy, theories of; measurement,
theories of; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; parental involvement; peace education; politics, of education; Pygmalion effect; recognition theory/identity politics; resiliency; social relations, dimensions of; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


**INDIAN EDUCATION**

The education of American Indian and Alaska Native children, hereinafter referred to as Native Americans, has been fraught with misconceptions, misdeeds, and the occasional brilliant move toward culturally appropriate curricula and leadership. To understand the present situation of education among Native Americans, one must look back to the history of such education, which often parallels the history of politics between the U.S. government and Native Americans. It should be noted, first, that it has always been an oversimplification to speak of Native Americans and their culture as a single entity. There are over 500 federally recognized Native American tribes in the United States today that differ in language, economic and governmental systems, history, traditional customs, and religious beliefs. Thus, this entry attempts to speak of the educational history that is often common to all Native American peoples.

The history of Indian education is far older than the history of the first Europeans on the continent and the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). Native American tribes and clans had their own traditional manner of education long before the European incursion on North America soil. This European arrival brought about far-reaching, destructive changes to the lives of Native Americans, some of which included ways in which children would be educated. The initial efforts by Europeans to educate Native Americans involved obvious attempts to enforce assimilation and destruction of the Native American culture. Unfortunately, much of the history of Native American education up to today has been characterized by the same purpose.

**COLONIAL EDUCATION**

From initial contact with European settlers, Native Americans were under pressure to conform to White ways of behavior, dress, and religion. Many treaties contained provisions for the education of Indian children, the first of which occurred in 1794. Initially, the U.S. government used funding to pay various church organizations to operate already established mission schools. Then, in 1879, the federal government began its own system of off-reservation boarding schools. Much of this system consisted of the forced removal of Native American children from their parents to boarding schools far from the reservation. Here, children were often severely punished for any use of their cultural practices or languages. The philosophy undergirding this system of education was for the children to be rapidly assimilated into the dominant culture by being separated from the influence of their own cultures at an early age. Such a system continued into the 1930s.

The boarding school system, however, was not successful in its attempts at forced assimilation because the vast majority, almost 95%, of Native American children placed in off-reservation boarding schools eventually returned to their reservations. But many of these former boarding school students became marginalized in both cultures, since they were no longer familiar with the practices, traditions, and languages of their own tribes and clans.

K. Tsianina Lomawaima refers to this phase of Native American education as colonial education, referring to the reculturing and reeducation of Native
Americans by both secular and religious institutions of such colonizing nations as Spain, Great Britain, France, and the United States. Lomawaima maintains that such a philosophy was accepted as inherently right by past colonizers and continues to underlie contemporary stereotypes about Native Americans and educational practices. Yet there was nothing natural or true about the philosophy of colonial education. Such a philosophy held that (a) Native Americans were savages and had to be civilized, (b) civilization required conversion to Christianity, (c) civilization required subordination of Native American communities, which was frequently achieved through resettlement efforts, and (d) Native American people have mental, moral, physical, or cultural deficiencies that made certain pedagogical methods necessary for their education. These doctrines were not based on natural truths but were culturally constructed and served specific agendas of the colonizing nations.

One of the overarching assumptions of the colonizing nations was that Christianity and Western or European cultural traditions were the cornerstones of a “civilized” and “human” life; thus, the method used by the colonial nations to assert power resulted in the relocation and resettlement of Native American communities. For example, the Jesuits in New France had been directed to introduce manual labor into Native American education as early as 1665, and Spanish missions served as early models for the American religions and federal boarding schools of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

In Native American boarding schools, students were immersed in a life of labor, but their training was judiciously calculated not to create laborers who could compete economically against more privileged classes. These schools lifted up manual labor and hard work as effective civilizing practices; cleanliness and orderliness became pedagogical tools of cultural transformation. Such discipline imposed the complete uniformity of the appearance on Native American students. Uniforms—whether by mission- or government-issued clothing—and regulation haircuts were essential in “remaking” Native students. In addition to transforming the outward physical appearance of students and their work habits, teaching liturgical music, popular songs and lullabies, ceremonies, dramas, and pageants of the dominant culture were utilized to help remodel emotional expression, emotional life, and affective relationships to culture and society.

This emphasis on uniformity and regimented discipline lasted four and one half centuries as educational institutions strove to reshape Native individuals and societies. All U.S. mission and federal boarding schools, from their inception until World War II, utilized the disciplines of military regimentation to train students in subservience and conformity.

**HINTS OF REFORM**

During the 1920s, however, changes in philosophy toward Native American education and policy began. One of the more important documents to influence the federal government toward Native education was the Meriam Report of 1928. The report called for a changing attitude and style in educating Indian students. This report (also known as *The Problem of Indian Administration*) also identified the lack of Native American professionals in the BIA as a key problem. Since Native American leadership in education was and is a recent phenomenon, professional leadership in schools had to wait for the development of a group of Native educators to work with students and teachers. This impetus also provided the opportunity to help tribal organizations focus on the need for managing and developing educational institutions.

These changes were later reflected in the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934. Under this act, the federal government introduced the teaching of Native American history and culture and increased reliance on day schools rather than boarding schools, as well as other new educational measures. Since the boarding school system had failed to eliminate Native Americans as recognizable and distinct cultures, the federal government began to support the placement of Native American children in public schools; the Johnson O’Malley Act of 1934 authorized payments to states or territories for the education of Indians in public institutions.

Although this policy shift seemed to be somewhat realistic attempt to practice more fair treatment of Native American children in their education, this trend was accelerated during what Reyner refers to as the “Termination” period of 1945–1968. During this period, the federal government attempted to terminate the reservation system it had instigated the previous century. In this phase, federal policy was to relocate Native Americans to urban areas, and responsibility for the education of Native children was turned over to individual states. The educational and relocation practices of the termination period became the twentieth-century version of the assimilation strategies of the nineteenth century.
Leading for Self-Determination

The opposition of tribal leaders to these termination policies and the concurrent civil rights movements of the 1960s and 1970s resulted in the passage of the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975. The legislation sometimes resulted in increased control by Native Americans over the education of their children through tribally controlled reservation schools and the requirement that Native American parents participate as advisers to any public school receiving federal money for the education of Native American children. The movement toward such control of Native American education actually began somewhat earlier in the 1960s, then obtained legislation in the 1970s, survived the 1980s, and picked up momentum in the 1990s. This section discusses this portion of Native American educational history.

John Tippeconic explains that the 1960s represented a time of vast social change in the United States. The expectations of marginalized peoples, such as Native Americans, provided an opportunity to surface as a people with a legitimate historical claim on public policy to bring their ambitions to fruition. This rare historical opening called forth a new kind of Native leadership. By 1968 President Johnson had demanded the establishment of Indian school boards at federal Indian schools, and by May 1969, 174 of the BIA’s 222 schools had advisory boards. The number of Native Americans on public school boards had also increased. Shortly thereafter, the Kennedy Report of 1969 recommended that parental and community involvement in Native American education also be increased. The report required state and local communities to facilitate and encourage both Native American community and parental involvement in the development and operation of public education programs for their students, and that a national policy provide maximum participation and control by Native Americans. As well, the emerging Native American leadership for education in the early 1970s was committed to equality within the Native American communities and freedom of their people to define their own futures.

Further policies that furthered the cause of self-determination included the 1972 Indian Education Act, which appropriated funds to public schools to meet culturally related academic needs of Native American students. Parent involvement continued to be encouraged. Also, the act provided discretionary funds for Native American institutions, organizations, tribes, and individuals for educational services that ranged from early childhood through graduate school.

The Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act (Public Law 93-638) of 1975 allowed for more Indian control of contracts to public schools through the second part of the act, known as the Johnson O’Malley Act (as amended). In 1978 the Tribally Controlled Community College Assistance Act provided financial support to tribal colleges. In 1988 Congress passed the Tribally Controlled School Act (Public Law 100-297), which allowed direct granting of funds to school boards to operate schools. This law also authorized the BIA to fund tribal departments of education, none of which have ever been funded.

John Tippeconic clarifies that all this legislation was due more to the political astuteness and perseverance of Native American educators, organizations, tribes, and other driving forces than to the beneficence of Congress or the various presidential administrations. Some of the organizations that played key roles in advancing Native American education included the Coalition of Indian Controlled School Boards, National Indian Education Association, National Congress of American Indians, American Indian Higher Education Consortium, National Indian School Boards Association, Native American Rights Fund, Navajo Area School Boards Association, and the Association of Community Tribal Schools.

By the 1990s the policy of self-determination overlapped with efforts to downsize and redesign the federal government. Tippeconic posits that there is an increased drive for tribal control and flexibility in the BIA resources. Yet, concurrent with this drive for more tribal control of resources were limited existing funds and little new money with which to increase tribal control.

Recent Developments
and a Glimpse of the Future

There have been advances made in Native American education since European control began hundreds of years ago. Efforts toward Native American self-determination of the manner in which their children will be educated are promising for the future of Indian education. However, although almost 90% of Native American children attend public schools, there are serious concerns for their educational welfare. Unfortunately, in many cases, the process of self-determination
has been hampered by reservation poverty, irregularities in federal financial support, and interference by the BIA. The 1991 Indian Nations at Risk report from the U.S. Department of Education identified specific barriers Native American children must overcome if schools are to succeed in their mission to educate these children. The report identified such barriers as limited opportunities to enrich language and developmental skills during preschool years, an unfriendly school climate, a curriculum presented from a purely Western perspective, low expectations, loss of Native language ability, high dropout rates, and a lack of opportunity for parents and communities to develop a real sense of participation.

American Indian schools themselves, however, are in a position to change in ways never envisioned before. The Goals 2000: Educate America Act of 1994 opened opportunities for real change by proposing a framework for school reform in a manner that targets the greatest high-risk students, among whom are certainly Native Americans. Although congressional action in 1995 seriously cut some of the Educate America Act initiatives, Goals 2000 remained in effect as part of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), Title I school-wide Consolidated School Reform Plan, and as part of the BIA Office of Indian Education Programs (OIEP) activities for the 1995–1996 fiscal year.

While federal funding has changed, Native American leadership has also changed since the 1960s. Such leadership seems more oriented to economic development and uses advanced technology as instruments for development. The mark of the effectiveness of this leadership will be whether it can continue to adapt to changing economic and social conditions and create new potential for its people. Exceptionally perceptive educational leadership may accomplish bold, new goals, but such leadership will require flexibility, creativity, strength, and spirit in our changing and difficult social environment.

Tribal control is also essential. Historically, the federal government has used education to change and assimilate Native Americans. Tribal languages and cultures in schools have been devastated by federal policy often in the past. The irony of Native American tribes as sovereign nations living side-by-side with a federal government that supposedly values diversity is not lost on Native leaders. Assimilation has not succeeded, but its impact is observed in the education statistics and in the inferior quality of schooling received by many Native American students today. Far too many Native American students are at risk of falling short in both Native and mainstream American greater society. There is growing evidence that when tribes control education, Native American students do better. Studies indicate that high school graduation rates increased from 20%–30% in 1970 to 65%–80% in 1996 when tribal control had increased. Tribal control may well be the necessary impetus to achieve tribal and individual self-sufficiency and to regain and fortify the use of Native languages and cultures in schools and communities.

—Dana Christman

See also accountability; at-risk students; bureaucracy; communities, types, building of; competition, forms of, in schools; cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; discrimination; dropouts; ethnicity; ethnocentrism; eugenics; intelligence; Latinos; literacy, theories of; migrant students; minorities, in schools; multiculturalism; politics, of education; standardized testing; suicide, in schools; tracking, of students; underachievers, in schools

Further Readings and References


arrived in the United States with dreams of a new life in the land of opportunity. The new immigrants were expected to “fit in” and lose their ethnic backgrounds and languages. At the same time, the western frontier beckoned newcomers willing to strike out on their own, relying on their own skills, strengths, and knowledge to overcome obstacles. This other face of American identity valued rugged individualism with its ethic of independence, determination, and self-expression. It focused on individual differences and the unique characteristics of individuals, their abilities and contributions.

When educators used the melting pot metaphor, schooling was aimed toward everyone learning the same curriculum. Those students who failed, dropped out and went to work on farms or in factories. But when educators used the metaphor of individualism, they differentiated instruction, and that called for a method to identify potentially successful students. Alfred Binet’s intelligence tests, developed at the beginning of the twentieth century and later refined in the United States, established standards of verbal and numerical reasoning skills to determine a mental age. He then correlated these data with chronological age in formulating a set of norms for average intelligence. Students with a low intelligence quotient (IQ), a score based on chronological age and mental age determined by the test, were considered unlikely to complete their academic work successfully. The expectations were that low IQ students could not learn academic curricula and that they should be trained to work rather than continuing in school.

Intelligence tests gave educators information about the differences in academic ability that they could use for school placements, but they did not explain why these differences existed. Later, Piaget’s work emerged with theories about cognitive development to explain the differences in children’s intellectual performances at different ages. He interviewed children, giving particular attention to their explanation for their decisions. From these conversations he identified several levels of cognitive development.

The first stage, sensory-motor, focused on the child’s growing awareness of the surrounding environment. Following was a period of preoperational thought characterized by the acquisition of language and increased interest in social behaviors that led toward the next phase by age 6 to 7. At the next stage of concrete operations, Piaget found that children learned to reverse operations, follow transformations, and build schemata for development of concepts. By adolescence, children acquired the cognitive structures for formal operations and logical thinking that led them into adulthood. These stages have strongly influenced the sequencing of instruction with children.

Other researchers turned to alternate criteria for assessing intelligence. Some suggested that the speed at which people processed information was an indicator of their intelligence, while others focused on the strategies they used in problem solving. More recently, researchers relied on brain research and technology, such as EEG, MRI, or CAT scans to track specific mental functions under certain conditions. Over time such research suggested patterns of development within age groups and broadened the understanding of normative intellectual benchmarks. Variance from these norms identified individuals who learned in different ways, and some found that students were more successful when instructional strategies were modified for their individual needs.

Knowing that people learned in different ways led to questions about the nature of intelligence itself. Using empirical research, Howard Gardner suggested that verbal and mathematical reasoning measured only part of the child’s performance. His understanding of multiple intelligences included a spatial intelligence as exemplified by visual arts, a musical intelligence referenced by patterns of sound, a bodily/kinesthetic intelligence for those with exceptional abilities to control the body in athletics or dance, an interpersonal intelligence recognizing abilities in communication with others beyond the abilities of spoken and written language, and an interpersonal intelligence with the capacity to create mental models of self and anticipate future courses of action with an understanding of feelings. Later he added a naturalist intelligence directed toward understanding of the natural world. Problem-solving skills and the production of new solutions were additional dimensions of intelligence.

The launching of Sputnik in 1957 by the Russians sparked new attention on specialized instruction for high-ability students through such legislation as the Jacob Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act in 1988. Typically, gifted and talented students were identified by intelligence test scores and percentile rankings. Instructional models for differentiating instruction promoted compacting curriculum to eliminate repetition of previously mastered material, increasing independent research projects while ensuring mastery of basic skills, and establishing mentoring
programs. One program, the School Enrichment Model, included a wide array of high-ability students in the school in a three-tiered approach for gifted students and others with particular academic interests and skills.

Sensitivity to individual differences within the school community continued to increase as the diversity of the nation increased. Californians questioned the use of ebonics in measuring language literacy among African American children, and Texas debated issues of English-only among Hispanic children. Efforts to increase academic performance of girls in mathematics and science considered girls-only math classes. Discrimination based on sexual orientation was yet another area of individual differences, with adolescents speaking out about their need for choice in sexual expression.

A commitment to equitable education recognizes individual differences within the social and cultural environment. These may be expressed through intelligence, academic ability, ethnicity, gender, or lifestyle and are as unique as a thumbprint, a DNA report, or a photograph. Even during a decade of national curriculum standards and rigorous high-stakes testing, an educator must respect differences and modify instruction for student success.

—Reese H. Todd

See also achievement tests; immigration, history and impact in education; instruction, survey of; tracking, of students; intelligence

Further Readings and References


Infrastructure, of Organizations

Historically, the structural elements of organizations have focused on bureaucratic or formal elements, social structures, and/or technology. While important, these should be further distinguished from the physical infrastructure of an organization. Organizational infrastructure represents the physical stock of an organization, or equipment employed in production. Infrastructure is distinguished from the labor employed in production. Education systems, for example, provide public instruction through a network of capital assets, or schools. Here the physical infrastructure necessary to produce the public instruction includes the school building, the classrooms, the spatial arrangement of classrooms, lighting, and other design elements of the school. Each is distinguished from the labor, or instructional staff. In a simple sense, organizational infrastructure includes those structures and equipment that are owned by the organization and used by employees to produce goods or services.

Infrastructure is popularly referred to in a civic context. In fact, city planners often refer to municipal infrastructure as a means to attract and retain housing and business development. Using this functional definition, infrastructure critical for development usually includes sewer lines, wastewater treatment facilities, water distribution systems, roads and highways, and public transport. Other capital facilities like school buildings, government offices, libraries, police and fire stations, recreation centers, and hospitals are intuitively important for commercial and residential development but are empirically difficult to determine whether they impact the location and timing of development. Yet they are part of the community infrastructure as well.

From the perspective of finance, organizational infrastructure is further distinguished from disposable materials, supplies, or services used in organizational production. Organizational infrastructure may be financed up front and/or over a long term. Conceptually, this is described as either pay-as-you-go or pay-as-you-use financing. Infrastructure typically benefits users for longer periods and almost always requires substantial resources. Since the benefits of infrastructure accrue over a long term, they are funded through bonding rather than annual budgeting. The large sums of capital resources necessary to create organizational infrastructure also require intensive capital and facilities planning. Advanced planning for the development of organizational infrastructure usually begins with inventories of existing spaces. More important, these planning activities ask questions about how people within an organization interact within those spaces. Organizational leaders often hire architects as
consultants, but ideally architectural programmers or facilities planning specialists should be employed prior to the actual design. Facilities programmers and planners ask questions that range from an ergonomic to macro level. Questions are asked that assess the human-environment relations, such as, Is your workstation heated adequately, or lit well enough? When work teams meet, do they modify the conference rooms, or do those rooms work well? The results of these questions are tabulated and then developed into programming standards. Architects rely on those standards to develop construction designs for new work spaces. The construction plans often drive the financial plans and eventual bonding.

—Kieran M. Killeen

See also authority; bureaucracy; capacity building, of organizations; communities, types, building of; conceptual systems theory and leadership; division of labor; frame theory; hierarchy, in organizations; locus of control; management theories; organizational theories; power

Further Readings and References


INNOVATION, IN EDUCATION

Innovation is the act of introducing something new, a change in customs, contrary to established traditions. Innovation is an idea that is new to the person(s) or organization(s) even if the concept is not original. Innovations in educational leadership may deal with governance, school organization and management, whole school reform, and curricular or instructional strategies and delivery systems.

As requirements for accountability and improved student performance increased, so have the demands to alter the educational governance structure between the schools, districts, and states. Educational governance, in the broadest terms, is how the educational system is organized and power is allocated. It includes processes for decision making, formal roles and responsibilities, and the relationship between the state and local educational systems.

As states have demanded accountability for student performance on content and performance standards, districts and schools gained more autonomy. Along with autonomy comes responsibility for student achievement, with many states having punitive legislation for schools and districts that do not meet expectations. Through the power of appropriated federal funds, the federal government has influence over state and local educational policies. The No Child Left Behind Act is an example of legislated goals, tests, and changes in schools, including rewards and punishments for those who fail to meet the mandates.

Innovations in school governance and organization include charter schools, site-based management, vouchers, school choice, and teacher leadership, to name but a few. Charter schools are public schools that operate with fewer guidelines than regular public schools. This allows them to pursue innovative teaching methods and organizational structures that lead to student improvement. Vouchers are tuition payment for students to attend a private school or an out-of-district public school. School choice usually means that students can attend any public school of their choice in the school district. These reform efforts are market-driven strategies based on competition, forcing schools to improve.

As standards-driven accountability increased, shared decision making (SDM) or shared leadership emerged, giving schools and teachers more authority and power to make decisions. Shared leadership attempts to deal with the power relationships within schools. School advisory councils were created to involve parent and community members. Reports on student achievement in charter schools, schools that accept vouchers, and schools that use shared decision making offer mixed results of success. Schools are left with structures that are more complex, and changes in governance have not altered classroom instruction.

Changes in curricular strategies and delivery systems are influenced by beliefs, values, and principles of teachers and administrators, school environment, and through legislation and the courts. Curricular innovations can be subject specific or schoolwide models, which are aimed at school improvement through governance structures and/or curriculum strategies. The federal government funds the Comprehensive School Reform (CSR) program for high-poverty, low-achieving schools that choose to implement scientifically-based
reforms and effective practices. There are 30 whole-school models and 10 reading/language arts models that can be selected by schools. Some of the whole-school models for K–12 are Accelerated Schools, First Things First, Integrated Thematic Instruction, and School Renaissance. The Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory Web site takes applications from those who wish to be included on the list of approved models. To be included, models must meet criteria: (a) demonstrated evidence of effectiveness in improving student performance in a core academic subject, (b) the model has been implemented in multiple states, and (c) the organization has the capacity to expand, offer training and support in the implementation of the model, and (d) the model is substantial and comprehensive in its vision for teaching and learning. Schools also have the option of developing their own model based on scientifically based research. Delivery systems such as block scheduling, student groupings for instruction, and technology influence teaching strategies. The Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) focuses on teaching and learning and promotes inclusion of special education students through a free and appropriate education. This has created innovative opportunities for special education and regular teachers to coteach and coplan. Teaching methods and techniques similar to differentiated instruction conflict with proponents of those who espouse the scientifically based models of instruction.

School reform efforts of the 1980s and 1990s were systemic models but were not successful in enhancing student achievement. Most reform models of this type are directed at restructuring and not improving student achievement. Michael Fullan argues that neither top-down nor bottom-up reform efforts have been successful and espouses that what is needed is a coming together of both to increase achievement. Many reform efforts have been generated at the federal, state, and local levels, but none have produced profound change in more than a few schools. Most reform models lack longitudinal data that support their programs, and programs that do have longitudinal data have shown mixed results. Proponents of whole school reform models indicate that the poor showing is due to lack of support and faculty implementation.

School leaders must implement a standards-driven system they have no control over, and the success of the reform efforts to enhance student performance depends on school professionals. School leaders should take the following steps to successfully implement standards-driven models: (a) be the champion for standards, (b) focus on developing capacity, (c) help connect standards with the goals and commitments teachers already have, (d) use data to focus on reform, and (e) enlist district-level support.

Successful school innovations must be inclusive school-site change models. To sustain meaningful change, school leaders should maintain viable communication networks throughout the organization (up, down, in, and out). They encourage educational leaders to be inclusive in involving stakeholders and partners beyond the school level; provide ongoing training for those who implement the change; and work to align curriculum standards, teaching, and assessment. The Institute for Research and Reform in Education would also encourage school leaders to collect and publicly analyze data and, based on that evaluation, readjust activities and resources to sustain the change.

—Darlene Y. Bruner

See also accountability; alignment, of curriculum; Chicago school reform; creativity, in management; critical thinking; frame theory; imagination; Kentucky Education Reform Act; problem-based learning; problem solving; restructuring, of schools; risk takers, in educational administration; school improvement models; systemic reform

Further Readings and References


How do we respond to the common metaphor that instructional innovation often comes in the form of pendulum swings? A number of instructional innovations over time have claimed to be based on research. However, what has most often been the case is that they are at best loosely coupled with theoretical models or abstracted from related research and do not have evidence to demonstrate their specific effectiveness under given conditions. Robert Slavin also concurs, offering as a vivid example the popularity of Madeline Hunter’s model during the 1970s and the 1980s. Hunter’s model was initially developed based upon abstractions from psychological and educational research, implemented on a small scale, and then touted as effective research-based practice. As a result, districts and teacher education programs in every state began to use it, and its continued use was based on anecdotes regarding success—not actual research. Similarly, if we were to look at recent instructional innovations, similar patterns emerge. Many of the recent instructional innovations were developed out of psychological theory, including multiple intelligences, brain-based education, learning styles, and problem-based learning.

Howard Gardner initially identified seven intelligences or what he now refers to as “biophysical processes” that are enacted within the context of a specific culture in order to solve problems: visual/spatial, logical/mathematical, verbal/linguistic, musical/rhythmic, bodily/kinesthetic, interpersonal/social, and intrapersonal/introspective. Since that time, he has expanded this list to include the following: naturalistic, spiritual, and existential. According to Gardner, these intelligences offer an alternative view to intelligence that dictates so much of what matters in schools whereby human potential is reached in multiple ways. Since Gardner first articulated his theory regarding multiple intelligence, teachers have used various assessments to identify the multiple intelligences within their students and have adapted instruction to address the various intelligences in a number of ways, including the increased use of manipulatives, cooperative learning, drama, and other means to address the varied intelligences.

Learning styles have also had a strong influence on instruction in recent years. According to instruction based upon learning styles, individual students have different modality strengths, and these strengths need to be honored within classroom instruction. Because students process information differently, it is important for teachers to identify the various styles of their students and match instruction accordingly. Since this has become a popular way of seeing instruction, a number of learning style inventories have been developed for teachers to use with their students, including the Myers Briggs Type Indicator, the Learning Styles Inventory, and others.

Another recent instructional innovation has involved problem-based learning (PBL), where relevant problems are introduced within the classroom in order to teach a new concept or skill or to reinforce one that has been taught previously. Within PBL, learners determine what they need to know and do in order to solve their problems. PBL instruction also requires students to work in groups while the teacher serves as a facilitator. Ultimately, students are expected to take responsibility for their own learning when faced with PBL. According to theorists, PBL triggers curiosity, and this causes students to use prior information while seeking new information and using both to construct greater levels of understanding.

Brain-based education is another form of instructional innovation that has affected schools in recent years, particularly elementary instruction, and like the Hunter Model of the 1970s, there is currently no empirical research based on its application in classrooms. As a result, some researchers argue that it is more appropriate to look to what we know about cognitive psychology rather than neuroscience when considering implications for how children learn. Nevertheless, a number of teachers and schools have promoted countless instructional practices in the name of brain-based education. Some of these practices involve those previously used but now couched in neuroscientific terminology such as creating safe environments to learn, making connections between skills and concepts and the “real world,” and revisiting skills and concepts in a number of different ways to encourage active processing and memory. Others have incorporated additional practices that have some loose ties to a neurological justification, including cross-lateral marching to engage both sides of the brain, eating certain foods (i.e., grapes) prior to important tests to more actively engage the brain, playing baroque music to improve memory, and altering the lighting within a room by turning off the fluorescent lights and adding dimmer lamps to create an atmosphere more conducive to learning.

Leaders have a very important responsibility discerning legitimate uses and implications of instructional innovation and determining the most effective way to introduce and support those within schools.
without falling into a bandwagon or hunch-of-the-month mentality. Therefore, the role of the educational leader has changed in relation to instructional innovation in recent years. Because of a heightened emphasis on accountability, administrators are expected to be “learning leaders” rather than merely manage instructional practices as instructional leaders. With this in mind, educational leaders need to provide coherence within the policies, resources, and practices of a school. In addition, administrators need to balance teacher empowerment with common expectations. Finally, administrators need to model effective practices within instruction through innovative professional development and exemplary modeling. In order to achieve this, administrators need to recognize the theoretical and/or research basis from which instructional innovations are introduced and to maintain perspective regarding their effectiveness in light of the actual research available.

—Donna Adair Breault

See also achievement tests; alignment, of curriculum; class size; computers, use and impact of; elementary education; high schools; international education; math education; neuroscience; reading, history of, use in schools; science, in curriculum; textbooks

Further Readings and References


INSTRUCTIONAL INTERVENTIONS

Classrooms are becoming more and more diverse as students who were once pulled out for special programs are now included within regular instruction. As a result, teachers are working with students with a number of special needs, including learning and behavior disabilities, second-language learning, and giftedness. In addition to the students who were once pulled out for special programs, teachers also work with students with very different abilities, interests, learning styles, motivational levels, and cultural heritages.

Given the heterogeneity of classrooms today, instructional intervention is critical to ensure the success of all students. Research has indicated that using interventions for students with special needs yields positive results regarding academic achievement. These results have been found not only with students with learning disabilities but also with gifted students and students who are English-language learners.

However, research indicates that many teachers do not have adequate training regarding instructional interventions to help students with special needs. Furthermore, additional research indicates that when observed, teachers are not differentiating instruction for the various needs within their classrooms. As a result, researchers are finding that many learners who qualify for special education are struggling in the general education classrooms. In those cases where students are experiencing success within general education classrooms, researchers are finding that the students’ teachers have had additional training in special education. With this in mind, educational leaders need to offer support for teachers to attend to a variety of instructional needs and negotiate a number of interventions through means of differentiated instruction.

Educational leaders have a legal obligation to help develop and support teacher capacity for instructional intervention. The Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Amendments of 1997 require that general education teachers provide adequate support within their classrooms for students with disabilities. With nearly 80% of all special education teachers spending most of their time in general education classrooms today, the responsibilities of general education teachers regarding the instruction of special needs students have increased dramatically. In most cases, general educators have the primary if not sole responsibility of teaching special needs students—including those with learning disabilities, behavior disorders, and the gifted. This increased responsibility has been recognized within the courts. In a number of cases, damages have been awarded to families when teachers have not offered adequate instructional interventions for students with special needs.

In order to support general education teachers in the use of appropriate instructional intervention, educational leaders need to address teacher apprehension and lack of experience and training regarding inclusion and instructional differentiation. In addition, they
need to provide opportunities through which special education and general education teachers can collaborate and learn from each other. Furthermore, professional development regarding specific strategies for instructional intervention should be provided.

In planning professional development for teachers, leaders should consider a variety of competencies needed to meet the needs of heterogeneous classes. Teachers need to be able to continually assess student readiness as well as what they do and do not understand within subject content. In addition, teachers need to provide learning options that allow their students to learn new concepts at their own level of readiness. Furthermore, teachers need to be aware of the nature and structure of the content they are teaching, including the basic essentials of the content as well as opportunities for extension beyond the basics. Teachers also need to provide a range of opportunities for instruction and practice regarding skills and concepts, and they need to ensure that the content they are teaching is both interesting and relevant to each individual student. Teachers also need to enter each teaching situation with a wide range of applicable instructional strategies, and they need to be able to match those strategies to the needs they identify during the course of the lesson. Overall, teachers need to expect and embrace student differences and create classroom management systems that are flexible enough to maintain the various instructional interventions.

These necessary competencies pose a particular challenge for leaders who work with novice teachers. According to research, novice teachers typically have inadequate understanding of student differences. They often have shallow perceptions of classroom problems and then respond to them in ways consistent with their own experience as students. They also lack sufficient understanding of content as well as sufficient classroom management skills. Furthermore, they use a narrow range of instructional strategies and do not successfully match those strategies with the particular needs of their students. When faced with complexity, as is inevitable in today’s heterogeneous classrooms, the novice teacher is more likely to respond with more traditional, conservative, and entrenched approaches to teaching. Considering this research, educational leaders need to be particularly mindful of the support and guidance needed with novice teachers in order to ensure adequate instructional intervention.

In addition to the lack of experience and training, teachers often struggle with instructional intervention because of the current culture of standardization emerging within the accountability movement. Within the current culture, content coverage is valued over understanding, and relevance and meaningfulness are often sacrificed to ensure that the content of the test has been taught. Therefore, educational leaders need to help teachers envision new images of classroom instruction. This will require new visions regarding responsiveness to diversity. For this to happen, meaningfulness needs to drive curriculum planning, time in schools needs to be used with greater degrees of flexibility, instructional planning needs to be based on ongoing assessment, and the expectation of continuous growth of all needs to be continually reinforced.

With shifts toward more and more inclusive classrooms, teachers are faced with an expanding range of needs and capacities among their students. Furthermore, with legal initiatives such as the IDEA, teachers are not only professionally compelled, but they are also legally responsible to meet the diverse needs of their students. These needs pose critical challenges for school leaders, particularly those who are working with novice teachers. Instructional interventions offer a means through which general education teachers can meet the needs of their heterogeneous classes. If implemented effectively, interventions can positively affect student achievement. For this to happen, however, educational leaders need to develop a culture within their schools that supports differentiation for continuous growth.

—Donna Adair Breault

See also at-risk students; brain research and practice; classroom management; coeducation; computers, use and impact of; innovation, in education; language theories and processes; motivation, theories of; professional learning communities; reading, history of, use in schools; systemic reform; writing, teaching of; year-round education

Further Readings and References


INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Instructional technology is used as a broad term and includes the theory and practice regarding the design, development, application, management, and evaluation of the processes and resources that promote learning. This definition, endorsed by the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, is a concise statement about the field and one that may be surprising to those not involved in instructional design processes. It is not unusual for those who are responsible for the delivery of instruction to think of instructional technology in technical terms—computers, networks, software, and the like. As can be seen from the definition, instructional technology involves the systematic application of processes to solve instructional problems. Currently, professionals in the field use the term interchangeably with educational technology, although a strong argument has been made by some leading professionals that instructional technology is a subset of educational technology focusing on learning that is purposive and managed.

The literature of the field is replete with other terms, such as instructional development, instructional design, instructional systems design, and even instructional media, that are often used interchangeably with instructional technology. The definition and the resulting confusion of terms evolved throughout the 1900s as education, instruction, and technology changed. A brief look at the history of instructional technology may help to clarify this issue.

HISTORY OF INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY

The history of instructional technology is necessarily the history of instruction and technology. This history shows the merging of the two fields into one field focused on improving instruction.

Prior to World War II

During these early years, the explication of new theoretical concepts moved instruction away from the exercise metaphor (the brain is similar to a muscle and grows stronger through exercise) toward a scientific description of the ways that humans learn. In addition, technology began to shape the instructional vision when Thomas Edison stated in 1913 that motion pictures would change the U.S. school system completely within the next 10 years. Edward Thorndike’s attempts to establish a knowledge base for human learning and his advocacy of educational measurement enabled fundamental changes in thinking that permitted the development of instructional technology. Early attempts to improve instruction, such as the Winnetka and Dalton Plans, provided the impetus for the development of the concepts of objectives, individualized instruction, and mastery learning. In the 1930s, Ralph Winifred Tyler and others developed the concepts of behavioral objectives and formative evaluation, although the latter term would not be coined for some 35 years.

World War II and the 1940s

The challenge of training millions of servicemen and servicewomen and the necessity to train others to support the war effort at home led to the development of audiovisual communications techniques specifically targeted at the instruction of masses of students. The infusion of government funds enabled psychologists and educators to conduct experimental research in learning methods. After the war, such research continued.

The 1950s

This decade can be characterized by theoretical developments that enabled the birth of instructional technology as it is practiced today. It saw the popularization of programmed instruction, derived in large part from B. F. Skinner’s operant conditioning. Task analysis, a technique that permitted a task to be described by looking at the subtasks from which it was composed, was begun. Benjamin Bloom published his Taxonomy of Educational Objectives for the Cognitive Domain. These three concepts led to the development and popularization of the instructional design models of the 1960s and later.
The 1960s and 1970s

The early 1960s saw the development of the systems approach to instruction, a term first employed in 1962. Robert Gagne followed in 1965 with his landmark work, *The Conditions of Learning*, which focused on the five domains of learning outcomes and the events of instruction that enable the achievement of those outcomes. Gagne also did foundational work in learning hierarchies, the concept that complex skills or knowledge are built from simpler skills and knowledge. As a direct result of the millions poured into math and science instruction due to the Sputnik shock, the important concept of evaluation being integral to instruction was developed. During the 1970s, models of instructional design matured, interest in its study flourished, and the computer was developed and began to be used in instruction.

1980s and 1990s

These two decades saw the refinement of previous theories and models. The advent and rapid development of the microcomputer and later the Internet dominated instruction. Perspective began to shift from teacher as expert to teacher as facilitator, a constructivist idea, bringing back the theoretical perspectives of John Dewey.

Emerging Issues

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, we still see the rapid change in the technology and in the performance of technology. Computers and other knowledge management devices manipulate and store more data faster. Communication of data, voice, and video is almost anytime, anywhere. This enables instructional technologists to use better tools to help students learn. Performance technology, electronic performance support, and knowledge management are but a few of the emerging concepts that will influence instructional technology now and in the future. Instructional technologists are developing models, including rapid prototyping models, to support Web-based instruction and performance support systems. Future definitions of instructional technology will probably include the analysis of performance problems and the application of these concepts to noninstructional processes in a variety of settings.

—Randal D. Carlson

See also accountability; behavior, student; computers, use and impact of; Dewey, John; differentiation of stimuli; feedback; instrumentation; motivation, theories of; Skinner, B. F.; technology and the law; television, impact on students; Thorndike, Edward; Tyler, Ralph Winifred

Further Readings and References


Instrumentation

Instrumentation, one of eight identified threats of interval validity in research design, refers to the inconsistency within and between observers or changes in measuring instruments. Based on whether the data collection procedure is quantitative or qualitative in nature or some other form, the threat of instrumentation may occur in several ways, which include (a) the selection of test, (b) observation or interviewing, or (c) use of mechanical devices.

From a quantitative perspective, during test selection, instrumentation is the inconsistency of a single measurement or the change in scores between pretesting and posttesting when measuring the dependent variable. If the pretest and posttest forms vary, the difference in the assessment of the dependent variable may be due to the manner in which the tests measure performance; hence the possibility of instrumentation. Therefore, it is important to select identical pretest and posttest or highly correlated equivalent forms.

Qualitatively, during observation the threat of instrumentation may arise when results indicate that differences exist between groups under study, and these differences occur because of the observers of one group differing from the observers of another group. In addition, the behavior of observers may change from the beginning to the end of the study. Similar to observation, interviews are predisposed to the threat of instrumentation as the collection of data may vary.
from the first to the last interview session. Interview protocol questions may change over time as a result of the research evolving through data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

In addition, observers or interviewers are subject to boredom, fatigue, or change in ways that could possibly affect results of a study. Over time, the observer or interviewer may become more skilled at collecting valid and reliable data, thus reducing the possibility of the threat occurring because of changes in the independent variable.

Instrumentation may result from the use of mechanical devices. Inaccurate measurements may occur because of the mechanism being poorly calibrated. Again, it is important to monitor the use of these mechanical devices in reducing the possibility of instrumentation.

In the attempt to overcome instrumentation, there are several possible approaches to take. For instance, ensure the variable being measured can be affected or show change resulting from the independent variable. In addition, observers and interviewers should minimize any inherent biases so that accurate data may be collected. An initial check of each possible occurrence of instrumentation is necessary to ensure accurate data collection and valid results.

—Sonja Harrington

See also attitudes; research methods; testing and test theory development; validity and reliability; variables

Further Readings and References


INTELLIGENCE

It has been argued that intelligence has three basic meanings: (1) it is a genetic capacity, (2) it is an observed behavior, the interaction of genes and the environment, and (3) it is what an intelligence test measures.

Intelligence has long been viewed as static and biologically determined. In 1869 Sir Francis Galton published Hereditary Genius, in which he proposed that "genius" ran in certain families, one of which was his own. At the beginning of the twentieth century, specifically 1904, Charles Spearman theorized that intelligence was the composite of several factors, a general g factor and a series of specific s factors. Spearman assumed that in any specific situation, the g factor activated a set of "specific engines" of ability. Spearman believed the general intelligence (g) factor was largely inherited, but the specific s factors were susceptible to environmental influences.

In 1935 L. L. Thurstone challenged the g theory in The Vectors of the Mind. Thurstone proposed that intelligence was a composite of special factors, each unique to a specific task. He identified seven factors or primary abilities that were independent of one another and free of any overarching general intelligence factor. The seven vectors are verbal comprehension, word fluency, number and computational abilities, spatial visualization, associative memory, perceptual speed, and reasoning ability.

In the 1940s Studies in the Development of Young Children, psychologist Nancy Bayley challenged the static view of intelligence, finding in longitudinal research with her colleagues at the University of California, Berkeley that (a) IQs are not constant—there is considerable variation in measured intelligence over time, (b) IQ variability is greatest during the first few years of life—the older the child, the greater the IQ stability, (c) intellectual ability may continue to grow through life—environmental stimulation plays an important role in whether intellectual function grows or declines, and (d) the components of intellect change with age level.

David Weschsler, developer of one of the most widely used intelligence scales in 1958, defined intelligence as the capacity for purposeful, rational, and effective action. Research over the last 20 years has further expanded our understanding of intelligence. Howard Gardner developed a theory of multiple intelligences by drawing on theories of intelligence and research on savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals. In Frames of Mind in 1983, Gardner postulated that there are seven human intelligences: linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. In the
mid-1990s Gardner identified an eighth intelligence—naturalist (see Table 1). And in *The Disciplined Mind* in 1999, Gardner suggests that perhaps human beings also display a ninth intelligence—questioning life, death, and other ultimate questions.

Gardner characterized the intelligences as independent but connected or interdependent in an overall context. He also proposed that every individual has all eight intelligences but that each individual relies on or has a preference for his or her particular blend of intelligences.

However, because the only two intelligences that are tested in common intelligence tests are linguistic and logical/mathematical, the other intelligences may go unnoticed and undeveloped.

David Perkins, Gardner’s Harvard graduate school colleague, similarly believes that intelligence is not a single, unitary characteristic but proposed in 1995 that there are only three dimensions of intelligence: neural, experiential, and reflective. *Neural* intelligence refers to one’s basic intellectual aptitude, the brain’s neural efficiency, and the contributions these make to intelligent behavior. *ExPERiential* intelligence refers to one’s personal experiences and the contribution of general and domain-specific knowledge to intelligent behavior. Perkins proposes that every intellectual activity is influenced by what we already know. Our prior knowledge helps us organize incoming information and construct meaning from what we already know and what we are experiencing and learning. *Reflective* intelligence characterizes how one uses knowledge, understanding, and attitudes in intelligent ways to handle problem solving, decision making, and any intellectually demanding activity. Perkins suggests that how we use what we know—our mental strategies—can compensate for lack of aptitude or knowledge.

It is Robert Sternberg’s view that intelligence is highly dependent on how we learn to cope with the world around us. He posited a triarchic theory of intelligence. Intelligence consisted of three components: (1) *componential*, considered to be a critical aspect of academic intelligence, (2) *contextual*, considered to be the practical, problem-solving dimension of intelligence, and (3) *experiential*, considered to be the insightful use of prior knowledge and/or experience to deal with novel situations. The *componential* component of intelligence includes three subcomponents: (1) the executive processes of planning, monitoring learning activities, and evaluating the performances required in a task, (2) the performance variables of encoding, inferring relationships, comparing solutions, and carrying out tasks speedily and effectively, and (3) knowledge

### Table 1: Gardner’s Intelligences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligence</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Ability to discern structure, meanings, and functions of words and communicate and make sense of the world through language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musical</td>
<td>Ability to create and appreciate rhythm, pitch, and timbre and communicate and understand meaning in varying forms of musical expressiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical-Mathematical</td>
<td>Ability to use and appreciate abstract relations, discern logical or numerical patterns, and process chains of reasoning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Ability to perceive visual or spatial information, transform it, and re-create visual images from memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bodily-Kinesthetic</td>
<td>Ability to control one's body movements and use all or part of the body to create products or solve problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Ability to recognize and make distinctions about others’ feelings and intentions and respond appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
<td>Ability to distinguish among one's own feelings, build accurate mental models of one's strengths and weaknesses, and draw on these models to make decisions about one's life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalist</td>
<td>Ability to distinguish among, classify, and use features of the environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

acquisition or the learner’s ability to relate new information to old information and distinguish relevant from irrelevant information. The contextual component of intelligence represents the learner’s ability to use practical knowledge and common sense. Individuals strong in the contextual component of intelligence are good at selecting information, ideas, structures, or patterns and evaluating their usefulness for shaping environmental factors to adapt to the world. The experiential component addresses the learner’s ability to process past information quickly, to critique and select information from the external world, to refine ideas to deal with new problems, to act creatively, and to use insight.

Sternberg suggests that we can modify the triarchic components of intelligence and increase intelligence by doing so. For example, an individual can learn what to attend to and what to ignore. Teachers can help learners identify previously acquired knowledge and misconceptions brought to a learning task. The use of complex, real-life problem-solving situations and activities in school learning experiences, rather than neat problem sets with specific, finite solutions, can help to develop learners’ abilities to deal with novelty and ambiguity.

**INTELLIGENCE TESTING**

One of the earliest intelligence measures was developed by Galton, who assumed that reaction time and sensory acuity were components of intelligence. He developed a series of simple sensorimotor tests to measure intelligence. A significant finding of his studies was that individuals varied widely in their performance on these tests and that their success was influenced by both ability and environmental factors.

Intelligence testing as we know it, however, can be traced back to the work of Alfred Binet and Théophile Simon. In 1904, Binet was appointed by the minister of public instruction in Paris to a special commission charged with studying the education of mentally retarded children. Binet and Simon developed the Metrical Scale of Intelligence in 1905. The test yielded a numeric score that could be used to determine a child’s “mental age” by comparing the intelligence test score of an individual child with the distribution of all scores of many children taking the same test. For example, if the intelligence test score of a 9-year-old child equaled that of most 12-year-olds, the child was considered bright with a mental age of 12. If, on the other hand, the child’s score was 3 years below his or her peers, the child would be considered less intelligent with a mental age of 6. The Binet-Simon test could reasonably predict which children would do well in school. The test was revised in 1908 and in 1911.

The Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale was reworked, expanded, and adapted for American children in 1916 by Lewis Terman, an American psychologist at Stanford University. Terman introduced the concept of an intelligence quotient or IQ, a term borrowed from the work of German psychologist William Stern. IQ is determined by dividing the mental age of a child by the chronological age of the child and multiplying the resulting “intelligence quotient” by 100. An average IQ score is 100; individuals considered to be mentally retarded usually score below 70 on IQ tests. The Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Tests were published in 1937, 1960, and 1985.

Intelligence tests were primarily developed to be administered by a trained examiner to one individual at a time. However, in 1917 Lewis Terman’s Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test was further adapted by the U.S. Army as a multiple-choice, paper-and-pencil test that could be administered to large groups of army recruits. The Army Alpha Test was initially administered to 2 million recruits in World War I, and demonstrated that group tests could be economic and effective when administered and timed precisely.

Psychologist David Wechsler developed the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale in 1939 and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) in 1955. Both tests were standardized on an adult sample group. In 1949 Wechsler published the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) and the Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI) in 1963. The WISC was revised in 1974 and 1992. Wechsler, in 1994, did not conceive of intelligence as a unitary factor but as a series of abilities comprised of many factors. The Wechsler tests, therefore, provide three IQ scores: verbal (information, similarities, arithmetic, vocabulary, comprehension, and digit span), performance (picture completion, coding, picture arrangement, block design, and object assembly), and full scale.

Research has shown that IQ tests seem to predict fairly well who will do well in school and college when the criterion is performance in a middle-class, academically competitive situation. The correlation between IQ and grades in school is slightly more than +0.50. Correlations are highest in kindergarten
through fourth grade and decrease in high school and college. The correlation between IQ and total number of years in school is +0.55 and between IQ and job performance in a wide range of occupations is +0.54. Intelligence tests are also considered reliable and valid assessments. The tests do not, however, measure critical thinking or creativity, nor do they necessarily predict who will do well in life in general as other aspects of intelligence that deal with real-life social and problem-solving situations are not measured by commonly used IQ tests.

Individual tests can be used to identify children’s and adults’ strengths and limitations. Group tests, which are used for classifying individuals into like-score ability groups, have received criticism. The primary criticism of group IQ tests is that test items and tasks are culturally biased, as they are drawn largely from White middle-class experiences. The question raised is whether the tests are measures of intelligence or measures of how well students are informed about the life experiences of a particular social class. A well-known 1984 legal case, Larry P. v. Riles, resulted in a federal appellate court decision that IQ tests were discriminatory and culturally biased. The case was initiated in 1971 when a group of parents of African American children challenged the placement of their children in special classes for mentally retarded children based on an IQ test.

—Judith A. Ponticell

See also achievement tests; Asian Pacific Americans; at-risk students; Binet, Alfred; Black education; brain research and practice; Burt, Cyril; Cattell, Raymond; classification of education; cognitive styles; critical race theory; critical thinking; cultural politics; wars; discrimination; dropouts; empiricism; Gardner, Howard; imagination; individual differences, in children; learning, theories of; literacy, theories of; measurement, theories of; multiculturalism; neuroscience; problem solving; psychometrics; Scholastic Aptitude Test; Spearman, Charles; standardized testing; statistics; testing and test theory development; Thorndike, Edward; tracking of students; variables

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Larry P. v. Riles, 793 F.2d 969 (9th Cir. 1984).

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Increasing global social, economic, and cultural pressures are contributing to the need to rethink the objectives of international education, the current educational system to implement them, and how changes may be achieved.

What is international education? Also called international studies or global education, it is interdisciplinary by nature and covers studies of aspects of different societies, including culture, language, and economic and political systems. International education can also deal with the interdependency of nations and the interconnectedness of world regions, events, and peoples. The focus can be on a single nation, comparisons of two or more nations, or an entire region. Less commonly, international education is used to refer to comparative education, that is, the study of different educational systems and their contexts or to the study of the education of international students. In this entry, international education will refer to international studies or global education in K–16 curricula in the United States.

Mounting evidence indicates that students in the United States lack basic knowledge of the world outside their country and are dangerously uninformed about international matters. The traditional subject-centered school curricula appear to be failing to produce
an informed citizenry with international awareness. Traditional education has also tended to deemphasize or ignore the role of nondominant groups such as ethnic minorities, women, and working-class people. Similarly, traditional international education curricula have marginalized knowledge of Latin America, Africa, and Asia. Teaching about these countries has been considered insignificant or even adverse to U.S. interests.

A CHANGING WORLD AND THE NEED FOR IMPROVING INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

There are several factors contributing to the need for better international education. Globalization is one trend. In 2001, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) stated, “The human experience is an increasingly globalized phenomenon in which people are constantly being influenced by transnational, cross-cultural, multicultural and multiethnic interactions.” Globalization refers both to “the compression of the world and to the intensification of the consciousness of the world as a whole.” Globalization has been driven by advances in digital technologies, communications (including the Internet), and industrial technologies, producing efficient communication and transportation systems. The interchanges of local, regional, national, and international economies make possible the worldwide flow of goods, capital, information, and people. An international labor market has become not only possible but inevitable. Globalization increases the likelihood for cultural, political, technological, diplomatic, and military interactions, both positive and negative. These interactions expand people’s consciousness of being part of a greater humanity and of sharing a common ecosystem. As we increasingly live in a more globalized environment, our nation’s economic prosperity and future security will depend on a labor force that has international knowledge and skills.

Although scholars agree that globalization is a reality, there is a wide range of opinion on what effect it is having on societies. Some see it as a process of standardization, generating increasing homogeneity between cultures and blurring distinctions between national, regional, and local communities. It can also be seen as a stimulus for differentiation and heterogeneity through increased hybridization. And political perspectives on globalization include viewing it as a new form of imperialism, or perhaps an economic means to democratization. Whichever perspective one holds, it is clear that the implications of globalization for the future are still uncertain and promise further debate.

Indeed, many of our current problems—including, intra- and international conflicts, environmental degradation, poverty, famine, lack of human rights, genocide, and diseases such as AIDS, SARS, and even cancer—have a global dimension. They require solutions that will come best from people who have a knowledge and understanding of other nations and cultures. It is the world’s educational systems that can produce this new generation of citizens.

Another factor driving the need for improved international education is that American society is becoming more heterogeneous than before. Each year large numbers of immigrants to the United States bring with them different cultures, histories, and languages. International education can help teachers and students understand these newcomers better. It can also help complement current multicultural approaches, addressing such issues as cultural diversity, racial prejudice, and discrimination. As American society learns to embrace a variety of perspectives, it is possible that this strength can be used to solve domestic conflicts.

OBJECTIVES OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES AND HOW TO ACHIEVE THEM

According to the NCSS in 1977, in general, international education has three objectives: (1) to help students gain knowledge of world cultures, environmental conditions, social and political trends, and specific lifestyles and customs, (2) to develop students’ abilities to apply their knowledge and critical thinking skills to resolve the many complex problems facing the world, and (3) to help students see themselves as members of a global community with a global consciousness, valuing the interdependency and interconnectedness of the world.

The postpositivist approach of policy science was designed to address the multidimensional complexity of social reality, and situates empirical inquiry in a broader interpretive framework. For example, one commonly known theory uses a cultural deconstruct-reconstruct paradigm. This theory asserts that being immersed in another culture improves one’s ability to understand that culture, as well as to better understand one’s own. Through cultural deconstruction, appreciative inquiry, and exchange of views, the first goal of
international education can be achieved. However, critics argue that this approach may provide only a past or contemporary snapshot without a sense of the changes that have occurred over time. Another paradigm takes a cultural-historical approach by studying individuals and groups over time in different environments. This paradigm provides participants with a sense of how societies have developed historically. These two paradigms have affected the theories, practice, and policies in K–16 international education.

In terms of learning new knowledge, there are questions on what kinds of knowledge students should learn and how students learn about such knowledge. Many education scholars endorse the concept of transformative learning. Transformative learning recognizes that knowledge is not neutral but is influenced by human interests and relationships. Applying the theory of transformative learning may help students change their culturally narcissistic beliefs and parochial attitudes, and encourage broader curricula. Ultimately, the goal would be to shift the emphasis away from the attitude of America as “Number 1” and instead emphasize internationalism and global interdependence. However, the inclusive, transformative-learning approach in international education has drawn criticism. For example, recently critics have complained that this type of thinking has presented one-sided, antiwar views regarding the situation in Afghanistan and Iraq and led to an unfair attack on the current U.S. government’s Middle Eastern policies. Proponents of transformative knowledge theory counter that the real problem is ideological censorship. Therefore, one goal in international education would be not to resolve such ideological differences but rather to address them in such a way that participants can have fair and respectful dialogue and ultimately generate new insights.

The transformative knowledge construct approach requires that teachers be retrained to teach with different frameworks and in an interdisciplinary approach. In addition, teachers need to be able to identify sources for teaching materials and find ways to finance their programs. They need to rethink the short- and long-term learning outcomes of their formal curricula. While subject-centered curriculum, such as world history, has been unattractive for students, the alternative “add-on” approach is criticized for its crisis-oriented nature, which brings attention to other nations for only a short time. Once the crisis is over, schools revert to business as usual. Many international education scholars suggest that collaborating across disciplines (that is, integrating the international content into the existing curricula) is a more effective way of incorporating international education rather than the add-on approach.

Acquiring skills is a significant part of international education. These skills include the ability to describe and express concern about issues in the international arena and to analyze complex issues in terms of their causes, consequences, and possible solutions. Along with intercultural communication skills, students need to know how to relate local needs for survival to global issues and vice versa. Students can develop these capabilities through reading, watching, and listening to media and observing situations firsthand.

More important, in order to develop a global consciousness, students need to work on their social participation skills in order to influence the world as citizens and advocates. Participation in international affairs is an important requirement for functioning in a democracy. It not only encourages students to follow global issues for the long term, but it also makes them sensitive to emerging issues and gives them the sophistication to react to rapidly changing realities.

Finally, when we emphasize the importance of learning versus doing, we also need to pay attention to acquiring values that develop attitudes of internationalism. The ultimate goal of international education is to graduate students at the highest stage of J. A. Banks’s 1994 six-stage typology that categorizes the cultural identity of individuals. A Stage 6 student, in addition to functioning well in one’s own multicultural nation, should also be able to function well with globalism. To achieve this goal, teachers need to help students develop and promote the feelings, attitudes, and values of citizens of the world.

**THE TRENDS**

Where is K–16 international education headed in the United States? Historically, promoting international education in the U.S. classroom has been an uphill battle. Educators have argued that effective international education cannot be accomplished only through a foreign language or world history class, or by viewing it as one-time activity, such as running an international fair at school. They criticize the past and current narrow focus of international education on food, clothes, and festivals, arguing that these intellectually unchallenging activities misrepresent the complex
world and may provide students with a distorted value of international education.

Lack of financial resources for international education has always been an issue, and it prevents the spread and upgrading of technology and may cause new inequalities between young people in their learning journeys. Critics lament the widely existing inequalities in international education programs and in opportunities for participation. If having knowledge of the world and an ability to participate in it are necessary, then all students—not only suburban, middle-class, White children—must be given the opportunity. Many school districts have tried, but unsuccessfully.

Interactive technologies can promote international education in inner-city and remote rural schools. The Internet and other technologies capture live what goes on around the world and can provide teachers and students with immediate information including narratives, opinions, and data at high speed and relatively low cost. However, technologies, particularly interactive ones across different linguistic, cultural, political, and digital systems, require continual retraining of students, teachers, and support staff as well as upgrading of facilities and software.

Fiscal support for international education is often in the form of “soft” money in relatively small amounts from inconsistent sources, such as private donations and foundation grants. Although some states have allocated money for certain programs, it is usually on a one-time basis and cannot serve all jurisdictions. The gap between our ambitious educational goals and our fiscal capability seems large.

To deliver international education more effectively, the current trend in K–16 education is to use a holistic approach. This includes rethinking what constitutes international education; systematic planning on multiple levels, especially for K–16 foreign-language education and other social science and humanities courses; designing multidimensional curricula to integrate language education, literature, history, current affairs, and so on; and forming multinational partnerships between schools, various levels of government, corporations, and communities, as well as with schools and relevant agencies in other parts of the world. This holistic approach promotes dialogue, interaction, and the creation of alliances. It also focuses less on conflict and reduces the chance for misunderstanding between rival ideologies.

In forming partnerships, federal and state governments should first provide incentive grants to improve readiness for K–16 international education, including financing teacher training and developing and providing scholarships for cultural exchange programs. The quality of international education should be an important factor in assessing student learning and school performance.

In many areas of the United States, states and communities are now leading the way in international education. States are playing a critical role in organizing and coordinating efforts to maintain or develop an interstate and international competitive economy. This includes updating transportation, information, and other systems, as well as the labor force. Some states have created semipermanent offices or task forces to coordinate international education and cultural undertakings. This high-level coordination can mobilize various government offices and legislatures that produce policies, reform curricula, and determine requirements for teacher training and professional development. In many communities, multinational partnerships have been established between schools, students, parents, corporations, private foundations, media, and cultural, social, and educational institutions here and abroad. Local businesses, nongovernmental organizations, and community groups have increasing influence on policymakers and school authorities. They also help generate funds and public support for international education.

Cultural exchanges are one example of international cooperation. They are the most popular (but also least affordable) approach for capturing students’ attention and exposing them to other cultures at early ages. Traditional cultural exchange programs comprised university professors, undergraduate students, and, to a lesser extent, K–12 teachers and students. However, during recent years, more and more exchange programs have involved administrators (including policymakers such as state officials), parents, business leaders, community activists, and others. These collaborative exchange programs help form worldwide partnerships that will have lasting benefits because all parties have effectively become part of a working international community. Well-designed cultural exchange programs not only provide young people with developmentally appropriate international experiences, but they also provide rich experiences on many levels and between generations.

—Xue Lan Rong

See also Afrocentric theories; Asian Pacific Americans; Black education; Christian Coalition; critical race theory;
cross-cultural studies; cultural capital; discrimination; elementary education; ethnocentrism; fundamentalism; globalism; high schools; higher education; immigration; history and impact in education; language theories and processes; life span development; market theory of schooling; minorities in schools; multiculturalism; peace education; right-wing politics, advocates, impact on education; social studies; values pluralism, in schools

Further Readings and References


INTERNSHIPS

School leaders have long identified the internship as the most important component of their training. Extensive clinical activities and field-based, mentored internships give aspiring leaders a realistic understanding of how to apply theory to practice and how to integrate the practical lessons of academic coursework and ground them in the day-to-day realities of schools. Meaningful internships require aspiring administrators to spend quality time with mentoring administrators in a variety of school or district settings and contexts solving real-life, complex problems of practice. The more time, involvement, practical, hands-on learning opportunities, the better. The experience of leadership is the goal.

Field-based experiences serve as the core of the educational leadership preparation experience. They help preservice administrators plan, perform, reflect, and form new and better leadership skill habits (e.g., conceptual, technical, and human skills needed to change schools and classrooms in ways that raise student achievement). While clinical experience is a well-established expectation in the preparation programs of such professions as medicine and law, the impetus for the development of internships in educational administration first emerged in 1947 at a meeting of the newly founded National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA). The 1950s witnessed continuing interest in the development of viable internship programs. Although program structures, hours, procedures, and expectations vary considerably from state to state, from institution to institution, the number of universities including internships as part of their programs climbed from 17 in 1950, to 117 in 1962, to over 220 in 1987.

Many institutions of higher learning have used the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium’s (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders, developed by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) in 1996, to revise preparation programs for prospective school leaders. The ISLLC Standards present a common core of knowledge, dispositions, and performances that help link leadership more directly to productive schools and enhanced educational outcomes. The standards confirm the centrality of the principal’s role in ensuring student achievement through an unwavering emphasis on leadership for student learning. In 2002, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) aligned its accreditation standards for educational leadership training programs with the ISLLC Standards. This merger provided a unified set of standards, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards, for review and accreditation of administrator preparation programs.

According to ELCC Standard 7.0, the internship provides significant opportunities for candidates to develop, synthesize, and apply the knowledge and skills identified in the six ELCC/ISLLC Standards through substantial, sustained, standards-based work in authentic settings, planned and guided cooperatively by the institution and school district personnel for graduate credit (see Table 1).

Application of standards-based knowledge, skills, and research in real settings over time is a critical aspect of any institutional program. Well-designed programs offer participants many possible alternative goals: (a) enable interns to develop administrative competence progressively through a range of practical experiences, (b) allow interns to apply theoretical knowledge and skills gained through universities in a practical setting, (c) enable interns to test their personal commitment to a career, (d) provide interns with an opportunity to gain insights into the preparation of a school, its goals, and how those goals may be achieved.
Characteristics of effective internship experiences include clear objectives; adequate planning, supervision, and follow-up; problem-centered and project-centered experiences; and high standards that are supported nationally. Experiences should meet individual needs and goals, be relevant to actual and specific job demands, and involve higher-level activities (leading, deciding, resolving, reflecting, etc.). University and/or district supervisors should work collaboratively with the interns on planning the internship experience such that the interns then become accountable for the breadth, depth, and rigor of the experience. The interns become responsible for assessing, designing, implementing, and evaluating an experience that (a) meets the interns’ individual needs, (b) provides an adequate breadth of experience, (c) sets high standards/e
develops a global perspective, (g) incorporates assessment and reflection, (h) provides experience and evidence to gain the desired administrative position, and (i) is a quality experience.

—Kathleen M. Brown

See also accountability; accreditation; action learning; behaviorism; contextual knowledge; Council of Chief State School Officers; Educational Testing Service; higher education; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; knowledge base, of the field; licensure and certification; mentoring; National Council of Professors of Educational Administration; principalship; problem-based learning; professional learning communities; risk takers, in educational administration; role model; standard setting; state departments of education; theories, use of; theory movement, in educational administration; University Council for Educational Administration

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Table 1  
Elements and Standards for School Building and District Leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Meets Standards for School Building and District Leadership</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Substantial</td>
<td>Candidates demonstrate the ability to accept genuine responsibility for leading, facilitating, and making decisions typical of those made by educational leaders. The experience(s) should provide interns with substantial responsibilities that increase over time in amount and complexity and involve direct interaction and involvement with staff, students, parents, board members, and community leaders. Each candidate should have a minimum of 6 months (or equivalent of full-time internship experience).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustained</td>
<td>Candidates participate in planned intern activities during the entire course of the program, including an extended period of time near the conclusion of the program to allow for candidate application of knowledge and skills on a full-time basis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standards based</td>
<td>Candidates apply skills and knowledge articulated in these standards as well as state and local standards for educational leaders. Experiences are designed to accommodate candidates’ individual needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Settings</td>
<td>Candidates’ experiences occur in multiple administrator settings that allow for the demonstration of a wide range of relevant knowledge and skills. Candidates’ experiences include work with appropriate community organizations such as parent groups, social service groups, school boards, and local businesses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned and Guided</td>
<td>Candidates’ experiences are planned cooperatively by the individual, the site supervisor, and institution personnel to provide inclusion of appropriate opportunities to apply skills, knowledge, and research contained in the standards. These three individuals work together to meet candidate and program needs. Mentors are provided training to guide the candidate during the intern experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperatively</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credit</td>
<td>Candidates earn graduate credit for their intern experience.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Further Readings and References

INTERPRETIVE STUDIES

In the broadest sense, all research studies are interpretive. The analysis and depiction of data, as well as researchers’ declarations about the meaning of that data, are all interpretive processes. In other words, they are all processes that seek to understand and explain the meaning of what is being studied. Those studies that are specifically identified as “interpretive” differ not in kind but rather in degree from other research. As opposed to empirical studies—be they based in quantitative or qualitative data—that seek new or more informing descriptions and explanations of phenomena or events through rigorous data analysis, interpretive studies seek to understand the possible meanings that individuals, groups, or organizations construct to make sense of socially constructed phenomena, experiences, and interactions. Such meanings emerge in and through the process of interpretation.

Interpretive studies are based in assumptions of philosophical hermeneutics developed most notably by Martin Heidegger, Hans-Georg Gadamer, and Paul Ricoeur. While their work offers examples of the application of their philosophical principles of interpretation, it does not provide methodological constants about the form of such interpretation. There are, however, characteristics of hermeneutic interpretation that must be present for a study to qualify as interpretive. The first of these characteristics is that what is interpreted is a “text” or a “work.” Although the more traditional focus for hermeneutic interpretation is written text, contemporary hermeneutics has expanded that focus to include any product of human intentionality. It is this broader context for interpretation that is encompassed by the term work used by Ricoeur. Expanding the focus of hermeneutic interpretation from the interpretation only of texts to the interpretation of works means that hermeneutics becomes available for interpreting visual, oral, and social phenomena, as long as these can be identified as human creations having a consistent and intentionally created nature. In recent years, interpretive studies have been used to interpret and understand the meanings that participants attach to their meaningful social interactions, thus construing social behavior as a work of human intentionality. A “work” as the focus of hermeneutic interpretation presents itself as something whose meaning cannot be realized merely by analysis of its component parts any more than a person’s character and personality can be known from a mug shot photograph.

A second characteristic of interpretive studies is that they occur through a process of interaction between the interpreter and the work. This interaction is a dialogue between the interpreter and the work in which the work presents as well as answers questions. The process is a fusion of horizons in which the interpreters give themselves over to the world of the work just as players give themselves over to play and enter a world determined not by their own subjectivity but by the event of playing. In interpretive studies, this fusion of horizons accords equal status to the interpreter and the work. The interpreter surrenders the power to impose meaning on the work, to speak for it and for the others who have created it. Rather, the interpreter allows understanding of the work to be shaped in and through the process of dialogue with it.

Another characteristic of interpretive studies that follows from this dialogue with the work is that interpretation seeks to discover new or previously hidden meanings of the work. Heidegger has described this task of hermeneutics as one of bringing new meanings to light, meanings that can go beyond what the creators of the work intended. Ricoeur also writes about the discovery of new meaning through hermeneutic interpretation. He describes the emergence of new meanings to include a process of self-understanding that he calls “appropriation,” in which interpreters not only come to understand the work but also to understand themselves in new or different ways. Ricoeur’s notion of appropriation implies the possibility of as many interpretive meanings of a work as there are interpreters of it.

Yet another characteristic of interpretive studies is the use of language to discover and create meaning.
In the first place, the interpreted work is itself a form of language. Even if not a text as such, it is a constructed communication of human insight or experience, and as such can be—as Ricoeur put it—sorted into literary genres. The process of interpretation is also accomplished through language. In the course of interpretation, language is created to express new meanings or understandings that did not exist either in the mind of the interpreter or in the work prior to the process of interpretation. Heidegger described this process, noting that meanings that emerge through interpretation are not to be thought of as arbitrary language imposed upon the work. Rather they emerge out of the relational whole—the “world”—created through the fusion of horizons of the interpreter and the work.

A final characteristic of interpretive studies is that they are historical. That is to say, they are events that occur at particular points in historical time. This historical nature of interpretation indicates the phenomenological orientation of hermeneutics in which each interpretation is seen as a unique event in time. As such, interpretive studies make no claim to absolute or universal knowledge. Their value is based on their ability to portray the reflexive relationship between the interpreter and the work and to construct new meanings that enrich both the interpreters’ and others’ understanding of the work.

Interpretive studies are not widely represented in the literature of educational leadership despite calls by scholars for research about how people make sense of socially constructed experiences of leadership in schools and of the texts that shape those experiences. For example, over the past five years, Educational Administration Quarterly—arguably the premiere journal in the field—has published few articles having the characteristics of interpretive studies. The majority of these take a “critical hermeneutics” perspective advanced by Jürgen Habermas, in that their predetermined purpose is to unmask unexamined ideologies and power relationships.

—Patricia E. Holland

Further Readings and References


INTERSTATE SCHOOL LEADERS LICENSURE CONSORTIUM

Established in early 1994–1995, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) set out to develop national standards for school leaders, licensure assessments based on such a set of standards, and professional development guidelines directly linked to the new standards. Starting with 23 state departments of education representatives and 10 national school leader associations, ISLLC brought together most of the key organizations with an interest in school leadership. In a short period of time, the consortium grew to include 30 states, the preeminent national leadership associations, and the two organizations representing higher education school leader preparation programs. ISLLC was a project of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) in partnership with the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA). Clearly, the ISLLC Standards were created by those most knowledgeable and in control of the field of educational administration in the United States at the time.

Believing that a set of national standards was conspicuously absent in the United States, after 18 months of intense deliberations, the full consortium unanimously adopted the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium Standards for School Leaders in November 1996. Each of the six standards has been defined by indicators of knowledge, performance, and dispositions.
Prior to development of the standards, consortium members crafted several principles on which to base their work. These principles state that the standards should

- Reflect the centrality of student learning
- Acknowledge the changing role of the school leader
- Recognize the collaborative nature of school leadership
- Be high, upgrading the quality of the profession
- Inform standards-based systems of assessment and evaluation for school leaders
- Be integrated and coherent

The ISLLC Standards and the nearly 200 indicators identified to define them were forged for the purpose of strengthening school leadership in several areas, among them, improving preparation and professional development for school leaders, creating a framework for assessment of candidates for licensure, establishing a foundation for national recognition in certification programs, and creating criteria on which to base accreditation and program approval for institutions of higher education.

A subset of five states (North Carolina, Mississippi, Missouri, Kentucky, and Illinois) and one extraterritorial jurisdiction (District of Columbia) from ISLLC collaborated in the development of an innovative licensure assessment based on the ISLLC Standards. Through a competitive process, according to Neil J. Shipman in 1988, the Educational Testing Service (ETS) was awarded a contract to create tests for initial licensing of beginning principals. The initial administration of the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) took place in Mississippi in 1997. Fifteen states now administer the SLLA for licensure of principals.

Additional contracts were awarded later to ETS to develop a licensure assessment for school superintendents, the School Superintendents Assessment (SSA), and a licensure portfolio intended to be used for licensure renewal and professional development. Two states are using the SSA for licensing superintendents. The licensure portfolio is not in use.

The widespread implementation of the ISLLC Standards by 43 states and three extraterritorial jurisdictions has had a major impact on the reform of preparation and development for school principals and superintendents. The higher education community, after initial reluctance to change, has grasped this opportunity for leadership in systemic reform by adopting major revisions in curricula for preparation of school leaders directly linked to the ISLLC Standards. Encouraged by these efforts and having a desire for consistency among universities, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) in 2000 created new school leadership accreditation standards using the ISLLC Standards as the framework. It is the desire of NCATE and other reform-minded organizations to ensure that standards-based reform will drive improvements in what aspiring school leaders learn as well as promote change in delivery of instruction by professors.

Although the ISLLC Standards are still fueling the discussions about reforming school leadership preparation, development, and practice, the ISLLC Consortium as an entity stalled from 2001 to 2003 with virtually no organized activities occurring for over 2 years following the departure of the original project director. An attempt to rejuvenate the organization on a much smaller scale began in 2004 when the name was changed to the Interstate Consortium on School Leadership. Limited membership of approximately 15 states and no school leader associations or higher education organizations indicates a less inclusive model of involvement and decision making by the sponsoring organization, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO).

Though not without criticism, the standards and their associated licensure assessments, all developed through thorough group processes and involvement of thousands of stakeholders and based on some research and literature about effective school leaders, are contemporary in approaching school reform and leadership preparation. They refocus the role of school principals, superintendents, and other administrators on issues of learning and teaching. All six standards are firmly grounded in the key disposition that all students can learn. The standards are proactive, demanding, clearly delineated, and aligned with reports and goals of national commissions and associations that were available during the development phase from 1994 to 1995.

**INTERSTATE SCHOOL LEADERS LICENSURE CONSORTIUM STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL LEADERS**

A school administrator is an education leader who promotes the success of all students by

- Facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community
- Advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth
• Ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment
• Collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources
• Acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner
• Understanding, responding to, and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context

—Neil J. Shipman

See also accreditation; accountability; classification of education; Council of Chief State School Officers; Department of Education; Education Commission of the States; Educational Testing Service; internships; knowledge base, of the field; leadership effectiveness; leadership, theories of; licensure and certification; management theories; performance assessment; principalship; rational organizational theory; school improvement models; standard setting; state departments of education; theory movement, in educational administration; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration

Further Readings and References


Involvement in Organizations

Involvement in organizations refers to an approach to organizational management. The involvement approach is based on the idea that employee commitment can be elicited when employees have an opportunity to influence decisions about their work and organizational conditions. This approach can be contrasted to one that relies on top-down management controls to govern employee behavior and provides limited opportunity to influence organizational practices and policies. When workers have input into determining the means by which a given task is to be implemented, they are said to have involvement in operational decision making. When they have input into determining broader managerial decisions, such as resource allocation, they are said to have involvement in strategic decision making. In schools, strategies for increasing involvement and participation have centered on enhancing the involvement of teachers in decision making.

Interest in employee involvement in organizations has a long history in organizational research and practice. Employee involvement has its roots in a human relations approach to organizational management. This approach assumes that human motivation derives from participation and involvement in setting goals and improving methods and monitoring progress toward goals as opposed to fear or threat of punishment and/or rewards. In the 1960s, organizational researcher Rensis Likert, in his book *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value*, placed emphasis on the human component of management. Likert’s four organizational systems illustrated different degrees of worker participation and involvement in setting goals. In System 1, exploitive-authoritative, the bulk of decisions were made at the top of the organization. In System 2, benevolent-authoritative, policy decisions were made at the top, but those at lower levels had latitude for decision making within set frameworks. In System 3, consultative, broad policy decisions were made at higher levels, and more specific decisions were reserved for lower levels. In System 4, participative group, decision making was conducted widely throughout the organization and was coordinated by people with overlapping group memberships. System 4 represented an optimum integration of the needs and desires of the members of the organization.

In the 1980s, Edward E. Lawler continued to explore ways that enhanced involvement and met worker and organizational needs. Lawler’s high involvement management model explored aspects of human needs that could be satisfied by participation, such as personal needs for control, competence, and personal growth. Concerning the organization as a whole, he maintained that different approaches to involvement all moved one or more of the following further down in the organization: information, knowledge, rewards, and power. Among the private sector strategies for enhancing worker involvement, according to Lawler, were quality circles, employee attitude...
surveys, teams and job enrichment, and union-management innovations.

In schools, research conducted in the 1970s and 1980s examined how much involvement teachers actually had and desired in decisions made within the school enterprise. Researchers assumed that enhanced involvement would be associated with teachers’ acceptance of change, job satisfaction, and willingness to accept the authority of administrators. Studies based on surveys assessing teachers’ desires for participation in different areas of school management were reported in research journals. Researchers observed that teachers might not be equally desirous of additional participation. In addition, teachers may want participation and involvement in some areas more than others. Often, the focus was on the influence administrators could expect to wield as a result of how much input into decision making teachers possessed. Some critics suggested that involvement strategies represented only a façade, whereby teachers were promised participation and influence but major decisions were retained by administrators.

In the 1980s, the report of the Carnegie Commission, among others, sparked increased interest in involvement approaches to school management. Enhanced attention was directed to the appropriateness of involvement strategies for teachers based on their status as professionals. A number of involvement strategies following that became the subject of experimentation in schools. These approaches included the following: (a) mentor teacher and career ladders, (b) site-based management, and (c) teacher work teams. Mentor teacher and career ladder plans can be considered individual job enrichment approaches for enhancing teacher involvement. They enrich jobs by creating supervisory and evaluation responsibilities for teachers who are in mentor teacher or higher-level career ladder positions. Site-based management strategies are governance approaches to enhancing involvement. They aim to decentralize decision making in the organization by establishing site councils comprised of teachers and parents. These councils seek to provide teachers and parents with opportunities for input into governance decisions made by principals. Teacher work teams are involvement strategies that appeared to address a weakness of individual job enrichment approaches: the focus on providing enhanced involvement for a few teachers in specialized positions. This approach seeks to create fuller involvement of teachers by providing teacher team members with enhanced authority over a variety of decisions such as student class assignment and curricular coordination, particularly in middle schools.

At least two developments can be noted in efforts to increase involvement in schools. First, school managers may view these efforts as a diminishment of their managerial authority and thus view teacher involvement strategies cautiously. Second, with renewed interest in parental and community involvement in various aspects of school life, the concept of involvement in organizations appears to be broadening considerably.

—Sharon Conley

See also accountability; attitudes towards work; belonging; bureaucracy; capacity building, of organizations; career development; democracy, democratic education and administration; empowerment; engagement; feminism and theories of leadership; group dynamics; human resource development; leader effectiveness; leadership styles; leadership, theories of; locus of control; management theories; networking and network theory; parental involvement; professional learning communities; satisfaction, in organizations and roles; self-actualization; site-based management; women in educational leadership

Further Readings and References


ITEM RESPONSE THEORY

Modern advanced testing and measurement applications in psychometrics and educational measurement are informed by the basic ideas of item response theory (IRT), which remains a dynamic source of new strategies for improving the measurement of psychological constructs and behavior. IRT is the study of overall test results and the scores from individual test items, based
on assumptions concerning the mathematical relationship between traits such as student ability and students’ responses to individual test items. Student performance and ability are treated as latent, or unobserved, traits to be estimated from empirical data. IRT is contrasted to classical test theory, which developed in the 1920s and in the following decades in pursuit of ways to measure and test levels of intelligence. Unlike classical measurement, which emphasizes the overall score of a test instrument designed to measure student knowledge and achievement, IRT’s interpretations of student performance are based upon the characteristics of the items comprising the test, rather than the aggregate test scores, and are predicated on model estimates produced by maximum likelihood, rather than more familiar least squares, methods such as Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. IRT also relies upon the concept of item discrimination, that is, the extent to which an item is able to generate a higher proportion of correct responses with increasing age, ability, and knowledge base of the test recipient. An item that has greater discriminating power, and thus results in a greater rate of increase in the proportion of correct responses with age, has a steeper item characteristic curve, which provides a graphical summary of the relationship between a criterion variable and correct responses to a test item. Criterion variables are treated as latent traits of ability, such as intelligence, mathematical ability, or reading fluency. Ability scores are assumed to have a midpoint value of 0 and a unit of measurement equal to 1.

The development of IRT research dates back at least to the 1940s, to the work of D. N. Lawley (University of Edinburgh) showing that many of the elements of classical test theory could be expressed mathematically by the parameters of the item characteristic curve. F. M. Lord, of the Educational Testing Service, and Melvin Novick systematically defined, expanded, and explored IRT theory and developed the necessary computer programs for developing practical applications of IRT theory. Measurement models originally developed by Georg Rasch, a Danish mathematician, were generalized by B. D. Wright at the University of Chicago.

The relationship between student ability and the probability of a correct response to a given test item frequently follows an S-shaped curve, showing the probabilities of a correct response for students with different ability levels. The idea is that students with low ability are very unlikely to answer a question correctly, students with moderate ability have a sharply increased ability to answer correctly, and the additional ability of the most capable students does not increase the likelihood of a correct answer, which already has approached an asymptotic probability value close to the maximum of one.

Contemporary extensions of IRT include several uses of marginal maximum likelihood estimation. Marginal maximum likelihood is particularly appropriate for a new research agenda that includes (a) when the data include multiple, identifiably different groups who have taken an examination with the same instrument, and it is desired to compare the groups on a common measurement scale, (b) determining whether items in an exam or a survey questionnaire are processed differently by groups of examinees or respondents, (c) detecting when the parameters of an item drift over time and changing circumstances, and (d) estimating item parameters for measurement instruments with items based on different response models, such as a mixture of dichotomous and polytomous questions.

Other exciting new departures in IRT involve the use of the Gibbs sampler, which is an offshoot of the Markov chain Monte Carlo method for using simulations to estimate parameters. The Gibbs sampler approach can be used to estimate simultaneously the parameters of the items of an instrument and the parameters measuring the ability of the students who are being tested. This method is highly computer intensive and requires good knowledge of both computing and statistical theory. Several software packages are available to conduct the complex statistical estimation required for IRT. These include LOGIST, BICAL, BILOG, and MULTILOG.

—Mack C. Shelley

See also factor analysis; mixed methods, in research; psychometrics; testing and test theory development; variables

Further Readings and References


**J-CURVE THEORY**

The J-curve is a graphic of a frequency distribution that visualizes change process, growth, or achievement. The J-curve most often is used to represent what happens when change is introduced into a relatively stable or traditional system. Participants in stable or traditional organizations may range from those who want no change of any kind to those who feel that drastic change is needed. In a school, the reasons for change might range from mandated programs from the district or the demand from the state to raise low or falling standardized test scores to the desire of the school staff to implement an academic program that is more responsive to the needs of all the students in the school.

The J-curve (see Figure 1) characterizes what happens to an organization when unrealistic expectations impede a planned change effort. The program may run into serious community opposition or lack of teacher support or budgetary shortcomings or any of the other countless obstacles that can slow or kill a comprehensive change effort or even a single program. The change initiative hits what Michael Fullan calls the “implementation dip” and Karl Albrecht calls the “valley of despair.” Things go down rather than up because the existing culture of the organization has been disturbed. The change effort could well fail at this point as change-induced frustration and instability make apparent the gap between expectations and results. On the other hand, as Albrecht tells us, a change’s sponsor, if using realistic expectations and an understanding of the J-curve, can successfully emerge from the valley of despair. David Viney suggests that management can survive the dip by pursuing three key aims: managing expectations, minimizing the depth of the dip, and making sure you surface again.

The J-curve also has been used to measure highly skewed distributions of conforming behavior, such as religious commitment or driver stopping habits at stop signs, and exponential growth where, after a slow start, the pace of change is very rapid, like the growth of bacteria in a culture. In education, a distribution of scores on a test that is very easy or very difficult would result in a J-curve. Such a test would be easy, of course, if all students were well prepared to take it. Here the J-curve would represent, according to “Word Spy” in 2004, grade distribution in an educational system built upon the belief that most students can succeed. Most students in this kind of school would occupy the rising part of the curve, not the center of a normal distribution (bell curve). Indeed, J-curve adherents labor to change the system until most students are

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**Figure 1  The J-Curve**

learning at a high level. The J-curve belief is that achievement is a function of time and motivation.

—James W. Keefe

See also at-risk students; conditioning theory; ethos, of organizations; instructional interventions; intelligence; learning, theories of; learning environments; locus of control; problem solving; psychology, types of; psychometrics; research methods; standardized testing; testing and test theory development; underachievers, in schools; validity and reliability; variables

Further Readings and References


JEFFERSON, THOMAS

Thomas Jefferson (1743–1826) wanted to be remembered on his tombstone for three achievements: Author of the Declaration of American Independence, the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and Father of the University of Virginia. Thomas Jefferson accomplished so much more. He was a political philosopher, architect, musician, book collector, scientist, lawyer, horticulturist, diplomat, inventor, writer, and, of course, third President of the United States (1800–1808). Although the term “Renaissance man” was not coined until the nineteenth century, Jefferson has become, for many, its exemplar.

Having served his country over 50 years, Jefferson, in his early professional life, worked in local government as a magistrate, county lieutenant, and member of the House of Burgesses. During the Revolutionary era, he provided leadership as a member of the Continental Congress, was chosen in 1776 to draft the Declaration of Independence, served in the Virginia legislature until his election as governor in 1779, began to compile his “Notes on the State of Virginia,” and was a member of the Second Continental Congress from 1783 to 1784. He spent the next 5 years in France as commissioner, then minister, built strong diplomatic ties with the French, and witnessed the unfolding of the French Revolution. Upon his return to the United States, he served as secretary of state (1790–1793), where he tangled with the Federalist Alexander Hamilton. He retired for a time to Monticello, but returned to civil service in 1796 as John Adams’s vice president. He served as president of the American Philosophical Society from 1797 to 1815, a learned society of accomplished scholars and scientists.

Thomas Jefferson was erudite, a man who constantly endeavored to satisfy his intellectual curiosities. His library contained more than 1,250 volumes; he was considered an expert in math, astronomy, anatomy, physics, mechanics, meteorology, architecture, and botany. In addition, he could read and write in Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian. He was the embodiment of education and lifelong curiosity for learning. Philosophically, he was both a man of his times (the Age of Enlightenment) and a visionary (evidence the Louisiana Purchase). Politically, Jefferson represented democratic republicanism, his presidency, in fact, the beginning of the Democratic Party. He favored a society based on small farmers rather than wealthy businessmen or merchants. In general, he stood for the common person and believed in limiting government power, with a military subject to civilian control, tax breaks for the middle class, and constant protection of civil liberties. Internationally, he supported the French and many ideals of the French Revolution, rather than the British, supported by the Federalists, such as Hamilton.

In the simple epitaph he wrote for his tombstone, Jefferson succinctly distilled his accomplishments and the essence of his political beliefs. The Declaration of Independence contains his philosophy of the principles needed to build and sustain a democracy founded on natural law and natural human rights. Jefferson’s political philosophy was based on several traditions: Lockean concepts of democratic community, classical republicanism, Scottish moral sense philosophy, Christian ethics, and modern economic theory. These traditions supported his conceptions of freedom and liberty, democracy, equality, and rights. Freedom, “release from” oppressive restriction, and liberty, a right or “freedom to” (for example, “freedom to”
participate in government), explicated in the Declaration of Independence, formed the foundation of his concept of democracy as small, local systems (wards) of participative citizen representation.

Jefferson believed that public education, political participation, and economic equality entailed in ward democracy would provide for an intelligent citizenry to select the best individuals to represent at the county, state, and federal levels. In an 1813 letter to John Adams, Jefferson noted that the best remedy to prevent the ascendancy of artificial aristocracy (founded on wealth and birth) was to trust the citizens to choose those they deem wise and virtuous, the natural aristocrats. He maintained that an enlightened electorate is indispensable for the proper functioning of a republic because self-government is not possible unless citizens are educated sufficiently to enable them to exercise oversight; thus, it is imperative that the nation provides a suitable education for all its citizenry.

Educational leaders should take note that since the founding of our democracy, Jefferson was perhaps the most significant political leader supportive of education; one biographer has called him the “chief prophet of public education” in the first half century of the Union. By his political writings, letters, and deeds, he demonstrated that he truly believed education is a way to continue to ensure an involved citizenry.

There are many puzzling aspects to the character of Thomas Jefferson. Perhaps, it can be said, Jefferson was the embodiment of a life devoted to freedom of thought and expression, that he, in fact, achieved much because of his contradictory beliefs. He was a champion of human freedom, chief author of the Declaration of Independence, and a lifelong and large-scale slave owner. He bought and sold slaves, and if DNA evidence can be believed, he fathered a number of children with Sally Hemings, his personal body attendant who lived in close proximity with him for decades.

He often wrote (in his letters) how much he hated politics and longed to retire to Monticello, yet he spent over 50 years of his life in government service. He professed a firm belief in God, yet he was strongly opposed to organized religion. By nature and breeding, Jefferson was an aristocrat, but he believed in a participatory, citizen government made possible by complete freedom of thought and expression. He was a landowner who incurred much personal debt by the time of his death, but he strongly opposed a national debt. These contradictions and paradoxes of belief and character are reasonably understandable when observed in the light of common human experiences, leadership theory, and the historical period in which Jefferson lived. These paradoxes display the depth and dimension that bespeak a leader—contradictions, a holistic thinker, and idealistic visionary.

During the last 17 years of his life, Jefferson remained in Virginia. As the “Sage of Monticello,” he engaged in a prolific correspondence with John Adams and others. Jefferson’s last great public service was the founding of the University of Virginia in 1819, one of the three achievements noted on his epitaph. Thomas Jefferson died at Monticello on July 4, 1826, on the 50th anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. He was flawed, but he was in love with life, learned, restless, pragmatic, idealistic, reflective, many-sided. He set his sights higher than he was able to achieve in his lifetime, and he left open the opportunity for citizen-beneficiaries of the Declaration of American Independence to be as great as the principles in the document itself.

—JoAnn Danelo Barbour

See also authority; church-state issues; civics, history in schools; critical race theory; democracy, democratic education and administration; dialectical inquiry; great man theory; idealism, as philosophy in education; ideology, shifts of in educational leadership preparation; intelligence; morality, moral leadership

Further Readings and References


Job descriptions are narrative documents compiled for the purpose of describing salient aspects for positions.
performed by employees of an organization. The format for job descriptions is relatively standardized within the professional literature. In general, the format of many job descriptions includes the following subheadings: job title, summary of activities/reporting relationship, minimum job qualifications, duties and responsibilities, and a closure clause.

The heading for most job descriptions lists at minimum the job title for a specific position. However, in many instances, this heading is not a singular statement. This heading should include alternate titles as found for the same type of position in alternate yet comparable organizations (e.g., secretary to the superintendent/executive secretary). Accompanying the job title(s), helpful information is provided to readers when a number is supplied in parenthesis that indicates the actual number of employees within an organization holding such positions.

Following the subheading of job title is a section for summary of activities and a reporting relationship, and the purpose of this section is to describe for the reader a global yet precise summary of the overall purpose of a job within a particular organization. If possible, the summary of activities should be only a single sentence, but no more than three sentences. An appropriate example for an elementary school principal in most public school districts would read as follows: “Responsible for the entire operation of an elementary school building and reports directly to the superintendent/executive secretary.”

Under the subheading of minimum job qualifications, information is provided about those personal abilities, physical characteristics, and certification requirements that position holders must possess to satisfactorily perform the specific focal position. In many instances, the lowest-qualified job incumbent within an organization sets the upper limits of what can be required in this section of job descriptions. Qualifications as listed within the job description should focus on actual job demands and not on desired job qualifications.

The duties and responsibilities subheading forms the body as well as the bulk of job descriptions and should contain descriptors/examples of those salient aspects performed by position holders. These statements should focus on knowledge, skills, and abilities required of position holders, should begin with an action verb, should be limited to no more that 15 statements, and should end with a statement specifying “completes all other duties as assigned.”

Concluding job descriptions should be a closure clause placing limits on the contents of job descriptions. This clause should emphasize that contents of this job description exemplify some of the more important duties performed by position holders and should not be interpreted as all-encompassing of duties to be performed by a position holder. By including a closure clause within job descriptions, many potential problems associated with job descriptions are diffused.

Indeed, few topics generate more controversy within educational organizations than job descriptions. Employees want job descriptions to determine what they should not have to do within their current job assignments. Employers want job descriptions to determine what employees should do within their current job assignments.

Interestingly, when properly constructed as previously described, job descriptions may well fail to satisfy the needs of either employees or employers. To capture all the dynamics of even the simplest job found within any educational organization in a written narrative form is beyond the scope of even the most dynamic author or human resource specialist. This failing should not be interpreted, however, to mean that job descriptions have little importance.

In fact, job descriptions serve several important aspects germane to the operation of a public school district. Job descriptions are pivotal instruments for the recruitment and selection of new employees. Contents of job descriptions provide individuals, as applicants, important information about vacant positions and guide the selection process in matching qualifications of individuals with job requirements.

For establishing compensation levels of nonbargaining unit positions, job descriptions play an important role. Properly constructed, job descriptions reflect the higher-level scope and responsibilities associated with particular focal positions. This information can be used to determine the relative organizational worth of positions within a public school district and to develop employee classification systems as well as aiding in the construction of salary schedules.

Beyond recruiting, selecting, classifying, and compensating individuals, job descriptions serve as a foundation for developing a performance evaluation process. Adequately constructed, job descriptions reflect specific criteria that should be mirrored in a performance evaluation process. By linking job criteria reflected within job descriptions to the performance dimensions comprising a performance appraisal
process, employees as well as employers operate from the same set of standards.

To obtain the information necessary for constructing functional job descriptions, several methodologies exist. These methodologies include interviewing job incumbents, using questionnaires/survey techniques with knowledgeable stakeholders, observing actual work activities, and reviewing published sources such as the Dictionary of Occupational Titles or those sources made available by professional associations. This choice, among available methodologies, depends on the expertise of the job analyst and on the cyclical nature of the jobs under consideration.

Once compiled, job description information should be evaluated relative to three separate criteria before finalizing contents of job descriptions to ensure compliance with certain federal guidelines, such as the American Disability Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act. These criteria address how important each job duty/qualification is for a specific focal position, how frequently a position holder is expected to perform such activities in the regular line of duty, and if reasonable accommodations can be made for position holders failing to meet specified conditions. Results of this evaluation require, in most instances, judgment calls on the part of an organization relative to what should be included and what should be excluded in the official job descriptions.

Official job descriptions should be approved by the board of education and should be made available to all employees. Availability of official job descriptions has been traditionally satisfied through published manuals reasonably accessible at different work sites within an educational organization, but it has more recently been satisfied by publication of job descriptions on a school district’s Web site. By making official job descriptions readily available to employees, the burden of being current is vested with the employees rather than the employer.

—I. Phillip Young

See also accountability; differentiated staffing; human resource development; job security; merit pay; performance assessment; personnel management; salary and salary models; staffing, concepts of

Further Readings and References


JOB SECURITY

Job security refers to a general expectation that workers will have continued employment so long as it is desired, subject to disciplinary action. Job security is prized by employees, especially in times of high unemployment.

In public education, the most important sources of job security are teacher tenure statutes and contracts, such as collective-bargaining agreements or individual contracts. Other factors related to job security include special skills, special certifications or endorsements (i.e., a special education teaching endorsement), advanced degrees (i.e., a master’s degree), and seniority or length of service.

The prime cause of job insecurity in the public sector is financial difficulties caused by, among other things, insufficient tax revenue. Another important cause is declining enrollment in certain curricular areas, such as foreign language or fine arts. An additional cause of job insecurity is technological change, which may decrease the need for staff through automation or may change required skill sets, such as increased computer literacy requirements. Teaching staff, individually and collectively, may resist these and other changes perceived to be threats to job security. Other perceived or actual challenges to job security in public employment include several provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act, most specifically the “highly qualified teacher” requirement, and the charter school/school choice movement. The experience of private sector employers suggests layoffs or downsizing do not increase long-term profitability or productivity. In addition, job insecurity, when combined with seniority systems common in public education, may have a greater impact on junior workers. This combination has the potential to deprive schools of the energy, innovation, and “new blood” associated with recently trained teachers.

In many quarters, job security is viewed as a two-edged sword. Workers who perceive their jobs to be secure are considered to be loyal to their employers.
These employees are commonly viewed as reservoirs of accumulated knowledge and experience for their employers. On the other hand, many suggest job security leads to complacency, inefficiency, and resistance to change. Employees who have or who perceive job insecurity are more likely to have psychological problems, family dysfunction, and poor job performance than their peers with job security. Employees who are younger, who have lower educational attainment, and who are members of disadvantaged minority groups are more likely to perceive job insecurity than employees who do not have these characteristics. Furthermore, job insecurity presents an instructional challenge when a student’s parents or family members have job insecurity. The job insecurity in the student’s family may lead to psychological difficulties for the student, which may interfere with learning or may cause behavior problems.

Job security and job insecurity present several challenges to school leaders. School leaders are charged with mitigating the negative effects of job security (i.e., complacency) and job insecurity (i.e., psychological difficulties). Potential employer responses to job insecurity include retraining and continuing education, job restructuring, job sharing, joint ventures and partnerships with other employers, and career counseling and support services.

—Thomas A. Mayes

See also collective bargaining; personnel management; unions, of teachers

Further Readings and References


JUNG, CARL

Carl Jung’s theory has influenced the profession of education via his expansion of Freud’s theory beyond its sexual/gender connotation. While he held to many of Freud’s concepts, his approach was more egalitarian and less demeaning to women. His ideas about differing personality types and the specific behaviors of each continue to be a foundation of professional practice.

Jung (1875–1961) was born in Basel, Switzerland, and studied medicine at the University of Basel. He was connected with the University of Zurich from 1900 to 1913, as a physician in the psychiatric clinic most of this time.

Jung’s brief association with Sigmund Freud was of 6 years’ duration, lasting from 1907 to 1913. Then he founded his own school known as analytical psychology. He made important contributions to psychology and adopted Freud’s methods in modified form, with less emphasis on sex.

The conscious mind, according to Jung, focuses back on the past from time to time, during sleep, into what he termed the collective unconscious. Certain virtues, a fear, a longing, or a basic pattern of behavior Jung saw as a clue to what could be troubling an individual. Jung believed that faulty adjustment to life led to biochemical disorders.

According to Jung, the human psyche is made up of the collective unconscious, conscious, ego, and persona. The ego is reflective of individual experience partly existing in one’s conscious and partly unconscious. In the collective unconscious, we find these premonitory images, racial images established perhaps thousands of years ago. The two important archetypes are anima, the ideal male mate, and animus, the ideal female mate. The persona is a superficial social mask that the individual presents, or puts on while involved in a social relationship.

Jung presented the position that there are fundamentally two types of people: extrovert and introvert. His treatment centered on trying to maintain an equilibrium of feeling, thought, sensation, and intuition. When there is not an equilibrium, a complex is formed. Jung further defined the libido as a vital human force, but he questioned its exclusively sexual origin. He saw early childhood relation to the mother as nonsexual. She is the nourishing one, and the child’s attachment to her stems from this need.

Jung saw humanity’s salvation in the developmental process, which he called self-realization. This process involves the reconciliation of inner and outer impulses, of the psyche and its environment of man and society. Jung’s profoundest belief was that persons must save themselves by achieving a wholeness of personality.
Both Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers’s work reflected that of Jung. However, for educational leaders, Jung’s most significant contributions were the concept of persona and the understanding that in interactions, “What you see is not what you get,” as well as his delineation of introverts and extroverts, with the understanding that every individual must be understood as an individual. Another highly influential work in leadership was imbued with Jung’s thought. That was the seminal book by Joseph Campbell, in 1949, *The Hero With a Thousand Faces*. Campbell found in Jung’s conception of the universal archetype the basis for his own scholarship, in Jung’s *Symbols of Transformation*.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also Freud, Sigmund; leadership, complex theory of; leadership, theories of; psychology, types of

Further Readings and References


**JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS**

The idea for a special school organizational arrangement for young adolescents began in the 1890s, but it was not until 1909, with the establishment of the first junior high schools in Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, that the idea became a reality. The junior high school movement represented an initial effort to focus school reform on meeting the unique developmental needs of young adolescents, who undergo significant physical, cognitive, social, and emotional changes during the middle grades years. The call for a separate organizational setting for this group of learners was predicated on educators’ concerns regarding perceived failures of the elementary school (Grades 1–8) and secondary school (Grades 9–12) levels to effectively address students’ needs, particularly in the seventh and eighth grades. As a result, the rationale for establishing junior high schools included providing a more rigorous curriculum at an earlier age (economy of time), reducing the number of dropouts and students retained in the same grade for 2 or more years, hiring teachers who were content specialists, addressing the specific needs of young adolescents, and providing for individual differences to address wide variations in learners’ cognitive abilities.

The junior high movement rapidly progressed from these beginnings, drawing support from reports of the Committee on Economy of Time in Education (in 1913) and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association (in 1918). Both of these groups had endorsed the junior high school organization and its programmatic components. By 1925, approximately 2,000 junior high schools were in place, a number that expanded to 10,000 by 1947.

At midcentury, school systems across the United States had restructured into the 6-3-3 grade-level organization, and the 7-8-9 junior high school had become the dominant educational structure for this age group. This reorganization was fueled in part by the responses of local school boards and educators calling for reform at the middle-grades level and also as a means of relieving overcrowding that was occurring in the elementary and high schools as a result of rapid enrollment increases. Gradually, educators and scholars reached consensus on the identity and purpose of junior high schools, including an emphasis on student exploration and guidance, socialization, and provisions for individual differences, and they were introduced to the concept of curriculum integration as an instructional strategy for facilitating learners’ cognitive connections across the disciplines.

The organizational reforms and programs advocated by the early reformers had been successfully implemented and were becoming entrenched practices in the nation’s junior high schools. Typical junior high schools of the 1950s featured departmentalization of instruction, course offerings similar to high school courses, and instructors trained as specialists in their disciplines. Ability grouping (tracking) typically was employed in the core classes of language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science, and guidance counselors and homeroom periods were common features.

In the late 1950s, however, concerns began to grow that some accepted organizational practices were not
fully achieving the original vision of the junior high school and that the implementation of some practices was being carried to the extreme. In fact, many changes that originally were promoted as developmentally responsive for young adolescents now were being challenged as inappropriate for this age group. Among the criticisms were that junior high schools were becoming miniature versions of high schools, through excessive use of departmentalization, specialization, and ability grouping, and that many student activities (such as interscholastic athletics competition and formal dances) simply replicated the senior high school offerings. In addition, many junior high school teachers, who were typically prepared for high school teaching, were expressing tremendous dissatisfaction with their assignments to these schools.

A renewed interest in educational reform emerged in the 1960s, including activities related to curriculum development and revision. Innovative instructional practices were being suggested, such as personalized instruction, flexible scheduling, and team teaching. A number of educators were advocating for a reorganization of the junior high school grades, suggesting that the ninth grade be moved to the high school to offer all college preparatory courses in one setting and to remove junior high settings from the instructional confines of the Carnegie unit. In addition, young adolescents were maturing at an earlier age than children of previous generations, prompting educators to consider including the sixth and even the fifth grades within the junior high school structure. Added to this was the growing chorus of concerns that junior high schools truly did not provide a unique environment for young adolescents—that they merely mimicked high school programs and practices.

Growing out of these discussions and debates was the modern middle school philosophy, which was advocated by such leading scholars as William Alexander, Emmett Williams, and Donald Eichhorn. The purpose of the emerging middle school movement remained highly consistent with the original junior high school philosophy (e.g., to meet the special needs of young adolescents). To achieve this purpose, middle-level advocates proposed programs and practices that departed from the entrenched junior high schools, including (a) homeroom/teacher advisory periods; (b) four-person teaching teams staffed by teachers with specialties in language arts, social studies, mathematics, and science; and (c) curriculum delivered in an interdisciplinary format (integration of the four core subjects with a physical/cultural curriculum that included practical arts, fine arts, physical education, and cultural studies). Instruction was delivered in a variety of arrangements, including block and flexible scheduling.

During this time of reform, junior highs came to be classified as content centered, impersonal, departmentalized structures, and middle schools were characterized as being learner centered, with teaching teams, integrated curricula, and advisory programming. Junior highs typically were conceptualized as buildings that contained 7–8 or 7–9 structures, whereas middle schools commonly contained Grades 5–8 or 6–8. Although these debates continued over the next few decades, the new middle schools and old junior highs, in most instances, were more similar than dissimilar.

By the 1980s, the terms middle level education and middle level schools had gained acceptance as terms used to describe both middle schools and junior high schools. Organizations such as the National Middle School Association (established in 1973), the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Carnegie Task Force on Education of Young Adolescents have worked to maintain a national and international conversation related to successful school practices and to promote the continued transformation of middle grades schools into learning communities that are responsive to young adolescents’ learning needs.

—Donald C. Clark and Donald G. Hackmann

See also adolescence; belonging; child development theories; counseling; individual differences, in children; intelligence; learning, theories of; middle schools; motivation, theories of; personality; psychology, theories of; tracking, of students

Further Readings and References

A public school district may not discipline or terminate an employee without a good reason. It must first establish that a just cause exists for taking such an action. Requirements that the employer show just cause for disciplining or terminating an employee can be specified in local school district policies, in negotiated labor agreements, in judicial decisions, or in state statutes. The just cause standard requires that the district prove that there is a good and substantial reason for disciplining or terminating an employee. The responsibility to demonstrate just cause restrains the district from acting arbitrarily or capriciously.

The precise meaning of what constitutes just cause varies among jurisdictions. However, the most commonly cited grounds for disciplining or terminating an employee include:

- Incompetence
- Immorality
- Insubordination
- Unprofessional conduct
- Unfitness to teach
- Other good and just cause

“Other good and just cause” has been criticized as overly vague. However, the term is generally taken to mean any behavior or action on the part of the employee that is reasonably related to causes specified in statute or school district policy and that the employee should have known was improper. A court will generally determine whether or not a district has demonstrated other good and just cause on a case-by-case basis.

Whether or not just cause exists to discipline or terminate an employee can be determined by a seven-step test. The test requires that the employer be able to give positive answers to these questions:

1. Was the employee adequately warned about the consequences of his or her conduct?
2. Was the district’s rule or order relevant to the safe and efficient operation of the school district?
3. Did the district investigate before disciplining or terminating the employee?
4. Was the investigation fair and objective?
5. Did the investigation result in substantial evidence of wrongdoing?
6. Were the district’s rules, orders, or penalties applied equally and without discrimination?
7. Is the penalty applied reasonably related to the gravity of the offense and does it take into consideration the employee’s past record?

It is the district’s burden to prove that just cause for discipline or termination exists. Applying the seven-step test enables the district to establish that its actions are justified.

Just cause and due process are separate concepts. Due process is the constitutionally required process for terminating an employee who has a property or liberty interest in continued employment. Just cause establishes that the district has a substantive, as opposed to an arbitrary, reason for taking action. Due process is the “how” of employee termination. Just cause is the “why.”

—Mike Boone

See also collective bargaining; personnel management; unions, of teachers

Further Readings and References

**KALAMAZOO CASE**

The evolution of American public education is characterized by broad judicial interpretation of the implied powers of local school officials. The Supreme Court recognized this long-held concept in the 1973 *San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez* case in holding that local school boards have the authority to tailor educational programming to the needs of their communities. Judicial deference to local boards has encouraged freedom and experimentation that is out of proportion to that suggested by the legal structure of public education. Creative boards typically introduce new practices in what may be described as exercises of implied powers. If practices are not challenged, or survive judicial scrutiny, they may spread until they become generally accepted. In an overwhelming number of cases involving new educational practices, local boards have prevailed, usually on the basis that an activity is a desirable way of achieving broad legislative/educational goals. The earliest, and arguably most significant, example of this process was the extension of a common school system to include high schools in Michigan Supreme Court’s upholding of the practice in *Stuart v. School Dist. No. 1 of Village of Kalamazoo* in 1874. According to *Kalamazoo*, challenges to similar board actions in other states would meet with the same result, thereby granting significantly greater authority to local school leaders.

More specifically, the key issue in *Kalamazoo* was whether a local school board could not only levy taxes on the general public in order to support high schools but also use the funds to provide instruction for children in languages other than English, namely Latin and French. The court reasoned that insofar as the board had operated the school for 13 years before taxpayers challenged its action, the fact that state officials did not object to its doing so rendered their claim without merit. *Kalamazoo* is most often cited for its importance with regard to the creation of free, tax-supported secondary schools. Yet *Kalamazoo* is perhaps of even greater significance for local school boards, since it stands for the proposition that they have the implied authority to act as they deem appropriate in matters of educational policy and school governance. In so ruling, Michigan Supreme Court’s judgment in *Kalamazoo* stands out as a case that opened the door to granting local school boards the authority to set educational policy and standards for their students.

—Charles J. Russo

See also high schools; law; taxes, to support education

**Further Readings and References**


**KENTUCKY EDUCATION REFORM ACT**

The Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) was passed by the state legislature as a remedy following...
the Kentucky Supreme Court decision in *Rose v. Council for Better Education, Inc.* that in 1989 declared the state’s system of public education to be ineffective, inefficient, and inadequate. KERA was the blueprint for a comprehensive overhaul of the state’s education system, including curriculum and assessment, school governance, finance, and accountability. The act’s implementation became a national model of a comprehensive standards-based education system. Michael Rebell wrote in 2002 that the *Rose* decision was the starting point for meaningful dialogue on reform.

The plaintiff in the court case was the Council for Better Education, a nonprofit corporation of 66 Kentucky school districts, 7 local school boards, and 22 public school students. The council sought a ruling from the Court requiring the state general assembly to increase the funding for public schools and provide an equitable and adequate funding program for all students. The Court ruled that the state funding system was inequitable, but it went further, holding that the entire school system was unconstitutional. The Court charged the general assembly with devising a framework for a new education system.

**KERA COMPONENTS**

KERA was enacted by the legislature on July 13, 1990. The legislature set up a task force to oversee its implementation, consisting of three subcommittees—curriculum, governance, and finance, headed by nationally known experts David Hornbeck, John Augenblick, and Luvern Cunningham—to oversee the reform effort. The law required that a statewide curriculum framework be adopted and disseminated to schools by July 1993 and that an aligned assessment be in place by 1995–1996. The state department of education was shut down, and existing personnel had to reapply for newly created positions. The Office of Education Accountability was established under the Legislative Research Commission in order to monitor all aspects of KERA, including oversight of school finance and state and school district performance data. Governance was addressed by the requirement that all schools have site-based councils in place by July 1996. The legislature also established the Support Education Excellence in Kentucky (SEEK) formula for more equitable school funding, and a biannual tax of $1.3 billion was passed to fund all the reforms. SEEK was fully funded for the first time in January 1995.

KERA had broad goals for changing teaching and learning. The reform legislation identified six student learning goals, including the use of basic communication and mathematics skills through becoming self-sufficient individuals. It emphasized that students should be able to solve problems in school situations and in a variety of situations they would encounter in life, and to connect and integrate experiences and new knowledge from all subject matter fields with what they have previously learned.

Embedded in the statute were requirements that teachers help all students achieve high standards, integrate subjects across fields, integrate authentic assessments into the instructional program, and, in the early grades, help students reach key KERA competencies rather than move them to the next grade. KERA also mandated an ungraded primary system for the students in kindergarten through third grade in order to focus more on learning goals.

The Kentucky Instructional Results Information System (KIRIS) was used between 1991 and 1998 to drive instruction, measure progress toward the goals, and hold schools accountable for academic achievement under KERA. John Poggio noted in 2000 that KIRIS was envisioned as groundbreaking, a qualitative process that would trump multiple-choice exams. Administered in Grades 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, and 12, KIRIS included open-ended responses, on-demand writing prompts, individual and group performance tasks, and portfolio assessments. The legislature replaced KIRIS with the Commonwealth Accountability Testing System in 1998, following complaints about the reliability and validity of KIRIS.

The accountability program was based on the principle that stakes for performance should be placed on the entire school as an organization, rather than on individual students or educators. The state KIRIS goal was for all schools to obtain an average score of 100 (the “proficient” level) on a 140-point scale within a 20-year time frame. In 1993, the state established baseline performance levels for schools and established performance indexes that included both academic and nonacademic measures such as attendance and dropout and retention rates. Schools were then held accountable for showing continuous progress on this index at a specified rate from one biennium to the next. The first financial rewards for school performance were given in 1996. The major sanction for schools “in decline” on their performance indexes was assignment of “distinguished educators,” who were
appointed to evaluate staff and recommend retention, dismissal, or transfer.

**EFFECTS**

Researchers have found that the two most widespread curricular effects of KERA have been assessment driven: an increased emphasis on writing and alignment of curriculum to the state tests. The National Assessment of Educational Progress revealed that Kentucky fourth graders improved their reading scores from 213 to 218 between 1992 and 1998. However, both NAEP and KIRIS data reveal that Kentucky has not yet produced equitable achievement results for minority and low-income students. A 1999 statewide survey found that a majority of public school parents believed that student learning over the past 5 years had improved in the areas of computer skills, writing, thinking and problem solving, reading, knowledge of basic subject matter, and mathematical computation.

The reforms have created a more equitable finance system for Kentucky’s schools. The Support Education Excellence Program cut in half the relationship between district property wealth and revenue and thus has narrowed the gap between the poorest and most affluent districts. However, finance researchers contend that there is still not a means to measure whether the amount of resources available to Kentucky schools is adequate to support the system envisioned by the state Supreme Court.

> —Elizabeth DeBray

See also productivity; reform, of schools; school improvement models; schooling effects; site-based management; state departments of education; value-added indicators

**Further Readings and References**


Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. was born January 15, 1929, in Atlanta, Georgia, and died April 4, 1968, in Memphis, Tennessee. Dr. King was a Baptist minister and civil rights leader. In 1955, at age 26, he led the Montgomery, Alabama, bus boycott to force the desegregation of the public transportation system, and remained in the fight to eliminate Jim Crow laws until he was murdered in 1968 at age 39. King was the eldest son of the Reverend Martin Luther King Sr. and Alberta Williams King of Atlanta, Georgia. Dr. King, an African American, attended racially segregated schools and colleges. He was admitted to Morehouse College at age 15 and earned a bachelor’s degree in sociology. He attended the Crozer Theological Seminary in Chester, Pennsylvania, in 1951, and earned a doctoral degree in theology in 1955 from Boston University. In Boston he met and married Coretta Scott, and together they had four children.

Dr. King received many honors: 1963 *Time* Man of the Year, the Nobel Peace Prize, and Congress’s approval in 1983 of the Martin Luther King Jr. National Holiday. He organized and led many major civil organizations and movements: the Montgomery Bus Boycott, the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the March on Washington, DC, where he delivered his “I Have a Dream” speech, the Birmingham Protest Movement, the Selma to Montgomery March, the Chicago Campaign Against Slums, the Poor People’s Campaign and March on Washington, DC, and the Memphis Campaign. His most noted speeches and writings include “A Letter From Birmingham Jail” from the Birmingham Protest, “I Have a Dream” speech during the March on Washington, acceptance speech at the Nobel Peace Prize Ceremony, “Beyond Vietnam” delivered against the Vietnam War, and “I’ve Been to the Mountaintop” from the Memphis Campaign.

In high school, King won an oratorical contest and spoke on “The Negro and the Constitution” in 1944, emphasizing that the spirit of Abraham Lincoln was still alive, despite, as he noted, rampant racism and sin. He developed his oratorical skills at an early age and was keenly concerned about racism in America. At Morehouse College, according to Clayborne Carson in 1992, King authored a paper on the purpose of education. To King, education has a twofold function in society. It should discipline the mind for sustained and persistent speculation, and it should
integrate human life around central, focusing ideals. Education should make students think effectively and objectively, but we must have worthy objectives upon which to concentrate. We must live truth and sacrifice for it, and education should not be an instrument to exploit the masses. To King, education is the road to real equality and citizenship, and educated people should commit themselves to fighting for humanity.

Upon becoming pastor of Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama, at age 26, King informed the church that every member of the church must be a registered voter, and he established a Social and Political Action Committee to promote membership in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) to help accomplish this objective. King confined his civil rights protests to nonviolent activities.

In 1956, King adopted Mahatma Gandhi’s civil disobedience philosophy and in 1959 visited India to converse with Gandhi’s disciples. In 1960, King left his church in Montgomery to become copastor with his father at the Ebenezer Baptist Church in Atlanta. Throughout the 1960s, King led numerous protest campaigns to integrate restaurants, hotels, public transportation, and housing across the South. King will be remembered most for the Montgomery bus boycott, the March on Washington, the march from Selma to Montgomery, and the Birmingham, Chicago, and Memphis protest campaigns. His skills as a great public speaker and his nonviolent protest movements set the standards for civil rights that followed.

King continues to be honored by the naming of streets, schools, scholarships, buildings, academic positions, and the erection of statues of him. He is memorialized at the Martin Luther King Jr. Center for Social Justice in Atlanta. The Martin Luther King Jr. National Historic Site also includes his birthplace, his church, and the King Center, and his birthday is a national holiday.

Education and civil rights were important to King. He encouraged college students that the highest calling was to become a dedicated fighter for civil rights, which will make their career more enjoyable and profitable. King firmly believed that the Gandhian philosophy of nonviolent resistance was the only logical and moral approach to solving the race problem in America. King gained his desire to fight racism early in life, when he wrote on the subject for a statewide speech contest in high school and to the press in college. Education was the route to a better life, and the failure to effectively educate young Blacks would be condemning these young people to a life of poverty and despair. His experience as a 15-year-old migrant farm worker in the tobacco fields of Connecticut for a summer led him to believe that a college education should not provide students with an opportunity to exploit the masses.

As stated in an old Negro spiritual, “Do Lord Remember Me,” Martin Luther King Jr. will be remembered as the country’s greatest civil rights leader and the world’s greatest public speaker.

—Frank Brown

See also affirmative action; Afrocentric theories; Black education; civil rights movement; critical race theory; desegregation, of schools; diversity; equality, in schools

Further Readings and References

KNOWLEDGE, PRACTICAL

Educational administration is a field imbued with practical knowledge. Historically, practice precedes and shapes scholarship: the construction of the schoolhouse antedates the construction of scholarship about its organization and administration. Accenting the formative role practice has played historically and conceptually in the generation of knowledge in educational administration, Mark Holmes argued in 1986 that education administration is similar to industrial engineering in that both are concerned with applied knowledge. Although somewhat overstated, Holmes’s remark captures the claim that the very raison d’être of educational administration is to produce knowledge that is practical in nature.
In accordance with the origins of the field and its concordant emphasis upon applied knowledge, it is not surprising that practice has historically enjoyed pride of place in educational administration and has only gradually and occasionally grudgingly made room for scholarly inquiry and basic research. The ambivalent attitude with which practitioners receive the analyses, critiques, and recommendations offered by their university colleagues is complemented by the fact that those who work as researchers and scholars often fail to understand why their best efforts to provide tools for insight and improvement are not more warmly received. The persistent unease between practitioner and scholar, and the lingering division between the field and the academy, reflect a fundamental and pervasive ambivalence about the kind of knowledge—practical or theoretical—that should guide educational administration. In a discipline that unevenly combines the distinctive elements of scholarship, training, and practice, it is perhaps inevitable that the tension between practical and theoretical knowledge can appear irresoluble.

Given the contemporary feel of this tension, it may seem odd to turn to Aristotle for a discussion of how a reconsideration of what constitutes knowledge may help to bridge the gap that so often separates practitioner from scholar. This being said, Aristotle’s understanding of phronèsis—practical knowledge, practical reasoning, or practical wisdom—is both compelling and apt. In the Nicomachean Ethics, Aristotle presents a vivid discussion of practical and theoretical knowledge and how each contributes differently to the achievement of what he regards as the ultimate human ends of happiness (eudaimonia) and living well (eu zên). While the Nicomachean Ethics contains many themes that have implications for educational administration, the most pertinent for present purposes is Aristotle’s discussion of how practical knowledge can contribute concretely to the realization of the good life. Those engaged in research and practice in educational administration would, of course, seek to establish the good life in the places we call schools.

In segregating and justifying different forms of knowledge, Aristotle distinguishes between epistêmê, or theoretical knowledge, and phronèsis, practical knowledge. Where the former is centered upon a life of contemplation, theoría, which is intellectually nourished by abstract knowledge, the latter focuses upon a life of discerning action, praxis, which is learned through engagement in practical affairs. In contrast to epistêmê and theoría, which are removed from the flux of daily life, phronèsis and praxis are immersed in the immediate and variegated world of experience, decision, and action.

Although Aristotle’s philosophy is a thoroughly teleological system in which ends prefigure and order means, his discussion of practical knowledge gives special emphasis to a form of knowledge making that is neither predetermined by final principles nor dictated by abstract logic. On the contrary, phronèsis is an extemporaneous form of knowledge making that is continuous with action and arises within the multiple and unpredictable contingencies manifested in situation and circumstance. Unlike epistêmê, which, as noted above, realizes universal and unchanging truths through the mind’s direct apprehension of ideas unspoiled by worldly contingencies, phronèsis is actualized in individual encounters with the vicissitudes of event. Practical reasoning is tested in the making of concrete decisions amidst the turbulence and uncertainties characteristic of the protean and incompletely comprehended world of human experience. Because phronèsis informs practices concerned with worldly particulars, it is impossible to become expert in it through the cloistered study of incorporeal principles abstracted from worldly experience.

But how will phronèsis represent and order the mutable and indefinite circumstances that compose the endless irregularities and uncertainties of life? The answer is made memorable by Aristotle’s metaphor of the lead rule, which, because of its malleability, can accurately represent the form of irregular objects: Prefiguring the pragmatists, Aristotle suggests that in experiential matters, practical wisdom is superior to theoretical knowledge, which because of its fixity is unable to make sense of circumstantial irregularities.

In presenting his thoughts on practical knowledge, Aristotle begins to effect a reconciliation between the nature of human reality and the desire for a form of knowledge that is capable of guiding action. In accepting the shifting and stochastic nature of lived experience—whether it is the experience of the polis or the life of the school—Aristotle argues that knowledge need not be sacrificed to contingency. On the contrary, in arguing for a wisdom that is suffused with practicality, Aristotle defines a form of knowledge suited to the complexities and unpredictabilities of experience and to the necessities of decision making.

In seeking to reconcile the divide that separates practitioners and scholars in the contemporary social
sciences, particularly psychology, Donald Polkinghorne advocated building upon the Aristotelian idea of practical knowledge in 1992. He outlined an encompassing epistemological stance that avoids the theory-based assumption that knowledge should be ordered by scientifically discoverable, objectively secured, systemically integrated, and generalizable principles that have predictable effects, regardless of circumstance and setting. The tacit assumptions of this epistemology of practice are (a) there is no epistemological ground on which the indubitable truth of knowledge statements can be established, (b) a body of knowledge consists of fragments of understanding, not a system of logically integrated statements, (c) knowledge is a construction built out of cognitive schemes and embodied interactions with the environment, and (d) the test of a knowledge statement is its pragmatic usefulness in accomplishing a task, not its derivation from an approved set of methodological rules.

This epistemology of practice defines knowledge as a humanly made, iterative, and fallible construction that finds continuous revision in the light of ongoing experience. By providing a contemporary and pragmatic definition of Aristotle’s leaden rule, Polkinghorne outlined an existentially grounded epistemological alternative to the search for universal principles capable of governing human experience. In doing so, he suggested how educational administration as well as other applied social science disciplines might develop a form of practical knowledge that is both pertinent and compelling for scholars, practitioners, and those that they would serve.

—Martin Barlosky

See also Aristotle; contingency theories; empiricism; idealism, as philosophy in education; knowledge base, of the field; leadership, situational; organizational theories; pragmatism and progressivism

Further Readings and References


Perhaps the earliest educational leadership knowledge base appeared in William Payne’s 1875 book on school supervision, which called for a science to support the art school leadership. William Torrey Harris’s introduction to Payne stressed a phenomenological approach to school administration, because both physical and sociological characteristics of schools can be differentiated over time and place. From the very beginning, the theory-practice debate was engaged. Harris’s perspective was supported in 1929 by John Dewey, who stipulated that an educational science could only be developed within practice contexts. Alternatively, Jesse Newlon argued in 1934 that administration should become an applied social science. By the 1950s, social science theories and methods were ascendant in educational leadership programs, based in part on the 1954 National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, which focused on theory in educational leadership research, and in part on the work of Roald Campbell.

Jack Culbertson’s 1988 review of the quest for a knowledge base posited that knowledge shares the same fate as bread: Both can become old or stale. In 1975, T. B. Greenfield had argued that scholars of organization instead should turn from logical positivism and embrace interpretive modes of inquiry. Robert Donmoyer updated Culbertson’s quest in 1999, highlighting scholarship on curriculum, educational evaluation, and educational psychology that he depicted as supportive of T. B. Greenfield’s views.

A significant player in the knowledge base quest, the National Policy Board of Educational Administration,
a consortium of 10 school administration-related organizations, in 1989 proposed seven categories of knowledge that all practitioners should understand: (1) societal and cultural influences on schooling, (2) teaching and learning processes and school improvement, (3) organizational theory, (4) methodologies of organizational studies and policy analysis, (5) leadership and management processes and functions, (6) policies studies and politics of education, and (7) moral and ethical dimension of schooling. Subsequently, the 10-year efforts by the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) in developing PRIMUS, a set of documents organized around the seven categories listed above, and goals articulated for the next 10 years, displayed little sensitivity to earlier critiques.

While scholars have not ignored changes in the larger intellectual landscape, they have not been successful in refining research and inquiry in educational leadership. Others claim that a knowledge base (either traditional or nontraditional) is a myth perpetuated by educational administration academics to maintain both position and status in the university. Still others argue for practical or technical knowledge about what works and what makes things work, typically captured in narrative form through processes quite different from ways that theoretical knowledge is derived by testing of hypotheses or propositions. Yet another perspective, a utilitarian problem-based methodology, requires that researchers deliberate with practitioners, policymakers, and other stakeholders about problem definition so that the products of research are relevant and usable by practitioners.

The issues now include (a) what elements constitute the knowledge base in educational leadership, (b) how can this knowledge best be used in the preparation of school leaders to promote effective learning and practice, and (c) how can this knowledge base support claims for professional standing. To address these issues, four current perspectives on the knowledge base in educational leadership are explored below: (1) discipline-based knowledge, (2) morals and values in school leadership, (3) organizing schools as learning communities, and (4) accomplishments as a reframing concept.

1. **Discipline-based knowledge.** Knowledge in educational administration developed in “university-evolved disciplines,” and specializations within educational administration grew out of preexisting disciplines in the university. Reviews of professional knowledge generally reflect this organizational principle, as do many faculty positions in educational leadership. This disciplinary perspective means that to improve the knowledge base, more and better theory and research in those categories is needed.

2. **Morals and values in school leadership.** Because all work in schools is essentially moral, principals’ decisions have uncertain consequences, differentially benefit some groups, and require difficult choices among competing interests and values. Such choices can be contextualized best by moral, legal, historical, and philosophical arguments, democratic enculturation and community democratization. These are, accordingly, essential foci for the profession of school leadership, and the promised generation of knowledge for and in practice, elevation of practice and results, reinterpretation of science-based research, and reconceptions of the preparation of students for practice.

3. **Knowledge in community.** Organizing schools as learning communities has shown potential, particularly for student learning, and suggests that building long-term systemic relationships, having long-term perspectives, and understanding of the interdependence of school and community can lead to “sustainable” learning communities. Thus, schools that provide time for teachers, for example, to work and reflect together can build learning communities that focus on collective inquiry, collaborative action, and enhanced professionalism. Collective inquiry, for example, can be strengthened by more democratic forms of governance in which “responsible parties”—composed of administrators, teachers, parents, and community members—lead the school community in improvement efforts. More sustained collaborations are possible in learning communities, but they require continuous information sharing and relationship building, and trust building is a necessary but often difficult task. The community perspective promises to articulate how knowledge is created and shared in schools, the role that knowledge generation plays in improving school outcomes, and ways that engagement in learning communities can be developed, nurtured, and sustained.

4. **Accomplishment as a reframing concept.** Another way to view knowledge is research on performance improvement. For example, views of organizational performance in terms of the accomplishments
have value for the organization as it pursues its goals. In schools, accomplishments are the positive results that schools and their leaders strive to achieve in fostering student learning. Accomplishments reference the school’s major processes for supporting student learning, and focus leader attention on the results that are achieved and what schools can control. This perspective requires an eclectic and pragmatic knowledge base, organized around accomplishments, with clear success criteria but multiple action strategies that draw on information and knowledge from many sources and research traditions, including ethical and critical reasoning, legal reasoning, social science theory and research, and craft knowledge. Thus, each of these knowledge areas, coupled with the outcomes-oriented accomplishment framework, help principals and others understand and act on the major challenges facing their schools toward improved student learning.

While the direct focus of each of these approaches to the knowledge base in educational administration varies, they generally are complementary, particularly as their orientation is inclusive. The key issue for knowledge in educational administration is that voiced years ago by Jean Hills in 1978: Can this knowledge be used to solve problems of practice such that the focus of schooling—the learning of all students—is continuously advanced?

—Connie Fulmer and Rodney Muth

See also contextual knowledge; Culbertson, Jack; Dewey, John; Greenfield, Thomas Barr; Halpin, Andrew William; Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium; knowledge, practical; standard setting; superintendency; theory movement, in educational administration; universities, preparation of educational leaders in; University Council for Educational Administration; women in educational leadership

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KUHN, THOMAS

Thomas Kuhn (1922–1996) had a direct impact on the philosophy and practice of education and educational leadership due to his study of paradigms, their role in understanding phenomena, and their relationship to change and the change process. His work helped educators understand the how and why of differing professional perspectives and the revolutionary nature of scientific, organizational, and philosophical progress.

Kuhn was professor of philosophy and the history of science at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, in 1922. He earned his PhD from Harvard in 1949. He taught at Harvard but was denied tenure in 1955 because he was not an expert in anything. Afterward, he taught at the University of California-Berkeley, Princeton, and the New York Institute for the Humanities before joining the MIT faculty in 1979. From 1983 to 1991, he held the Lawrence Rockefeller Professorship in Philosophy.

Kuhn’s major work, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, is one of the most frequently quoted and cited works in science in the twentieth century. In this
text, a seminal work on the nature of scientific theory and how it changes, Kuhn articulated the concepts of paradigms and paradigm shifts, their importance to theory, and how they influence both thought and practice.

According to Kuhn, professions, professional thought, and professional practice are dominated by a major paradigm—or model—that explains relationships and prescribes actions. Paradigms allow for logical consideration of problems but limit consideration of possible solutions. Anomalies, according to Kuhn, events that the existing paradigm cannot account for, accumulate and eventually cause the paradigm to collapse. As a new paradigm begins to gain acceptance, the profession enters a revolutionary period in which the two different models compete for dominance. Defenders of the old paradigm who cannot or will not adapt eventually retire, and the new paradigm dominates the profession. In essence, the paradigm changes or shifts to provide a more accurate explanation of the profession’s worldview.

Kuhn’s concept of “incommensurability” underlies his thesis that growth and change in any profession do not proceed by a steady, cumulative acquisition of knowledge, but rather by long periods of intellectual peace punctuated by intellectually violent revolution. Therefore, a new paradigm cannot be established with the old paradigm as a foundation. The new can only supplant the old.

Given this position, professionals in any field accept what they have been taught and apply this knowledge to solving the problems they face. These problems cannot be addressed outside of the limits such bias imposes. Kuhn holds that objectivity, free thought, and skepticism, all necessary components for logical, rational thought, are absent in our consideration of such problems.

Kuhn’s work has influenced the area of leadership most profoundly in addressing varying individual perspectives, effective communication, conflict resolution, and change management. His major contributions, beyond the concepts of paradigms and paradigm shifts, were a focus on the context of any paradigm and the consideration of thinking about how we think.

—J. M. Blackbourn

See also knowledge base, of the field; objectivity; paradigm; postmodernism; pragmatism and progressivism; research methods

Further Readings and References

