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Researchers have concluded that while most administrators would like to involve families, many do not know how to build partnerships and are fearful of trying.

ENHANCING FAMILY–SCHOOL PARTNERSHIPS: An Administrator's Role

Mary DeLuccie and Sally Yahnke and Janice R. Wissman

A distraught parent calls her child's former Head Start teacher and tells her of an experience she had the evening before at her son's first grade Open House. "In front of a group of other parents and children," she says, "the teacher told me and my son that he was not ready for school because he didn't bring two notebooks with him the first day. She didn't give me a chance to explain that the school box we received through social services only contained one notebook, and I couldn't afford to buy a second one yet. I'm so mad and embarrassed that I really don't care if my son even goes to school. I know I'm not going back. This teacher sure doesn't care about me or my son—not the way you did."

This may not be an isolated incident. "The sad fact is that in many instances parents don't feel as if we welcome them in school" according to Anthony Geiger, past President of the National Education Association (Education Daily, 1994). Yet, schools that help families feel welcome and show them how to improve learning at home are likely to have more support from parents and more highly motivated students (Epstein, 1991).

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Observations from Research

A significant body of research has documented the importance of parent involvement in their child's educational experiences. In a thorough review of the research, Meier (1978) reported benefits for both parents and children achieved through parent participation in the child's education. Parents who participated in their child's early education program exhibited a greater sensitivity to their children's emotional, social, and intellectual development and needs; higher levels of acceptance and understanding of their child as an individual; greater enjoyment in rearing their child; demonstrated more warmth and affection in childrearing; used less restrictive language; and, appealed to children through encouragement and reasoning rather than demands and threats. Correspondingly, children with involved parents were reported to be more aware and responsive; better able to solve problems; and, more advanced in language, social, emotional and cognitive development than other children.

Children have also been described as more well-behaved and more diligent in their attempts to learn (Lyons, Robbins, & Smith, 1983), earning better grades, having higher homework completion rates, holding more positive behavior and attitudes, and enrolling in post-secondary education at higher rates (Henderson & Berla, 1994) when parents participated in their child's school activities.

Although most of the studies of parent involvement have focused on parents and younger children, the benefits of involvement extend far beyond the preschool and elementary years (Henderson, 1987). Research has shown that factors that parents can control—student absenteeism, accessibility of reading materials in the home, and extent of television viewing—account for nearly 90% of the difference in the average state-by-state performance of eighth-graders' mathematics test scores among 37 states and the District of Columbia (Barton & Coley, 1992).

Nearly twenty years ago, a Gallup (1979) poll assessed the relationships among parents, communities, and schools. The recommendations for improving these relationships by enhancing communication, offering more parent–teacher conferences, inviting parents and other community members to volunteer in the schools, and planning special community-wide occasions are still valid today. And, more than decade after the "Nation at Risk" report stressed the vital role that parents play in their children's development, parent–school partnerships still haven't received the attention merited (U. S. Department of Education, 1994). More recently, an eighth National Education Goal was added to the Goals 2000 project: By the Year 2000 . . . every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children.

The importance of effective linkages of home and school has prompted professional organizations as well as the U.S. Department of Education to promote home–school collaboration. According to the Association of Childhood Education International, "We believe that teachers and parents need to establish a stronger bond with one another. . . . Closer contact between parents and teachers will give each a more complete picture of the child's abilities and improve consistency in working toward desired goals. Most important perhaps, the child will identify both the school and the home as places to learn, and parents and teachers as sources of learning" (Urmansky, 1983, pp. 263–4).

The U.S. Department of Education's book 'What Works' emphasizes a curriculum for the home, specifically identifying things parents can do at home to help their children succeed in school. It states: "Conversation is important. Children learn to read, reason, and understand things better when their parents read, talk and listen to them; tell them stories, play games, share hobbies; and discuss the news, television programs, and

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special events" (U. S. Department of Education, 1986, p. 7). The report continues that enrichment of the home environment can occur through the provision of books, a special place for studying, observing a daily routine for meals, bedtime, and homework, and monitoring the child's use of time. According to the report, parents can stay informed about their children's lives at school by discussing what happens at school, helping children meet school deadlines, and talking with children about school issues.

The NASBE Early Childhood Education Task Force (1988) emphasizes that partnerships with parents are multilateral relationships in which both teachers and parents share information in a reciprocal fashion. "Only through a sincere respect for the parental role can teachers begin to see parents as a source of support for their work and will some parents overcome the suspicion and resistance to approaching educators that they may have developed from their own school experiences" (p. 19). They recommend promoting an environment where parents are valued as essential partners in education; enhancing parents' self-esteem through positive school interactions; and, assuring opportunities and access for parents to volunteer and observe in the classroom.

Parent involvement in education is not a new trend. Our public school system was founded by parents and civic minded allies in community and national leadership positions. Preparing educated children able to build and maintain a strong society and providing education for all children, even those of poor immigrant families, were early goals of public education. Not only were these early schools developed by parents, they were run by local community school boards consisting of lay people. Yet only recently has contemporary parent involvement practice expanded to include parent participation in school planning and governance, and in parent education programs, reflecting the trend toward more interactive forms of parent involvement, in which parents both initiate school policy and receive school services (Murphy, 1991).

The legal mandate for parent participation in their children's education became clear with the passage of Public Law 94–142 which required parental input and approval in the development of Individualized Education Plans for special education students. In 1986, P.L. 99-457 provided incentive grants to states to develop early intervention programs for children aged 0–3 years with special needs. An interdisciplinary team, including parents, is required to provide individualized family service plans (Heward & Orlansky, 1988).

This broadened focus on the family's role in a child's education acknowledges that the child's development can be affected both directly and indirectly by what happens outside the school. Bronfenbrenner's (1989) ecological framework considers children's environments as nested within interconnected settings which in turn are embedded in increasingly larger contexts. In this perspective, relationships across children's settings (e.g., home, school) and even settings not directly experienced by the child (e.g., parent's workplace) are important influences on child development. The model postulates that all these settings are nested within the larger cultural milieu. Increasingly, the schools are acknowledging the potential impact of these multiple, connected systems on children's development. Schools are now becoming more integrated into communities (e.g., community resource centers by providing access to health clinics, child care, and parenting programs). It is not uncommon for schools to refer students and their families to social service agencies when external factors affect a child's ability to learn in school.

Relying on theory and their own professional experiences, teachers are calling for more parental involvement. Many educators have identified greater parental involvement as the number one priority for improving education (Chira, 1993). In a survey of more than 21,000 elementary and secondary teachers, sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1988), 90% of the respondents felt that they received little parent support and that the lack of support contributed to students' poor performances. Teachers reported a desire for parents to attend parent–teacher conferences, supervise homework, stress the importance of education to their children, read to children frequently, take their children on outings to cultural facilities and museums, visit the classroom, and volunteer for school activities.

In the Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (Harris, 1987), a randomly selected sample of more than 1,000 teachers and 2,000 parents recognized the need for home–school partnerships. Three-fourths of the teachers wanted parents to be more involved with their child's school activities and nearly the same number of parents reported wanting to be more involved in their child's education. In this research, higher SES parents, those with some college education and parents having elementary school-aged children, reported the highest level of involvement with their children's school. Inner-city parents, single parents, and parents of secondary school children desired a more active role in school but felt they did not receive enough attention from the schools. Overall results showed a decrease in parent involvement in their child's school as children progressed from elementary to secondary schools. There was a concomitant rise in levels of parent dissatisfaction about the amount of contact they had with the schools. Illustratively 60% of the parents, especially low income and minority parents, expressed interest in the development of newsletters and hotlines to keep them informed about the school and children's homework. Yet fewer than half of the teachers believed these strategies were helpful. According to Harris, "home–school links strongly affect teachers' job satisfaction, and job satisfaction strongly impacts on the likelihood of staying in or leaving the profession" (p. 1).

Parents also benefit from being involved in their child's education. Involved parents develop a greater appreciation for their role in their child's education, a heightened sense of self-esteem, stronger social networks, and even the desire to continue their own education. They also come to understand more about their schools and teaching and learning in general (Henderson & Berla, 1994).

Research shows that, regardless of race, class, or educational background, parents believe their children will benefit from their involvement with the children's schools (Martilla & Kiley, 1995). It has also been demonstrated that school practices are more influential than family characteristics (e.g., parental education, socioeconomic status, marital status, family size, or student grade level) in determining whether or not parents get involved (Dauber & Epstein, 1993). Nevertheless for many reasons (Finders & Lewis, 1994) most parents do not regularly participate in school activities, communicate regularly with teachers, or attend parent–teacher conferences.

Today, fewer than 70% of the young people in the United States graduate from high school; minority children have even lower graduation rates (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny, & Pardo, 1992). Furthermore, many children who do complete high school may not be able to read beyond the eighth grade level (Kozol, 1991). While the reasons for such outcomes are varied, it is certain that parents and teachers working separately will not be able to solve the problems.

Parents know their children intimately and have much valuable information to share with teachers. Teachers are knowledgeable about child development and have experiences with children which makes them important resources for parents. Both are primarily concerned with the optimal growth and development of the child, and this common bond makes teachers and parents important allies. Home–school collaboration is

more likely to achieve positive results when teachers bear the responsibility for developing and fostering this collaboration because parents often wait to be approached by the schools (Rotter, 1987).

Barriers to Partnerships

If parental involvement does make a difference, then why haven't partnerships to encourage this involvement been formed? There are several barriers to the development of parental involvement in school, many relating to aspects of modern life. Shartrand, Kreider, & Erickson–Warfield (1994) identified the following barriers:

- **School environments may discourage parental involvement.**

  Historically, schools have placed little value on the views and participation of parents (National Task Force on School Readiness, 1991). Teachers do not systematically encourage parent participation and parents do not always participate when they are encouraged (Shartrand, Kreider, & Erickson–Warfield, 1994). This is especially problematic at the secondary level. The quality and quantity of parental involvement decreases as children get older and contacts become negative as students enter secondary school. Also, teachers do not have the time and training to develop partnerships with parents. Most teachers say that although they would like to work more with families and parents, they simply do not have the time (U.S. Department of Education, 1994).

- **Not all types of parent involvement are equally acceptable to both parents and teachers.**

  Teachers and administrators have become more comfortable with traditional parent involvement activities, such as having parents support school programs and attend meetings, while parents are more often interested in advocacy and decision making (Chavkin & Williams, 1985). Strong home–school partnerships will be further inhibited with these differing expectations.

- **Teachers and parents often have negative attitudes toward parental involvement.**

  Teachers often believe that parents are not qualified or interested in the education of their children. Historically, educators have viewed parents as the source of their children's problems (Sussell, Carr, & Hartman, 1996). In the 1880's, advocates of public education argued that public schools were necessary to counteract the negative influence of families (Ferguson and Ferguson, 1987). Parents may be intimidated by the schools and not able to help educate their children. Teachers can also be intimidated by the prospect of working with parents, especially if they lack experience and training in developing partnerships with parents.

- **Changing demographic and employment patterns may further complicate the development of strong home–school partnerships.**

  The changing student population in many of our schools may mean that parents and teachers come from different cultural and economic backgrounds therefore, making the partnership difficult from the beginning (Murphy, 1991). Also, the changing structure of today's families and the need for dual income families may mean there is less time for school involvement (Swap, 1990; Elkind, 1994).

- **There is evidence of a lack of teacher preparation to effectively involve parents.**

  Concrete skills, knowledge, and positive attitudes about parental involvement are needed for teachers to be effective in developing partnerships with parents. Few teachers come to their positions prepared to work with parents. According to a 1994 study by the Harvard Family Project, Shartrand, Kreider, & Erickson–Warfield found that the majority of state departments of education do not mention parent involvement in their teacher education certification requirements. The study also surveyed the largest teacher preparation programs in 22 (out of 51) states where parental involvement was mentioned in preservice certification requirements. The investigation revealed that in these cases, the majority of courses were traditional in definition, teaching methods and delivery.

These barriers that exist in our schools today can be eliminated if parents and schools begin to work together to provide the best educational experience for students.

Models for the Development of Partnership Programs

Educational reform has contributed to expanding the definition of parent involvement. Goals 2000 emphasized the importance of expanding these roles and encouraging the development of school and parental partnerships. Parent involvement varies depending on the community, the school, and the relationship between them. Traditionally, parents have provided children with support, supervision, and instruction at home; communicated with the school; attended parent teacher conferences and school events; and volunteered in the classroom (Epstein, 1986). Various programs have been developed to redefine the involvement or the development of partnerships with parents.

James Comer has worked to reform schools that serve poor and minority students. Comer believes for these schools to be effective, parents must play a major role in all aspects of school life (Davies, 1991). This must take place in a democratic setting with teachers, specialists, parents, and students working together to promote the social, emotional, and academic growth of students.

Based upon nearly two decades of research at Johns Hopkins University, Joyce Epstein has proposed a research-based framework of six types of parental/family involvement. This framework includes parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, decision making and collaborating with the community. The framework helps educators develop comprehensive programs of school and family partnerships (Epstein, 1995).

Harry Levin developed an accelerated school model that sets specific achievement goals for all children to meet by the end of elementary school (Davies, 1991). The program emphasizes a comprehensive change in curriculum, instruction organization, and school management. Parents play central roles both as resource people and decision makers in Levin's model.

Don Davies (1991) has identified three common themes that have central importance to all programs developing school and parental partnerships. They are:

- **Providing success for all children.** No child should be labeled as a failure because of the social, economic, or racial characteristics of their families or communities.
- **Serving the whole child.** To develop cognitive and academic development, all facets of development (social, emotional, and physical) must be addressed by schools, families and other institutions that impact the child.
- **Sharing responsibility.** In order to promote the social and academic development of children, parents, schools and communities must work together to change their practices and relationships with one another for the best interest of children.

These themes have been addressed in programs across the country to provide the best learning opportunity for all students. They are themes that should be remembered as parents, schools, and communities begin to work together in the development of partnerships.

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There is no one formula for success. Each community and school must find the connections that respond to the complexity, demographics, history, and needs of their students (Wiley, 1994). An environment needs to be created in schools where teachers and staff make parents feel like full partners who are recognized for their strengths and potential. For partnerships to work, there must be mutual time and respect developed between teachers, administrator, staff, students, parents and the community. These stakeholders in education need to develop an ongoing exchange of information, work together to reach agreement on goals and strategies, and develop shared rights and responsibilities as the partnership is developed.

The Administrator's Role

The role of administrators in the development and implementation of school–family partnerships cannot be overemphasized. Before implementing specific strategies, however, administrators first must be committed to partnerships as a way to enhance educational opportunities for all children, recognize that the development of partnerships is a process, and be proactive in removing barriers that inhibit partnerships.

Some say the way schools care about children is reflected in the way schools care about the children's families. While it is possible for a school with an excellent academic reputation to ignore families, it is also possible to find a school that involves parents and families to be academically ineffective. The former school builds barriers between teachers, parents, and children; the latter school shortchanges students' learning. A truly caring educational environment is characterized by academic excellence, positive communication, and productive interactions involving the school, family, students, and community (Epstein, 1995; U. S. Department of Education, 1994).

Administrators who think of partnerships as a process rather than a single event will be patient when assessing the results. Epstein (1995) reminds educators that positive partnerships, like other school enhancement initiatives including science, math, and reading programs, take time to develop, require periodic review, and should be continuously improved.

As previously discussed, there are a variety of barriers that inhibit positive family–school partnerships. Since many of the barriers are associated with long-standing rules and traditions, those administrators who understand the nature of change within a system (the school in this case) will have an advantage in designing strategies that address these barriers. Take, for example, two administrators who wish to increase the number of parents attending school functions. One principal who perceives that parents never pay attention to communication from school, asks teachers to send parents reminders in addition to the usual invitations. If the attendance is poor, the principal may conclude parents are apathetic and go on to use the same strategy year after year. Another principal, on the other hand, changes the event from a week-day evening to a Saturday morning, provides child care, arranges transportation, and designs a buddy system whereby parents invite other parents. Rosenthal and Sawyers (1996) describe the first example where the reminders were added to the usual action as "first-order change" in that it only appears that something different was tried while the same basic rules or methods were used. The last example is called "second-order change" or real change in that it required alteration of the rules or methods of doing things. In this case, the principal was required to recognize parents' strengths that can be tapped by being flexible with rules and methods instead of thinking of parents as having faults.

Researchers have concluded that while most administrators would like to involve families, many do not know how to go about building partnerships and are fearful of trying. Epstein (1995) describes this situation where administrators express support for partnerships without taking any action as a "rhetoric rut." At the same time, administrators working alone cannot create lasting, comprehensive partnerships that involve families.

Partnership Strategies

One useful structure that has proved successful for planning partnerships is an Action Team for School, Family, and Community Partnerships in each school. In some schools, the Action Team is actually an "action arm" of a school council. The team is responsible for reviewing current partnerships and practices, organizing new partnerships, implementing new activities, and coordinating and evaluating partnerships. Those who have worked with action teams recommend that the team include teachers from differing grade levels, parents with children in different grade levels, an administrator, and an at-large community member. Students from different grade levels are suggested for middle and senior high school teams. At least one team member should serve on the school council, school improvement team or other such body. Overall, the Action Team serves to improve and systematize haphazard patterns of parental involvement (Epstein, 1995).

Among the various partnership strategies and programs described in the literature, Epstein's framework of six major types of involvement appears to be one of the most comprehensive partnership programs for administrators to consider. Following a general description of each type of involvement, we have included examples of practice and implementation challenges.

- *Parent Education* is built upon the premise that schools must provide families with information about topics such as parenting approaches, nutrition, health, safety, discipline and guidance. Some schools offer parent education through workshops, information-sharing groups, and video tapes. The challenge is to provide information to all families who need it and want it and not just to those who can attend a workshop.
- *Communicating* focuses on designing effective school-to-home and home-to-school communications about school programs and student progress. Examples include conferences, notices, memos, phone calls, newsletters, open-house functions and report cards. The challenges are to develop and clarify a two-way system of communication, get rid of jargon, address language barriers, and use new technology.
- *Volunteering* emphasizes recruiting and organizing assistance and support. Classroom volunteer programs and mentoring programs for students and other parents are examples. The challenges are to change the definition of volunteers to mean anyone who supports student goals or school learning any time, any place, and make hours flexible for volunteers who work during school days.
- *Learning at Home* focuses on providing information and ideas to families about how to help children at home with learning activities. Examples that encourage students and families to talk about school work at home include family math programs, interactive homework, and long-term projects. The challenge is to design a regular schedule of interactive work that encourages students and families to talk about homework.
- *Decision Making* involves parents in school decision making. Some schools have parent–teacher–student organizations, school advisory councils, or school site-based improvement teams. The challenge is to include students and parents from all racial, ethnic, geographic, and socio-economic groups.
- *Collaborating with Community* focuses on identification and integration of resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices,

and student learning and development. Sample practices include students, families, and schools providing service to the community. The challenges are to solve turf problems, find funding sources and staff, locate places for collaborative activities and inform families of community programs for all students (Epstein, 1995; National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1992).

Summary

Effective schools are characterized by strong leadership, an emphasis on academics, ongoing evaluation, a safe school climate and positive teacher–child relationships (Garbarino, Dubrow, Kostelny & Pardo, 1992). Yet, good home–school relations are also a primary ingredient of high quality schools (Epstein, 1995). A true partnership is "an association between a family and one or more professionals who function collaboratively using agreed upon roles in pursuit of a joint interest or a common goal" (Dunst & Paget, 1991, p. 25). The relationship is collaborative, with parent and teacher providing expertise; the partnership is based on mutual respect and involves complete sharing of information; and the powers of the partnership and the focus of decision-making are clear from the onset. The challenge is for administrators to create a climate that welcomes families into the school.

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Table 1. Reflective Thinking Models

PHILOSOPHY/PROPONENT	PERSPECTIVE/RATIONALE	MODES/PROCESS
Reflective Inquiry Model *Dewey*	Social issues and problems critically examined by applying a technical model of problem solving	1. A felt difficulty 2. Location & definition 3. Suggestion of possible solution 4. Development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion 5. Further observation & experimentation leading to acceptance or rejection
Model of Reflective Teaching *Eby & Kujawa*	Improvement of reflection-in-action through systematic inquiry; focus on skills process of reflection	Observation Reflection Gathering Data Considering moral principles Making a judgment Considering strategies Action
Levels of Reflection *Grimmett et al.*	Instrumental mediation of actions Deliberation among competing views Reconstruction of experiences	Technical Deliberative Dialectical
Theory of Cognitive Interests *Habermas*	Explore education through a theoretical knowledge base Fundamental justification & legitimatization of common practices Self-understanding, emancipatory learning & critical consciousness	Emperical-analytical Hermeneutic-phenomenological Critical-theoretical
Pedagogical Functioning *Lasley*	Use of instructional management approaches Fuse theory with practice Critically assess educational practice	Technical Conceptual Dialectical
Peer Collaboration Framework *Pugach & Johnson*	Provides for joint construction of problematic classroom situations through the process of dialogue	Reframing through clarifying questions Problem summarization Generation and Prediction Evaluation and Reconsideration
Reflective Thinking *Schön*	Problem-centered approach which utilizes past experience, theory, and the practitioner's value system	Reflection-in-Action 1. Problematic situation 2. Frame/reframe the problem 3. Experimentation 4. Review consequences/implementation
Orientations to Reflective Thinking *Sparks–Langer, Colton, Pasch & Starko*	Knowledge & process of decision-making Focuses on dilemmas of teaching and social outcomes Teacher description of circumstance under which decision are made; gain a better understanding of teaching phenomena	Cognitive Critical Narrative
Images of Teaching *Valli*	Non-reflective, technical Technical within a reflective context Moral, ethical, & social in a nonreflective mode Reflection of social & moral aspects	Technical rationality Practical decision-making Inculcation/indoctrination Moral reflection 1. Deliberative 2. Relational 3. Critical
Levels of Reflectivity *Van Manen*	Methodological problems & theory development to achieve objectives Pragmatic placement of theory into practice Value commitment toward educational process	Technical rationality Deliberative rationality Critical rationality

guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material; (4) the mental elaboration of the idea or suppositions as an idea or supposition (*reasoning*, in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole, of inference); and (5) testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action. (p. 107)

If the action was not appropriate, the reflective thinker moved into a second action that would solve the problem or put the learner back into a reflective stage. Dewey considered problem identification and setting as pre-reflective while the resolution of the problem was post-reflective. Resolution of problems was an ultimate goal predicated on past experiences and prior knowledge.

Meaningful observation was advocated by Dewey (1910). Observation was not an end in and of itself, but an active process of deliberate exploration concerned with mastering the

unknown. Observation served as a link between the current and the past. Beginning observations helped to determine the nature of problems forming a link between what is observed, past experiences and prior knowledge. At the end, observations assisted with testing the value of hypothetical conclusions. Experimentation was the result of observations formed by varying situations on the basis of theory or ideas.

Systematic observation led to systematic inference in the form of logical reasoning. Dewey (1910) defined the reciprocal movement between inductive and deductive reasoning as "the recognition of definite relations of interdependence between considerations previously unorganized and disconnected, this recognition being brought about by the discovery and insertion of new facts and properties" (p. 81). Discovery and insertion of new facts and properties was a result of observation and inference. Movement toward the suggestion or hypothesis was referred to as inductive discovery and linked to synthesis. Movement back to facts was referred to as deductive proof or testing and likened to analysis. Dewey contended "analysis leads to synthesis; while synthesis perfects analysis" (p. 115). The reciprocal movement between induction and deduction fostered a secondary goal of structuring and implementing subsequent systematic inquiry.

In nurturing and sustaining reflective thinking habits, Dewey (1933) advocated three attitudes: open-mindedness, which enhanced intellectual receptiveness to multiple perspectives; whole-heartedness which resulted in commitment to the resolution of a problem; and intellectual responsibility where reflective practitioners considered both short and long-term effects of resolution. The development of open-mindedness required that individuals appraise underlying rationales ordinarily taken for granted. For Dewey, the value of reflective thought

> emancipates us from merely impulsive and merely routine activity . . . thinking enables us to direct our activities with foresight and to plan according to end-in-view, or purposes of which we are aware. It enables us to act in deliberate and intentional fashion to attain future objects or to come into command of what is now distant and lacking. (p. 17)

Van Manen's Levels of Reflectivity

Van Manen (1977) criticized the use of scientific method advocated by Dewey (1910) relative to curriculum effectiveness. Concurring with Habermas's theory of cognitive interests (1970), Van Manen voiced concern regarding emphasis placed upon technical, causal purposes to education. Shortcomings evidenced by such a model were preoccupation with "measurement of learning outcomes, quantification of achievement, and the management of educational objectives" (Van Manen, p. 209) in lieu of looking at worthwhile and purposeful experiences that were best for students from a curricular standpoint. Hume (1955) offered that through such a past-oriented, technical model, skills, conceptions and knowledge was gained, which served as the foundation for subsequent growth in knowing. Functioning in such a technical, managerial sense was indicative of an empirical-analytical model of thinking (Habermas). Van Manen referred to the technical base level of reflectivity as technical rationality.

The hermeneutic-phenomenological mode raised the level of reflection according to Van Manen (1977). Focus at this deliberative level was on action rather than behavior. Concern was placed upon "making visible and understandable. . . the educational experiences, actions, and the changing perceptions and preconceptions of teachers, learners, and other participants of the curriculum process" (Van Manen, p. 214). Actions were analyzed and meanings, perceptions and assumptions were clarified. Key issues centered on communication and interpersonal understanding. Justification and legitimation, through value commitment of common practices, was also inherent in hermeneutic-phenomenological knowledge.

The third and highest level of reflectivity, according to Van Manen (1977), was critical reflection. Sharing ideas put forth by Habermas (1970), Van Manen offered that critical reflection "coincides with the progress in the autonomy of the individual, with the elimination of human misery, and with the facilitation of concrete happiness" (p. 220). As powerful as hermeneutics-phenomenological knowledge was in producing understanding, the mode lacked ways of dealing with distortions in communication and understanding (Habermas). A critical paradigm was suggested by Habermas (cited in Van Manen) which implied "a commitment to an unlimited inquiry, a constant critique, and a fundamental self-criticism that is most vital to the critical tradition he [the practitioner] furthers" (p. 221).

The critical approach fostered interpersonal and social conditions necessary for "understanding, emancipatory learning and critical consciousness" (Van Manen, p. 221). A deeper consciousness to social reality was evident. Questions of worthwhileness and the nature of knowing were included. Justice, equality, emancipation, and freedom were inherent in practitioners functioning at a critical level of reflectivity.

Schön's Reflection-in-Action

Schön (1983, 1987, 1991) collaborated Dewey's theories, adding that reflective practitioners augmented technical expertise with personal insight and professional artistry. Artistry involved problem framing and improvisation. Schön (1987) stated, "I have used the term professional artistry to refer to the kinds of competence practitioners sometimes display in unique, uncertain, and conflicting situations of practice" (p. 22). Professional artistry was manifested by knowing-in-action. Knowledge-in-action did not rely on conscious decision-making, but was inherent in spontaneous and automatic actions and based upon past experiences. Specialized skills were revealed in public actions, but were often unable to be verbalized. Cognitive activities were conducted without conscious realization which routinized action. Polanyi (1967) referred to such nonconscious activities as tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge was defined as knowledge which is not explicitly described or consciously thought about.

Schön (1983) suggested knowing-in-action developed from dual processes of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Examining nonlinear knowledge-in-action required reflection-in-action or reflection-on-action. Reflection allowed for critiquing and questioning of repetitive experiences brought about by routine actions. Reflection-in-action was the term used by Schön (1983, 1987) which referred to reflection while in the process of doing. "Reflection-in-action is a process with nonlogical features, a process that is prompted by experience and over which we have limited control" (Russell & Munby, 1991, p. 164). Reflection-in-action differed from knowing-in-action as elements of conscious thinking and questioning were incorporated into the thinking process. The process involved problem setting, framing or reframing, experimentation and conscious analysis of the consequences of the action. The entire process occurred while involved in action, which often caused changes in the current action. For instance, a practitioner reflected on the class's inability to determine a possible solution to a scientific inquiry. By looking at the situation in a different manner, reframing, the practitioner adjusted questions to cue students toward possible solutions. The practitioner created a gestalt shift or reframed a paradigm to allow for immediate adjustments in thought and action. Reframing was possible because of past experiences and knowledge which provided input into the thinking process. In reflection-in-action "doing and thinking are complementary. Doing extends thinking in the tests, moves, and probes of experimental action, and reflection

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feeds on doing and its results. Each feeds the other, and each sets boundaries for the other" (Schön, 1983, p. 289). Reflection-in-action varied with intent and longevity of the action. For example, practitioners reflected upon roles characterizing position in a given situation or incurred over a period of time.

Reflection-on-action, in contrast, referred to "the ordered, deliberate, and systematic application of logic to a problem in order to resolve it; the process is very much within our control" (Russell & Munby, 1991, p. 165). Reflection-on-action involved consideration of familiar data rather than reframing. Reflection on reflection-in-action produced the control and the systematic nature of reflection-on-action.

Schön (1991) suggested a three step process which moved practitioners from technical training to thinking professionally, to enabling them to develop new forms of understanding and action. Schön maintained that professionals do consciously reflect on actions, putting actions in the context of problem creating and problem solving. Reflection could be demonstrated when professionals thought about actions, beliefs, goals, and theories relative to current situations.

Schön (1983) also stressed that reflective practice was grounded in the appreciation system which included a repertoire of values, knowledge, theories and practices. Similarly, Valli (1990) and Liston and Zeichner (1987) advocated moral as well as educational criteria in examining solutions and possible implementation.

Dimensions of Reflection

Grimmett et al. (1990) grouped reflective practice into three dimensions: instrumental mediation of action, deliberation among competing views of teaching, and reconstruction of experience. Grimmett et al.'s dimensions of reflectivity corresponded to Habermas's (1970) three forms of knowledge: empirical-analytic, hermeneutic-phenomenological, and critical-theoretical. For each perspective the relationship between knowledge and reflection was considered in terms of source of knowledge, mode of knowing, and use to which knowledge was put as a result of the reflective process.

The first dimension, instrumental mediation of action, supported thoughtful, mediated action which leads to praxis and assists practitioners in replicating effective classroom practices corroborated by research. The knowledge source used to direct practice was externally presented in a technical mode by experts in the field. Reflective Teaching (Cruickshank, 1985) exemplified reflection at an instrumental level. Practitioners taught pre-established lessons with predetermined goals during a short time frame. Immediate feedback regarding technical skills exhibited in teaching was provided by the small numbers of peers to whom the teacher directed the lesson. Reflection in small and large group settings followed the teaching episode.

Grimmett et al.'s (1990) deliberative perspective was based upon choice among competing versions of good teaching. Deliberative practitioners attended to the context of events with the understanding that deliberation involved competing views of teaching and examination of those views relative to consequences and action. An external source of knowledge was presented, similar to reflection in an instrumental dimension, but understanding of the knowledge was mediated through colleagues and the context of the situation. The mode was deliberative using research knowledge in an "informed eclecticism" (Schwab, 1978) to enlighten practice rather than direct it. Practitioners referred to personal experiences which fit the current context for interpretation of problems and for determining meaning. The deliberative mode fostered free exchange of views among practitioners and valued feedback. Through deliberations, actions, and feedback, practitioners developed extensive repertoires of practical knowledge which Sanders and McCutcheon (1986) called practice-centered inquiry.

The third dimension defined by Grimmett et al. (1990) was reflection as reorganization or reconstruction of experience leading to action, self-as-teacher, and assumptions of teaching derived from a critical-theoretical basis. The degree of reconstruction to which the act of problem setting was problematic in and of itself was a key component of dialectic reflection. The source of knowledge was both contextual and the practical application of personal knowledge. A dialectical mode was based upon problems and subsequent reflection. Knowledge was emergent and metaphorical as practitioners framed, reframed, and reconstructed past understandings to generate new perspectives on puzzling situations. The purpose of the third perspective of reflective thinking was to transform teaching to a more educative experience consistent with practitioners' beliefs and values of effective practice.

Valli's Images of Teaching—A Moral Perspective

Valli (1990) researched reflection in teacher preparation models. Four approaches to reflection were determined: technical rationality, practical decision making, indoctrination, and moral reflection. Moral reflection was looked upon as being most critical in nature and, therefore, most desirable.

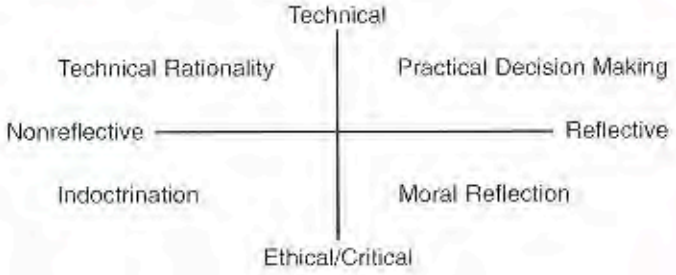
In determining the four images of teaching, Valli used a quadrant format. The horizontal axis held the dichotomous elements of nonreflective and reflective practice, while the vertical axis included the dichotomy of technical versus ethical/critical approaches (see Figure 1). Within the quadrant bounded by nonreflection and technical reflection was the technical rationality approach. Goals for technical rationality were to build principles and procedures which formed the basis for teaching and to help practitioners master knowledge and skills of teaching which fostered proficiency in performing basic tasks. Valli (1990) rejected the notion that a nonreflective, technical rationality approach was appropriate in teacher preparation for two reasons. First, teaching was too complex and situation specific to believe that through staff development practices alone, development of critical judgment by practitioners could take place. Secondly, Valli believed effective teaching to be a moral responsibility rather than a technical skill.

In the next quadrant, Valli (1990) included practical decision making which added reflection to the technical aspects of teaching. Pre-established goals were set which served as the basis for analysis of practitioner's actions and consequences of actions. Reflective Teaching (Cruickshank, 1985) was considered as a strategy within the practical decision making quadrant.

By making decisions on problematic situations found in classroom instruction, student motivation and classroom organization, practitioners framed and reframed problems found in the teaching–learning process. "The limitation of this approach to reflection and the reason it does not function as a comprehensive image of teaching is that it leaves the goals, social context, and . . . curriculum content of education unexamined" (Valli, p. 19). The practitioner was placed in a role of manager, rather than in a role of empowered educator.

Figure 1.

Valli's Reflective Thinking Model



Indoctrination was the third orientation to teacher preparation. Indoctrination, or inculcation, was nonreflective, yet critical. Practitioners trained with such a perspective held closed world views which were often imposed upon others (Valli, 1990). Indoctrination was considered to be nonreflective and noneducative limiting the examination of alternative perspectives by practitioners (Liston & Zeichner, 1987; Valli).

Valli (1990) considered moral reflection to be the approach of choice. Moral reflection was both reflective and critical in nature. Reflection was viewed as "a means toward the development of ethical judgments, strategic actions, and the realization of ethically important ends" (Liston & Zeichner, 1987, p. 127). Three approaches were found within moral reflection: deliberative, relational and critical. "Each is concerned with helping prospective teachers reflect on the moral aspects of teaching and assumes that educational decisions are inevitably based on beliefs, however tacit, about what is good or desirable" (Valli, p. 20). The deliberative approach encouraged thoughtful consideration of ethical decisions relevant to educational issues. Rightness of conduct and questioning of values were inherent in the deliberative approach (Tom, 1984). Key moral dimensions were practitioner/student relationships and the curriculum. Reflective practitioners in both instances viewed problems from a moral perspective, reasoning the most desirable means to an end which would be just and equitable based upon the practitioner's judgments and value system. The deliberative approach used long-range benefits to the student and the importance of the knowledge taught as the bases for judging moral practice. For a deliberative practitioner the morally right thing was making sound judgments while acknowledging legitimate differences.

The relational approach (Valli, 1990) was rooted in the natural relationship of mothering, subjective experience, and the uniqueness of human encounters. Like the preceding approach, moral deliberations were involved. Also inherent in Valli's relational approach were receptivity, relatedness and responsiveness. Relationships were more important than rationality and empathetic understanding more important than abstract principles. The primary goal was to help practitioners become caretakers of students. According to Noddings (1984), practitioners apprehended the reality of each student and gave importance to affective growth with less concern for academics. Those who cared about children (a) experienced a caring community through modeling, dialogue, practice and confirmation of such desirable qualities as meticulous preparation and constructive evaluation; (b) were encouraged to be autonomous decision makers through dialogue; (c) were provided practice in caring for and fidelity to persons; and (d) confirmed worthy motives and attainable images of moral educators (Valli). Relational capacities needed by caring practitioners included listening and responding to the cared-for, being engrossed in the other's reality, identifying individuals' growth needs, helping students find personal reasons for choices, and mutually struggling toward competence and ethical ideals. Practitioners would learn how to teach content, but would primarily learn how to live a caring ethic in the classroom "to induce an enhanced moral sense in the student" (Noddings, p. 179).

Primary content in a relational ethic was the practitioner's responsibility to individual students (Valli, 1990). Practitioners reflected upon, engaged in dialogue about, and practiced creating caring relations and communities. The relational approach evaluated moral choice according to benefits to the cared-for. Individual talents, aspirations, and personal desire superseded societal needs (Noddings, 1986). Caring practitioners assessed ethical practice by asking what effect choices had upon students and on the community.

The critical approach to reflective practice supported by Valli (1990) was derived from political philosophy, primarily Marxism. It explicitly treated schools and school knowledge as political with teacher preparation aimed at "critical pedagogues" or "transformative intellectuals" (Giroux & McLaren, 1986). Proponents argued that schools were social institutions which reproduced a society based on unjust class, race, and gender relations and that practitioners have a moral obligation to reflect on and change practices and school structures which perpetuated such ideals. A primary goal for critical theorists was to assist practitioners in understanding ways in which schools might be contributing to an unjust society for the purpose of engaging in emancipatory action. Critical theorists argued that conventional knowledge, institutions, and social relations are socially constructed and should not be taken for granted. Zeichner (1983) challenged reflective teacher education programs to cause practitioners to examine assumptions and biases and to break through the parameters of conventional thought. In contrast to traditional field experiences, the goals were to help practitioners question the moral basis of practice and understand how schools reproduce and legitimate social inequality. Assignments aided prospective practitioners in critically analyzing conventional wisdom, rejecting technocratic approaches to teaching, and viewing schools from the perspective of those who benefit from them the least.

The critical approach served two purposes (Valli, 1990). The first was epistemological which allowed the teacher to break through dominant ideologies and hegemonic control. Radical social theory was often introduced to prompt such critical reflection. The second purpose was pedagogical, necessitating the voicing of personal experience. It evoked deconstruction of stereotypes and biases in order to transform education. Practitioners using the critical approach evaluated practice as moral if the purpose was to resist repressive hegemonic control, assist the least advantaged, or transform unjust structures.

Orientations to Reflective Thinking

Like Valli (1990), Colton and Sparks–Langer (1993) developed approaches to teacher education which hinged on reflection based upon moral and democratic principles. A conceptual framework presented a manner in which practitioners may become "thoughtful persons intrinsically motivated to analyze a situation, set goals, plan and monitor actions, evaluate results, and reflect on their own professional thinking" (Colton & Sparks–Langer, p. 45). Components of the framework for reflection included professional knowledge base, construction of knowledge and meaning, and action.

A professional knowledge base included seven categories. Content, students, pedagogy and context were taken from Shulman's (1987) work. Prior experiences (Kennedy, 1989), personal views and values (Van Manen, 1977; Zeichner & Liston, 1987) and scripts (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989) concluded the list. The practitioner first possessed an understanding of subject matter and curriculum which was related to students' cultural backgrounds, developmental levels and learning styles, then correlated knowledge with a sound pedagogical approach. Pedagogy came in two forms: generic methods and theories and those which were content specific. Practitioners then considered context of situations, prior experiences, and personal and social values derived from life experiences. Finally, two types of scripts were included. Those scripts that allowed practitioners automaticity while focusing on critical issues and those which included self-questioning as part of problem analysis and planning, often referred to as metacognition (Colton & Sparks–Langer, 1993).

Feelings bridged the gap between knowledge base stored in long-term memory and information from the immediate environment which aided construction of knowledge and meaning. By combining Kolb's (1984) and Dewey's (1910) models of reflective experience, a reflective process was formalized. The practitioner opted to focus on a particular aspect of experience.

Information was collected, analyzed and interpreted while accommodation of knowledge was made into existing schema. If disequilibrium occurred, additional information may be collected through internal or external sources. The situation was defined and hypotheses suggested and tested for long- and short-term consequences. Actions were implemented. If desired results were obtained, the process was complete. Otherwise, modifications were made and the process repeated (Colton & Sparks–Langer, 1993).

The process described by Colton and Sparks–Langer (1993) served as a model for reflective thinking. Within the model, practitioners functioned using three orientations to reflective thinking: cognitive, critical and narrative (Sparks–Langer et al., 1991). The cognitive approach dealt with the first four of Shulman's (1987) six categories of knowledge and the ways practitioners related content to students. Content, pedagogy, curriculum and characteristics of learners were used to develop cognitive skills in practitioners. The cognitive level at this point was likened to Van Manen's (1977) deliberative or technical level of reflectivity.

The thinking process was a second component of the cognitive level of reflection and emphasized how a knowledge base was organized. Organized structures of facts, concepts, generalizations and experiences composed the schemata of practitioners. Complex and deeper levels of schemata, often found in practitioners having more teaching experience, were paralleled with the experienced practitioner's ability to import information, form connections among bits of information, produce meaningful responses to situations and obtain the automaticity to perform more behaviors unconsciously while attending to existing tasks (Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986; Carter, Cushing, Sabers, Stein, & Berliner, 1988; Clark & Peterson, 1986). Complex levels of schemata were often lacking in novice practitioners. Borko and Livingston (1989) compared the reflective levels of novices with those of experienced practitioners concluding: (a) routine and content were available in the schemata of experienced practitioners as automatic scripts, and (b) rich schemata allowed the experienced practitioners to consider the cues in the environment and quickly access appropriate strategies.

The second level of reflection, according to Sparks–Langer et al. (1991), was the critical approach which emphasized the substance of decisions by examining experiences, values, socio-political implications and goals of practitioners. Schön (1987) stated that the majority of learning was derived from reflection on problematic situations which occurred on a continuous basis, but often the information learned became tacit and difficult to analyze. Through a practitioner's appreciation system, a repertoire of knowledge was stored in the form of theories, practices, knowledge and values. All of which influenced the decision making process of practitioners forming a link between the cognitive and critical levels of reflection (Sparks–Langer et al.).

Sparks–Langer et al. (1991) maintained that when practitioners were urged to question practices and encouraged to clarify personal beliefs and values regarding education, the practitioners were able to critically examine educational issues. Critical examination provided power and knowledge which fostered subsequent inquiry regarding long- and short-term goals and practices in education.

In the narrative approach to reflection, the "main emphasis is on teachers' own descriptions of the circumstances under which they make decisions" (Sparks–Langer et al., 1991, p. 5). A common thread was emphasis on validity of inferences drawn from practitioners' experiences. Narrative reflection was also touted as the bridge between the new and old methods of thinking about educational research.

Eby and Kujawa's Model of Reflective Teaching

Eby and Kujawa (1994) developed a model of reflective teaching for use in teacher preparation which was comprised of a series of skills that practitioners learned to improve reflection-in-action. In producing the model, Eby and Kujawa drew from the work of Pollard and Tann (1987). Pollard and Tann analyzed Dewey's (1933) work in identifying four essential characteristics of systematic reflective teaching: (a) active concern with aims and consequences as well as means and technical efficiency, (b) a combination of inquiry and implementation skills with attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness, (c) a cyclical process whereby practitioners continually monitored, evaluated, and revised practice, and (d) practitioner judgments, informed by self-reflection and insights from educational disciplines.

Pollard and Tann (1987) identified six reflective inquiry skills that practitioners can learn to apply within classrooms. The first skill was empirical in nature concerned with collection of data and with descriptions of situations, processes, and cause and effects. Secondly, analytical skills enabled reflective practitioners to interpret descriptive data. Third, evaluative skills were used to make judgments about consequences of the results of inquiry and how those judgments may be applied to future policy and practice. Fourth, strategic skills fostered the ability in practitioners to plan for action and implement the plan. Practical skills were the fifth of the reflective inquiry skills. Practical skills allowed practitioners to link analysis and practice. Finally, communication skills were necessary to communicate and discuss ideas extensively with other practitioners.

Using the skills outlined above, a reflective teaching model was developed by Eby and Kujawa (1994). The practitioner first observed a classroom episode or student behavior. Questions were asked in an effort to frame the problem. Objective data and subjective information from the classroom environment were gathered and analyzed. Judgments were made on the basis of moral principles with alternative strategies being considered for implementation. A strategy was selected that best fit the classroom event or student behavior and plans were made to implement the strategy. The plan was put into action and monitored with decisions made regarding the validity of the strategy. Dialogue ensued which brought reflection into focus and expanded the knowledge and experience base of practitioners.

Lasley's Pedagogical Functioning

Lasley (1992) defined reflection as "the capacity of a teacher to think creatively, imaginatively, and at times, self-critically about classroom practice" (p. 24). Lasley devised a model of pedagogical functioning which parallels levels of teaching skills with ability of practitioners to exhibit skills in classroom contexts. Lasley also held that reflection helped practitioners move from one of the three stages to the next.

In Stage I survival was the focus. Stage I practitioners were concerned with personal adequacy for dealing with multidimensional tasks. Functioning at a technical level (Van Manen, 1977), practitioners seldom thought beyond immediate episodes and had high need for orderliness. Stage I included most new practitioners and some veteran practitioners.

According to Lasley (1992) practitioners in Stage I reflection needed to gain confidence in rudimentary instructional competencies and pedagogy. Focus was placed on technical issues such as refinement of specific classroom practices and how instructional or management approaches were used. Practitioners often examined and analyzed various approaches to learning and teaching in an effort to build a repertoire of practice.

Lasley (1992) defined Stage II practitioners as having a task focus. Emphasis was placed upon knowing the functioning of the classroom and knowing how to teach students. Survival skills were also a consideration. Practitioners were not overly concerned with how knowledge was constructed. Limited delivery approaches were evidenced. Most experienced practitioners were included within Stage II.

Reflection at Stage II involved striving to understand concepts and contexts of teaching and a theoretical basis. Practitioners had the ability to determine conceptual and philosophical grounding for classroom practices, could defend practices and articulate how the practices fostered students' growth, but needed to examine ways of establishing congruence between theory and practice (Lasley, 1992).

Stage III (Lasley, 1992) focused on the impact of instruction. Practitioners were process and outcomes oriented, held high personal and professional expectations, and believed that learning by the child was of key importance. Practitioners in Stage III fostered interrelatedness of disciplines and inquiry and were always looking for new ways of teaching. A limited but growing number of practitioners were included in Stage III.

Lasley (1992) stated that Stage III practitioners could conduct substantial internal and external dialogue about issues pertaining to teaching. Reflection was also exhibited through critically viewing ethical and instructional bases. Practitioners in Stage III were intellectually active, critically reflective and could extend classroom implications to society.

"Adopting a 'reflectivity program' without adequate attention to the needs and dispositions of teachers will most likely result in disillusionment by all involved," warned Lasley (1992, p. 28). Therefore, staff development must be specifically oriented to practitioner disposition and pedagogical stage. Also advocated was consideration of a variety of delivery mechanisms that meshed with the pedagogical stage of the practitioner.

Conclusion

Dewey's (1933) seminal work on reflective thinking has served as the model on which to build reflective inquiry approaches. Dewey has provided a model which examines social issues and problems critically through the process of applying a technical problem solving approach. The process initiated by Dewey was closely followed by Eby and Kujawa (1994) as they developed a model designed to improve reflection-in-action through systematic inquiry. Pugach and Johnson (1990) and Schön (1983) also delineated process-oriented models. Pugach and Johnson stressed the use of dialogue. Schön provided a model for reflection-in-action which was problem-centered and utilized past experiences, theory and the practitioner's value system.

Several educational researchers categorized levels of reflection used by practitioners. Habermas (1970) stratified reflection using three modes. The empirical-analytical level explored education through a theoretical knowledge base. Hermeneutic-phenomenological reflection was evidenced by a fundamental justification of practice. Habermas's highest level of reflection was termed critical-theoretical which incorporated elements of self-understanding, emancipatory learning and critical consciousness. Van Manen (1977) offered the following three modes: technical rationality, which focused upon methodology and outcomes; deliberative rationality, which sought to integrate practice with theory; and critical rationality, which placed value commitments on the educational process.

In recent years additional theories on levels of reflective thinking have been re-popularized. Grimmet et al. (1990) and Lasley (1992) supported three modes of reflection beginning with a technical level, progressing through a deliberative, or conceptual, level which valued context and theory, and peaking with a dialectical level which encompassed moral, ethic and socio-political aspects of education. Sparks–Langer et al. (1990), likewise offered three modes of reflection. The lowest level was cognitive, which provided knowledge and process for decision-making. The critical level focused on dilemmas of teaching and social outcomes, while the narrative modes was added to provide descriptions of circumstances which served to provide tangible tools for reflection. Valli's (1990) images of teaching provided a technical level and an indoctrination mode which was non-reflective. Additional modes which were reflective included practical decision-making and moral reflection with subcomponents of deliberative, relational and critical reflection.

While the process of reflection proved to be consistent in all models, variations were found regarding levels of reflection as well as controversy of the practicality of a hierarchy. Within all models, levels of reflection are termed situational and can be augmented through knowledge of theory, availability of practice situations and training in strategies which enhance reflection.

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There is very little known about specific types of parent involvement in ethnically diverse communities and few studies which capture the perspectives of administrators belonging to a specific minority ethnic group.

Hispanic Principals' Perceptions of Parent Involvement in Ethnically Diverse Schools

Trudy Campbell and Lori Navarrete

"You cannot have a successful school without parent support. You can't do it. If the parents are not going to work with you, you are not going to succeed. I don't care how good or bad you are. Parents can make a bad principal pretty good. They can make a good principal great, you know. Parents should understand they have to support their school and they do. Like I said, invite them, let them participate, make them feel welcome." (Canino, et al, 1989)

A television documentary airing in the early 1990s, "Learning in America: Schools That Work", identified several characteristics which were common to schools where children really did learn. In each school, dramatic changes in behavior and test scores were attributed to the collaboration of teachers, a strong belief in schools as necessary to a democracy, independence from local districts, a commitment to children, and of most importance to the study being reported here . . . principals who shared authority and parents who were involved. Although many criticize the effective schools research literature for its superficial treatment of parental involvement (Comer, Haynes, Hamilton–Lee, 1987–88), there is a substantial amount of literature which identifies key elements in building successful school–parent partnerships (Willis, 1987). One important element is shared decision-making in areas such as curricula, school reform, discipline, student personnel, and equity issues.

Adding to the concern for parent involvement is the role ethnicity plays in how partnerships and interactions occur. U.S. demographics have indicated that the number of Spanish-speaking people is projected to increase to more than 22 million by the year 2000. (Macias, 1993). Latinos and other racial/ethnic minority groups currently comprise the majority of public school students in two of the nation's largest states. (Garcia, 1991; Valencia, 1991) This shift in demographics will heighten the need for successful strategies in working effectively with Hispanic parents.

Researchers have begun to examine the influence of culture and educational background on how families teach their children and work with schools. Studies have included African American families (Clark, 1983; Comer, 1980, 1988; McAdoo, 1981; Scott–Jones, 1987); Chinese American families (Sung, 1987; Siu, 1982); Hispanic families (Canino, Earley, & Rogler, 1989; Delgado & Humm–Delgado, 1982; Delgado–Gaitan, 1990); economically challenged families (Klimes–Dougan, Lopez, & Adelman, 1992; Lareau, 1987); and the families of special needs learners (Alper, Schloss, & Schloss, 1996; Sontag & Schacht, 1994). However, there is very little known about specific types of parent involvement in ethnically diverse communities and few studies which capture the perspectives of administrators belonging to a specific minority ethnic group.

The study which follows is an exploratory investigation of Hispanic elementary principals' perceptions of parent involvement in schools with high Hispanic student enrollments. There were two main objectives for conducting the study. The researchers first wanted to identify principals' perceptions of the types of parent involvement existing in their school. Second, the study sought to understand which personal and professional characteristics of the principals were perceived as having the most impact on successful parent involvement.

Conceptual Framework

Theoretical perspectives on family-school partnerships are based on the separate, sequenced, embedded or overlapping influence of each (Epstein, 1987; Epstein, 1992). The separate influence emphasizes the importance of isolated and separate contributions that the family and school make to society. This view assumes that families and school are most efficient and effective when they work independently of each other (Parsons, 1959; Waller, 1932). The sequenced influence identifies a sequence of critical stages in which parents and teachers contribute to a child's development and education. For example, while parents impact early years of life, educators assume major responsibility for the education of the school-aged child (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). A third perspective, embedded influence, focuses on potential effects on individuals of the multiple events and environments in which they are members (i.e., developmental change and broad cultural systems). (Bronfenbrenner, 1986) A fourth model, and one which provides a foundation for this study, involves overlapping influences of family–school relationships (Epstein, 1987). Family–school relationships in this social-organizational perspective is illustrated as two overlapping spheres which can be pushed together or be pulled apart by practices and interpersonal forces in each environment. Time, ages, grade levels, and behavior impact the extent of "push" and "pull" in this relationship. Epstein (1987) later added a third sphere which represents the community to reflect family-school-community partnerships.

In an effort to define involvement, scholars and practitioners suggest that within the area of overlap of the family–school spheres of influence (fourth model), five important types of involvement help families and schools fulfill their shared responsibilities for children's learning and development (Epstein, 1987). A sixth type incorporates the community as a sphere of influence. The types are as follows:

Type 1: Basic obligations of families
Type 2: Basic obligations of schools
Type 3: Involvement at school

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Type 4: Involvement in learning activities at home
Type 5: Involvement in decision making, governance, and advocacy
Type 6: Collaboration and exchange with community organizations

Several studies have identified one or more types of involvement occurring in schools (Epstein, & Salinas, 1992; Kreinberg & Thompson, 1986). Other studies and projects have worked with communities to strengthen family–school partnerships by applying the six types of involvement (Davis, 1991; Epstein & Herrick, 1991; Krasnow, 1990).

Data Collection and Analysis

An exploratory study of principals' perceptions of parent involvement is phenomenological in nature. It seeks answers to the question "what is the structure and essence of experience of this phenomenon for these people?" (Patton, 1990). In this case, what is the structure and essence of experience of parent involvement for Hispanic principals in schools with high percentages of Hispanic children? Exploratory studies are generally conducted for the purpose of investigating little understood phenomena, to identify or discover important variables, or to generate hypotheses for further research (Marshall, & Rossman, 1995). Field studies typically use data collection techniques such as participant observation, in-depth interviewing, or elite interviewing.

In this case, in-depth semi-structured interviews of elementary principals were conducted at 11 (total) school sites in both rural and urban communities in the southwest. The principals were selected on the basis of ethnicity (all were Hispanic), gender (four female and seven male), and for location (five urban, and six rural). Five sites were all located in the same urban school district with student populations ranging from 72 to 90% Hispanic. The six rural sites were located in communities near the urban school district selected for study. Schools in the rural communities had student populations ranging from 48 to 99% Hispanic. The process of determining selection units (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993) is consistent with qualitative designs where researchers identify populations for investigation using whatever criteria are relevant to establishing the boundaries of the phenomena. In this case, selection of units was directed by the researchers' intent of representing a range of existing perceptions within elementary schools led by Hispanic principals (location, gender, experience).

In more conventional research designs, concerns of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity are addressed. With this phenomenological investigation, the researchers sought to establish credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (Lincoln, & Guba, 1990) by using the techniques of triangulation (using multiple sources of data which included additional parent interviews, journal notes, and a researcher team), peer debriefing to establish accuracy in coding, and maintenance of materials and journal entries necessary for confirmability of the data.

The interviews were tape recorded and were approximately 30–60 minutes in length. The interview guide used with principals included the questions below as well as general demographic information about the principal, school, and community.

Principal Interview Guide

1. Could you describe for me some examples of how decisions are made in your school (with respect to curriculum, school reform, discipline, equity, student personnel)?
2. What role do you see parents playing in each of the examples you just described?
3. How do you believe your formal (informal) training has helped you to establish a partnership with parents?
4. What personal characteristics do you have which help you to establish a partnership with parents?
5. Can you describe a few of the most successful strategies you have seen for working with parents as partners?

Data analysis followed processes as described by Bogdan and Biklen (1992). While in the field, researchers began developing analytic questions, speculating and marking the data to highlight key words, phrases, and plausible ideas. After leaving the field, transcripts of all interviews were prepared from the tape recordings to capture verbatim descriptions from the participants. These transcripts were used to develop coding categories consisting of (1) types of parent involvements (the six types described in the conceptual framework); (2) personal (language, culture, personality) and professional characteristics (formal and informal training) of the principals which were perceived as influencing involvement.

Results of the Study

The analysis of types of parent involvement reported by principals revealed use of all six types but that the most frequent types of involvement were Type 3 (involvement at school), Type 5 (involvement in decision making, governance, and advocacy), and Type 6 (collaboration and exchange with community organizations). The least frequent type of involvement cited was Type 1 (basic obligations of families).

Principal	Frequency of Types of Involvement					
Code	1	2	3	4	5	6
U1	1	3	1	3	9	0
U2	0	1	8	0	10	0
U3	6	7	7	4	23	3
U4	4	6	8	1	14	9
U5	0	7	11	1	9	8
R1	4	2	14	5	5	13
R2	0	5	6	4	10	1
R3	1	7	11	1	11	10
R4	0	3	3	0	8	8
R5	0	1	2	6	31	3
R6	0	7	14	0	14	17
(Total)	16	49	85	25	144	72

It should be noted that these frequencies are being used to show patterns or trends. Each reference to a type of involvement, whether is was considered positive or negative, was coded. In some cases, an involvement activity could receive two codes (e.g. when parent training helped with both basic obligations of families to fulfill nutrition requirements and to provide activities to increase learning).

The personal characteristic considered most influential in involving parents was an understanding of the community culture by virtue of having been raised as a member of a Hispanic community. The word "respect" and "respect for one's elders" surfaced in a majority of the interviews. The second most notable characteristic had to do with "an easy going" personality. It was considered very effective if you were able to listen without reacting negatively and keep the conversation on an informal basis. Finally, the use of Spanish to communicate was viewed as a real asset in promoting parent involvement.

> "I am bilingual. I think that language is the most personal thing that a person owns. It's part of who they are. It's part of their culture. It's part of their identity. When I am able to speak Spanish to my Spanish-speaking parents, I just feel an instant bond." [U1]

When questioned about formal and informal training (professional characteristics) the principals had received on the topic of parent involvement, there was a very consistent mes-

sage. Nearly every principal noted the need for university coursework (formal training) to contain more "hands-on" experiences. The theory and "book learning" was minimally helpful and more practical experience and learning was almost nonexistent. Informal training events perceived to be useful were prior work experience in other roles, some district workshops, and primarily on the job experiences.

Implications of the Findings

The preponderance of Type 5 involvements (decision making and governance) must be interpreted in the context of the administrative role. Most of the examples were related to formal structures at the federal, state, and district level requiring parents be on advisory councils or boards. There were distinctions made as to when the decisions were really made by parents and when there was simply input by virtue of being on an advisory board or council and varied at each school.

> "If the principal feels comfortable with certain issues, especially with parents or teachers, then we do so [let them make the decisions.]" [U2]

The emergence of Type 6 involvements (collaborative exchange with community agencies) shows great promise for expanding ownership and securing support for schools. Most of the examples involved either the use of facilities for community functions or instruction or provision of resources by local businesses and government programs. Especially in the case of rural communities, the school-community-parent collaboration was seen as vital.

> "So we do a lot of sharing and the school is like the center of activity because in small communities you don't have theaters, you don't have bowling alleys, you don't have things of that nature but the school becomes a real nucleus to the whole community . . . " [R3]

Type 3 involvements (volunteering) continue to be common and yet they are not the most powerful determiners of student achievement. The most troubling finding is the lack of reporting Type 1 (basic obligations of families) given the demographics of the communities. A majority of the sites had very high percentages of low income and single parent families (and in the case of urban schools the families were living in areas with high crime rates and violence.)

> "I remember people coming from different parts of the country and saying, what's wrong with these parents? They don't care about their kids. I said, you know, they really do care about their kids, but they have other priorities. Some of them are the very basics . . . food, shelter, and clothing. From Maslow's hierarchy if you haven't gotten past those levels, you aren't going to get to any of the other levels." [U1]

> "Overall, the parent responsibility, according to my viewpoint, is that the parents assume a certain amount of responsibility for making decisions every day that involve the school. For example, whether they get the kids here on time or whether they are fed. So, there is a lot of participation that I don't think has been recognized because it has been involved more in a pseudo or intellectual description. But in a grassroots description there is a lot of involvement." [U3]

The personal and professional characteristics also have implications for furthering parent involvement in schools. An urban principal raises what may be a key to understanding his work in a predominantly Hispanic environment.

> "One of the questions asks about parent involvement [on a survey], and the majority of people said that they were involved about as much as they wanted to be. In other words, they feel they have a say in how things are done and what goes on in their child's school." "As I mentioned earlier they are Hispanic. I have heard lots and lots of comments from the, and the say that as long as you are doing a good job, I don't need to be at school checking up on you or seeing how you are doing." "I think that is a little bit of a cultural thing." "That was the way I grew up. My mom and dad never went to school unless there was a problem." [U2]

While the traditional Hispanic culture has held this respect and trust for schools, if principals want more involvement of the types found in the current literature, it will mean either recognizing and appreciating less reported types (Type 1 for example) or educating families as to the need for more participation through activities found in sharing in the learning (Type 4) and decision making (Type 5).

> "They [the parents] need to become familiar with the school from one end to the other before they can be actively involved in it. I have found that the most adamant supporters among those parents that are really actively involved, at least two or three times a day here at school, that they understand the issues of educating children, the issues of time management, the issues of materials, and then you have people that know how to make a decision, that won't have a domino effect on other parts of the school." [U5]

> "I think there are different levels of development in parents and their parenting skills." "I can see them feeling about school the same way I feel about approaching a hospital or doctor's office. You get a clammy, nervous, sick feeling." "I think those people have to be approached in a very basic way, just come and have cookies and punch." [U1]

The other personal characteristics point to an attitude, or way of viewing the world. Schools in charge of hiring administrators may wish to explore the belief systems and attitudes of prospective principals. A respect for all people involved in education is critical and becomes even more complex in diverse cultural settings.

> "We grew up with that idea that no one is a stranger, and you talk to anyone because for you to deny somebody 'good morning' or 'good afternoon' was not your right because the day was not yours. O.K. You made the day by the way that you functioned within your society and I think that's been a real help to me because it doesn't matter to me who the person is, be it Native American, Black, it doesn't matter. I make them feel at home." [R3]

This study has identified the types of involvement most prevalent in schools with large Hispanic populations. It has described the personal and professional characteristics the principals considered most useful in establishing parent involvement. It has also discovered some concerns which need further exploration. First, are the frequency and types of involvements similar to those in majority culture schools? Would the recognition of Type 1 involvements and the development of more strategies to increase their use be more culturally appropriate in Hispanic communities? Would it be more effective to study involvement based on the developmental levels of the parents rather than the types of involvement? Perhaps one urban principal [U1] has pointed the direction toward a more culturally appropriate model of investigation when she describes the developmental stages of parents and their involvement in schools.

Stage 1 Sharing in the home

> "Before the cookies and punch group, we have the parents who just don't come in. At that point, what I think we should do is go to the parents and work with them in their homes to help them."

Stage 2 Attendance at school functions

"Just come and have cookies and punch. You don't have to talk or do anything, just be there."

Stage 3 Helping (non-instructional)

"The next stage would be where they feel comfortable in helping with some planning. When you call some parents to help with a group project, it's possible they don't lead, or they don't know the answers to the very basic elementary things we are teaching their kids. They are very embarrassed to admit that. So, I think it's a good point to always ask them what they would like to do."

Stage 4 Classroom involvement

"The parents' involvement in the individual classrooms is actually better, on that small-scale, individual teacher to parent level than it is school-wide. I think possibly their comfort zone is just better. "

Stage 5 Parent leadership

"I think another step of that parent involvement would be to get parents involved in the leadership and decision making for the school."

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The courts and the Office of Civil Rights have made it clear that the schools have a legal responsibility to ensure that students are provided a safe environment in which to learn.

STUDENT-TO-STUDENT SEXUAL HARASSMENT: Legal Bases for School District and Individual Liability

L. Dean Webb, Kay Hartwell Hunnicutt, and Arlene Metha

Sexual harassment in the workplace has been much documented and litigated. Sexual harassment in the workplace is defined by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) as:

> Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when (1) submission to such conduct is made explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment. (29 C.F.R. Sec. 1604.11(a) 1993)

To a large extent it was the Anita Hill testimony on national television before the Senate Judiciary Committee in the Clarence Thomas hearings that was responsible for bringing the issue of sexual harassment in the workplace to the attention of the American public. The Navy's "Tailhook" scandal and the public allegations against Senator Robert Packwood brought further attention to the issue.

Student-to-student sexual harassment is a newcomer to the sexual harassment spotlight. Yet, peer sexual harassment "is occurring virtually every moment of every day in almost every elementary and secondary school in America" (Shoop & Edwards, 1994, p. 55). According to a major national study by the American Association of University Women (AAUW), *Hostile Hallways*, four out of five students attending public schools has been harassed by a present or former student (AAUW, 1993). About half the students experienced the harassment in the middle school/junior high years. Perhaps more surprising, fully one-third of the students in the AAUW (1993) study reported being harassed before the seventh grade.

Student-to-student sexual harassment is a serious problem for elementary and secondary schools, not only because of the profound impact on victims, or the potential liability it creates for the school district, but because of the consequences if not addressed and remedied. Student-to-student sexual harassment "denies millions of children the educational environment they need to grow into healthy, educated adults" (AAUW, 1993, p. x). Through their failure to aggressively combat peer-to-peer sexual harassment, the schools become the training grounds for domestic violence: girls learn that no one intercedes on their behalf, and that if they do complain they may not be believed or may be blamed for the harassment (Stein, 1993, 1994). In addition, those students who witness the harassment, which is almost always a public event, "may learn the bitter lesson that school is not a safe or just place . . . (and) may begin to worry about when it is going to happen to them, and or that they won't be protected when they become the targets of sexual harassment" (Stein, 1993, p. 1).

Unattended sexual harassment not only has damaging consequences for the victim, but for the harasser. Engaging in sexually harassing behavior may be a warning sign that the harasser himself or herself is a victim of sexual abuse or is at risk for becoming a juvenile sex offender. Research by the National Center for Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect found that 25% of young sex offenders said they began abusing other children before the age of 12 (Strauss, 1994).

The problem of student-to-student sexual harassment has not been sufficiently addressed by most school districts. Historically, school districts and school personnel have not recognized many of the behaviors which can be defined as sexual harassment as such, but have considered them to be just childhood teasing, "roughhousing," flirting, or "boys being boys." The lackadaisical attitude of the school has been compounded by the fact that when the few victims who are able to overcome their fears or self-blame do report the harassment, very often nothing happens (Lawton, 1993; Stein, 1993).

However, in the early 1990s two federal court decisions dealing with sexual harassment in the schools raised the public's awareness of the problem and focused the attention of school districts on both the problem and the consequences for the district and district personnel. The first case, the landmark 9–0 decision of the U. S. Supreme Court in *Franklin v. Gwinnett County Schools* (1992) involved the sexual harassment of a student by a teacher. In *Franklin* the court recognized that sexual harassment can create a hostile environment which may interfere with a student receiving an equal educational opportunity, thereby violating Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972. The court also held that student victims of sexual harassment can sue for monetary damages under Title IX.

The next year, the *Franklin* decision provided the basis for a case involving student-to-student sexual harassment, *Doe v. Petaluma City School District* (1993). In *Petaluma,* an eighth grade girl was subjected to constant verbal harassment from peers who called her "slut," "hoe," or "hot dog bitch," and taunted her by asking her if she had a "hot dog in her pants" or had sex with "hot dogs." The harassment was perpetrated by both male and female peers. The response of the school counselor, to whom Doe repeatedly reported the harassment, was basically to say that "boys will be boys" and that girls can not sexually harass girls. He also said that he could not stop the taunts of the girls because that would violate their free speech

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rights. After two years of harassment the student transferred to another school but the harassment followed. She eventually withdrew from the public schools and enrolled in a private girls school. The federal district court, in reviewing *Petaluma,* compared the sexual harassment of a student by a student in this case to the sexual harassment of a student by a teacher in *Franklin* (1992), and said that hostile environment sexual harassment claims involving student-to-student sexual harassment may be brought under Title IX. Nonetheless, the court denied any Title IX damages because, it reasoned, damages can not be awarded absent a showing that a school district or employee intentionally discriminated on the basis of sex, not just that the district or the employee knew or should have known about the harassment and failed to take appropriate action to end it. However, the court did allow a claim under 42 U.S.C. Section 1983 against the counselor as an individual to proceed. [In *Petaluma II* (1995), the court granted the counselor qualified immunity against this claim.]

In April 1993, just weeks after the *Petaluma* decision, the U. S. Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (OCR), in another groundbreaking case involving student peer sexual harassment, and the first case involving elementary students, found that the Eden Prairie (MN) School District had violated Title IX by failing to take timely and effective action to stop the sexual harassment of a six year old female student. The student had been subjected to a pattern of incidents which included, among other things, offensive sexual references, unwelcome touching, physical intimidation, taunting, vulgar gestures, sexual propositions, and suggestions she perform oral sex on her father (Eden Prairie Schools, 1993).

The *Petaluma* and Eden Prairie cases are but two of what has become a growing number of cases involving student-to-student sexual harassment filed in the courts and with the Office of Civil Rights. Student victims in these cases have alleged a variety of legal theories in an attempt to hold school districts and school personnel responsible and liable for the harassment. These have included: denial of benefits or sex discrimination in educational programs in violation of Title IX; Section 1983 of the Civil Rights Act of 1871; violation of equal protection and/or substantive due process rights under the 14th Amendment, and; various state tort claims, including negligence. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which has been the predominant vehicle for claims related to workplace sexual harassment, has not been used in student peer harassment claims. However, the definition of sexual harassment, particularly the definition of hostile environment as defined by the EEOC, the agency charged with enforcing Title VII, has been relied upon in student peer sexual harassment claims under Title IX.

Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972

One of the major legal theories advanced by students in student peer harassment cases has been violation of Title IX. Title IX 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 or activity receiving Federal financial assistance" (20 U.S.C., Sec. 1681(a), 1988). The present interpretation of the courts is that liability under Title IX applies only to educational programs or activities receiving federal money, and that individuals may not be held personally liable for discrimination under Title IX (see, e.g., *Petaluma,* 1993). Claims of peer sexual harassment in the public schools have used this Title IX since the *Franklin v. Gwinnett* (1992) decision and are based on the rationale developed in that case: that hostile environment sexual harassment violates Title IX by denying students the benefits of, or by subjecting them to discrimination under an educational program or activity receiving federal funds. Some federal courts espouse claims under Title IX should be interpreted in the same way as Title VII since claims of sexual harassment have a distinctive body of case law and the legal theory of sexual harassment has been developed under Title VII (see, e.g., *Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education*, 1996; *Patricia v. Berkeley v. Unified School District,* 1993). Other courts (e.g., *Seamons v. Snow*, 1994; *Bosley v. Kearney R-1 School District,* 1995) have considered it inappropriate to apply Title VII hostile environment law to peer harassment, reasoning that Title IX was adopted pursuant to Congress' spending power and was patterned after Title VI, which prohibits race-based discrimination and was also a spending bill, and that the courts have ruled that legislation adopted pursuant to Congress' spending power allow compensatory relief only when discriminatory intent can be shown, discriminatory impact is not enough (see, *Guardians Ass'n v. Civil Service Commission,* 1983 and *Doe v. Petaluma,* 1993, 1995; see, also, *Rowinsky v. Bryan Independent School District,* 1996, which held that the school district would be liable for sex discrimination in a peer sexual harassment case only if the district responded to claims differently based on sex).

Applying the above rationale, no court to date has found any school district liable under Title IX for peer sexual harassment. However, since the court in *Franklin* (1992) did not indicate whether the door it had opened regarding school district liability under Title IX applied only to intentional discrimination, as was the case presented in *Franklin,* or whether liability can be found absent a showing of intentional discrimination, this rationale continues to be challenged in the lower federal courts. And, in fact, the Eleventh Circuit Court of Appeals in *Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education* (1996) recently reached a different conclusion as to the conditions for finding school board liability.

The court in *Davis* laid out the elements necessary for a victim of student-to-student sexual harassment to be successful in a liability claim against a school district under Title IX. According to the court, the victim must show:

1. That the victim is a member of a protected class;
2. That the victim was subjected to unwelcome sexual harassment;
3. That the harassment was based on sex;
4. That the harassment was sufficiently severe or pervasive so as to alter the conditions or benefits of the student's education and create an abusive or hostile educational environment; and
5. That some basis for institutional liability has been established.

Satisfying the first three requirements is usually easily established by the facts of the case. In determining whether the plaintiff has met the fourth requirement and shown that an environment is hostile or abusive, the courts will consider the age of the victim, frequency and duration of the harassment, severity and scope of the acts and the nature and context of the incidents. As the court in *Davis* (1996) explained: "a hostile environment in an educational setting is not created by simple childish behavior or by an offensive utterance, comment, or vulgarity. Rather, Title IX is violated 'when the [educational environment] is permeated with 'discriminatory intimidation, ridicule, and insult' that is 'sufficiently severe or pervasive to alter the conditions of the victim's [environment] and create an abusive environment" (p. 1186).

In regard to the last requirement, the victim can provide a basis for institutional liability by showing that the district knew or should have known of the harassment and failed to take action to stop it. Knowledge on the part of the district can be established by showing: (1) that a complaint was made to an official of the district, or (2) "the pervasiveness of the harassment, which gives rise to the inference of knowledge or constructive knowledge" (*Davis*, 1996, p. 1186).

The appellate court in *Davis* reversed the district court's dismissal of the Title IX claim against the school board and remanded the case for further proceedings in light of its findings. If the lower court proceedings concur with the evidentiary

findings as reviewed by the appeals court in its opinion (i.e., finding that a prima facie claim under Title IX had been established), then school district liability may be found, and monetary damages awarded, for the first time by a federal court in a student peer sexual harassment case.

The question of individual liability under Title IX in regard to student peer sexual harassment also seems open to challenge. As previously noted, to date the courts have not interpreted Title IX as providing the basis for individual liability. At the same time, the courts seemingly have left the door open for individual liability if the facts of the case can document either intentional discrimination or deliberate indifference to peer harassment, and it seems only a matter of time before individual liability is found. For example, while granting a teacher qualified immunity from liability in a claim of violation of Title IX, a federal district court in Connecticut held that the teacher was a proper defendant in the action as he was the school authority in control of the classroom at the time that at least some of the alleged student-to-student sexual harassment violations occurred. According to the court:

> The plain language of the statute (Title IX) broadly refers to discrimination occurring "under any education program or activity." This language does not restrict the potential class of defendants based on their nature of identity (i.e. individual, institution, etc.). It does, however, restrict them based on their function or role in a program or activity. Logically, the language of Title IX demands that a defendant must exercise some level of control over the program or activity that the discrimination occurs under.

Thus, the plain language of the statute sets forth a functional restriction that does not preclude individual defendants, as long as they exercise a sufficient level of control. (*Mennone v. Gordon*, 1995, p. 56)

Fourteenth Amendment

In other student-to-student sexual harassment cases (e.g., *Seamons v. Snow*, 1994, 1996) students have brought procedural due process claims against school officials under the Fourteenth Amendment alleging that as a result of the harassment, they were effectively deprived of their property interest to a public education without due process. Still others have brought Fourteenth Amendment substantive due process claims based on an alleged violation of their liberty interest in their bodily integrity (see, *Spivey v. Elliott*, 1994; *Seamons v. Snow*, 1994, 1996).

Generally, the courts have held that plaintiffs must prove a "special relationship" existed related to the school district (i.e., duty to protect, creating a constitutional right to care and safety) in order to sustain this type of substantive due process claim. Without this special relationship, "(the) State's failure to protect an individual against private violence simply does not constitute a violation of the Due Process Clause" (*DeShaney v. Winnebago County Dept. of Social Services*, 1989, p. 1004). And, while special duty or special relationship has been alleged in a few cases involving student peer sexual harassment, the courts have been reluctant to find the existence of a special relationship where the harm is inflicted by a peer. For example, in *Petaluma* (1993) the court held that no special relationship existed between school officials and public school students that required the officials to protect students from the acts of other students. And in a related case the next year, *Graham v. Independent Sch. Dist. No. I-89*, which involved student-on-student violence, the Tenth Circuit Court of Appeals concluded that "mandatory school attendance does not create the kind of custodial relationship that gives school officials the duty to take affirmative action to protect students from a violation of the Fourteenth Amendment—even where school officials knew of a danger" (*Seamons v. Snow*, 1994, p. 1120).

Section 1983 of the Civil Rights Act of 1871

Students in peer sexual harassment cases also have stated causes of action under 42 U.S.C. Section 1983. The purpose of Section 1983 is to provide a right of action in federal court against state and local government officials who deprive individuals of their federally guaranteed rights by failing to enforce the law or by subjecting them to unequal treatment under the law. Thus, if a case alleges a Fourteenth Amendment violation, or Title IX violation, recovery may be sought under Section 1983 (*Lillard v. Shelby County Bd. of Ed.*, 1996; *Seamons v. Snow*, 1996). For example, in *Oona R.–S v. Santa Rosa Schools* (1995), the court allowed Section 1983 claims to go forward against a teacher, principal, and director of elementary education for failure to supervise a harassing student teacher and for failure to take appropriate steps to counter the student peer harassment which was occurring in the same classroom.

State Tort Laws

State civil law related to torts such as intentional infliction of emotional distress and assault and battery, while seemingly accurately describing many sexual harassment experiences, actually have been used in only a limited number of student peer sexual harassment cases. The major reason these grounds have not been used more extensively is that they are difficult to prove. To prove assault and/or battery the harassing behavior would have to be in the form of a threatened or accomplished physical attack. To prove intentional infliction of emotional distress the victim would have to show "extreme and outrageous conduct" by the harasser which caused severe emotional distress to the victim. Extreme and outrageous conduct, in turn, is defined as is that which goes "beyond all possible bounds of decency"—a difficult thing to prove (Sherer, 1995).

The tort theory most relied upon by student victims of peer sexual harassment is negligence. The alleged negligence may be on the part of the school district or its employees. Where the liability of the school district is predicated on the alleged negligence of administrators, teachers, or other employees of the district, it is generally recognized that the liability of the district may be established under the common law principle of agency. This principle says that the school district may be liable for the acts of an agent (an employee) who represents and acts under the authority of the principal.

The particular form of negligence being alleged in most cases is negligent supervision. In order to be successful in a suit alleging negligent supervision, the student victim must prove that at the time of the harassment there was a relationship between the student and the school district that gave rise to a legal duty to protect, that there was a breach of this duty, and that the breach was the proximate cause of the harassment. Absent a showing of each of these elements, negligence will not be found. For example, in a case where a female student working after school on a science project was sexually assaulted by three male students leaving the building at the end of a detention period, the court said that the school did not have a duty to escort the students from the building at the end of the detention period and that the incident was not foreseeable (*Williams v. Columbus Board of Education*, 1992).

On the other hand, in a case where a third grade student was sexually assaulted in the bathroom by two other female students, one of whom had previously physically threatened the victim, the court found that the school district and the teacher had breached their duty to supervise. The victim had been sent unsupervised out of the classroom to a bathroom down the hall, even though there was a bathroom in the classroom which the teacher preferred students not use during class, and even though the school had a safety plan which provided that students were never to be left unsupervised or sent to stand or sit in the hall. In addition, the student had been sent

out of the classroom at the same time that the two attackers were apparently wandering the school premises unattended. The award of $350,000 to the student victim was upheld by the New York Court of Appeals (*Shante D. v. City of New York Board of Education*, 1994).

As the above case indicates, a successful negligence suit can potentially provide the victim substantial financial compensation. The amount of recovery will depend on whether there is a ceiling on monetary damages under state tort claims acts, or whether state law permits a jury to determine how much the prevailing claimant should be paid. In practice, few sexual harassment complaints actually go to court. Most cases are resolved within the district or settled out of court, due in part to the recognition of tort liability as a viable claim against school districts in states not having statutory immunity for districts and their employees.

Conclusion

The courts and the Office of Civil Rights have made it clear that the schools have a legal responsibility to ensure that students are provided a safe environment in which to learn. However, the responsibility of the schools to provide students a safe and supportive environment in which to learn is more than a legal obligation, it is an ethical one. Sexual harassment is not something students need to learn to accept. School districts must demonstrate by their policies and their actions that sexual harassment is unacceptable and will not be tolerated. Rather than being seen as the training grounds for domestic violence, the schools should be seen as the model for the behaviors a society desires for itself.

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Despite compelling statistics, school personnel have continued to deny the existence of violence in schools.

VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN HIGH SCHOOLS: Choices for Effectiveness

Megan J. Knapp and G. Kent Stewart

Every two days, guns kill the equivalent of a classroom of youngsters and injure 60 more (Sautter, 1995). Adolescents between the ages of 10 and 19 are killed with a gun at the rate of one every three hours. In fact, more young people have been killed by violent crime in the United States in the last thirteen years than lost their lives during the entire Vietnam War (Sautter, 1995). Firearms have now replaced car accidents as the leading cause of death for teenage boys (Weisenburger, 1995).

From 1988 to 1992, the number of violent crimes committed by juveniles showed an alarming increase: aggravated assaults increased 80%, homicides increased 54% and rapes increased 27% (Studies Show, 1994). Youths between the ages of 12 and 17 are five times more likely to be the victim of a violent crime than adults (Juvenile Crime, 1994). Over half of the people arrested for murder in the United States in 1991 were under the age of 25 (Sautter, 1995).

The alarming increase in violent crime involving school aged children has captured the attention of parents. Concern about their children's safety at school has increased proportionally. A recent study suggested that violence and poor discipline are the top two public concerns about education in the United States today (Violence, Discipline and Guns, 1994). Forty percent of parents reported concern about their child's safety while at school (Met Life, 1994). The opportunity for successful education is severely jeopardized when students, school staff, and members of the community are preoccupied with the fear of going to school (Mulhern, 1995).

Despite compelling statistics, school personnel have continued to deny the existence of violence in the schools. Educators perceive school violence to be someone else's problem (McPartland, 1977), often contending that school violence "is a problem, but not in my school" (Ordoversky, 1993). School personnel have been reluctant to acknowledge that violence occurs on their campuses, in part because they felt the presence of violence was damaging to the reputation of the school (Wayson, 1985), or perhaps more accurately, was a poor reflection on the professionals involved. Miller (1994) found that principals feared reprisal or the appearance of inadequacy if they admitted that violence occurred in their building. A recent report from the American Association of School Administrators suggested that some schools consciously play down instances of violence to avoid bad publicity, litigation, and having the public view the teachers and administration as poor leaders (Western Regional, 1996).

Educators have used a number of strategies to address the problem of school violence ranging from student suspension (Portner, 1995; Johnson, 1992) to the implementation of staff development programs (Myles, 1994; Trump, 1993). While information is available on violence prevention strategies, scant information is available regarding the effectiveness of these violence prevention efforts (Gorski, 1995). This perspective was echoed by Weiler (1995), who wrote that the literature on violence prevention reveals little about the effectiveness of these programs and that few programs contain any evaluation component.

In the 1940s the main discipline concerns reported by teachers included: talking, chewing gum, making noise, improper dress, littering, and getting out of place in line (Jackson, 1990). In the 1950s the primary concerns identified included fighting, stealing, and disrespect toward authority. By the 1970s these concerns had risen to distracting others, fighting, and unsatisfactory attitudes toward school. In the 1980s teacher concerns were focused on assaults on teachers, burglary, extortion, and destruction of school property (Arsulich, 1979). Today teacher concerns focus on drug abuse, alcoholism, weapons, rape, robbery, and assault (Jackson, 1990).

Schools are a reflection of the economic, political, social, and cultural communities in which they are located. Unfortunately, the violence found in our society has followed students into the school environment (Mulhern, 1994). The National School Safety Center, which tracks media coverage of school violence, reported that the 1993–1994 school year witnessed a 25% increase in school-associated violent deaths over the previous year (Violence, Discipline and Guns, 1994). Between 1986 and 1990 there were 65 students and six school employees shot and killed while at school (Walsh, 1994). During the 1993–1994 school year there were 46 students killed at school (Portner, 1995) and another 92 were injured (Sautter, 1995).

Student Concerns

A survey of students conducted in 1993 indicated that 35% of the tenth graders surveyed had been threatened or injured while at school (Safe at School, 1994). A 1993 study by Benson found that 55% of the Midwestern 6th through 12th grade students surveyed had been involved in at least one of the following types of violence in the last year: hitting someone, group fighting, hurting someone badly enough to require bandages, or had used a weapon to get something from another student. A similar survey of high school students in North Carolina showed 14% of the students surveyed had carried a gun to school in the past month, 10% had been threatened or injured by a weapon on school property during the last year, and 15% had been involved in a fight (Survey Shows, 1994). More than 2,000 students are physically attacked on school grounds each hour and confrontations which once resulted in scratches and bruises are now ending in stabbing and gunshots (Huertas, 1995). Portner (1994) reported that 135,000 students brought a gun to school every day in American schools. However, estimates by Sautter (1995) placed the number of students bringing guns to school every day closer to 200,000.

Recent surveys by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company have offered startling glimpses in the lives of school aged students. The 1994 survey found that 52% of the high school students surveyed believed that their school did only a fair to

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poor job of providing a safe and secure school environment. Forty-four percent of these students had been involved in an angry confrontation in the last month and 24% of the students had been involved in a physical fight. Perhaps as frightening as any of these statistics was the one that suggested half of the students surveyed would not have reported a fellow student who brought a weapon into school to the school authorities because of fear that the student would retaliate against them (Met Life, 1994).

Sautter (1995) found that 160,000 students a day stayed home from school because of their fear of violence. A second study conducted in 1996 found that 1 of every 12 students stayed home each day out of fear for their safety (Stephens). Similarly a recent study of elementary students from economically depressed areas showed that many felt they would not live long enough to become adults (Poplin and Weeres, 1992).

Students spend a great deal of time in school. Since the likelihood of a crime being committed in a particular location is influenced by the amount of time spent there, schools are a prime location for teen crime (Western Regional, 1996).

Teacher Concerns

A study by Natale (1996) found that nationwide 5,000 teachers a month were verbally or physically assaulted by students. Eleven percent of the teachers surveyed reported that they had been assaulted by students while on school grounds (Met Life, 1993). Nearly a fifth of U.S. schools reported student assault on teachers (Resnick, 1996). Twenty-eight percent of urban teachers admitted they were hesitant to confront disruptive students due to fear for their own safety (Lowery, 1995). A second study by Carter (1981) found that teachers were unlikely to report physical attacks from students, feeling that such assaults called into question their ability to handle the students. Jackson (1990) found that many teachers would have been disappointed if their own children selected teaching as a profession. It seemed reasonable to assume that the lack of discipline and respect currently shown to teachers played a role in this sentiment.

Parental Concerns

Parents were also concerned about their children's safety while at school. The findings of a recent study suggested that violence and poor discipline were the top two public concerns about education in the United States today (Violence, Discipline and Guns, 1994). Forty percent of parents reported that they were concerned about their child's safety while at school (Met Life, 1994). A 1992 study conducted by Poplin and Weeres stated that in their interviews with parents they found that very few parents felt that public schools were safe places. The researchers also found that regardless of position, race, or class, many parents believed that schools are potentially violent sites. The opportunity for successful education is severely jeopardized when students, school staff, and members of the community were preoccupied with the fear of going to school (Mulhern, 1994). The mission of providing a challenging academic program which maximized achievement for students cannot be completed as long as teachers experience confrontations with students in their classrooms, the students are afraid to attend schools, and the parents fail to set a good example at home (Shanker, 1996).

Eighty-five percent of public school parents believed that discipline was a factor in selecting a school. Parents were looking for safe schools and some are pulling their children from public schools and placing them in private schools which they believed to be safer (Western Regional, 1996). With school choice being an increasingly ominous concern for public schools the ramifications of these actions are obvious. A 1994 study found that 85% of Americans favored giving parents the right to select the safest school available for their children (Western Regional, 1996).

Violence Prevention Costs

Limited information is available regarding the true costs of violence prevention efforts in schools. Money used to combat violence is taken from many different funds including equipment, capital outlay, and personnel. Nevertheless, school districts spent over $300 million per year on school security (Portner, 1994). In 1990 the California State Department of Education estimated that the average California school spent $3,014 each year on violence prevention efforts excluding personnel costs (CA Dept. of Education, 1990). In spite of considerable expenditure of money and effort to curb the epidemic of school violence, no school has yet declared victory (Western Regional, 1996).

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this investigation were to identify the strategies being utilized by Kansas high school principals to cope with school violence, to assess the level of effectiveness principals attributed to these strategies, and to determine and report the factors principals utilized to select violence prevention strategies to be employed in the schools for which they were responsible.

Population

The population for this study was the primary administrator or designee for each public high school in the state of Kansas, 353 total (KSBE, 1995). Surveys were mailed to the attention of the principal with instruction that a building administrator complete the survey. Of the 340 schools from which information was requested, 83% (282 schools) provided responses.

Instrumentation

The investigation used a survey instrument developed to identify those violence prevention strategies being used by each principal surveyed and the level of effectiveness each attached to these strategies. Additional information regarding those factors which the administrators believed to be important in the selection of a violence prevention strategy was also obtained.

The survey instrument contained demographic data and the violence prevention strategies identified through a review of the literature on violence prevention efforts (Appendix 1). Respondents were asked to rate each strategy which they used as ineffective, somewhat effective, moderately effective, or highly effective. Respondents were offered the option of identifying additional strategies and rating these items as well. Any strategies which the respondent did not use were not evaluated for effectiveness.

To determine those factors which principals viewed as important when selecting a violence prevention strategy, respondents were asked to identify those factors which they believed to be important from a list of 11 factors. These factors were identified as common concerns expressed regarding violence prevention strategies in the literature and through conversations with practicing administrators. The factors identified for investigation included legal implications of the strategy, public acceptance, disruption to the school day, cost, student participation, student acceptance, ease of implementation, skills taught, effect on the appearance of the school building and student involvement.

Data Analysis

To determine if the perceived effectiveness of each strategy varied from the expected normal distribution, one-way goodness of fit chi-squares were calculated. Goodness of fit chi-squares are used to analyze differences along a single category.

Comparisons were then made based on building size (as identified by the school's Kansas High School Activities Association classification), physical building style (as identified by school's initial date of construction), and community size (as

identified through U.S. census designations of urban, rural, and semi-urban). Date of initial building construction was deemed to be an appropriate measure of building style based upon the work of Castaldi (1987). Survey data were organized into frequency distributions to illustrate the percentage of responses falling into each category of use and effectiveness (See Table 1).

Relationships between building size, physical building style, and community size, to the use and perceived effectiveness of each strategy were analyzed using the chi-square test of association for each of the strategies, if possible. Computations of chi-squares were based on the data from all respondents. Those few categories with expected frequencies less than five, even after collapsing categories, were not included in the chi-square calculations. Continuity corrections were used with two-by-two chi-squares with one degree of freedom (Noether, 1990; Roscoe, 1969).

The strength of these relationships was investigated through the use of the contingency coefficient (also known as Cramer's Coefficient) if a significant chi-square was found. Contingency coefficients were used to analyze the significant findings from two-way chi-squares that were not two-by-two designs.

For those analyses utilizing a two-by-two matrix with one degree of freedom it was necessary to use a Phi-Coefficient instead of a contingency coefficient.

A significance level (alpha) of .05 was utilized in this investigation. This level was chosen even though a large number of chi-squares was being calculated because the effect of committing a Type II error was a matter of concern. Given the concerns regarding the safety of students in schools, overlooking a potentially significant finding was considered to be of great concern. The use of a more lenient alpha level is supported in the writings of Williams (1994) when the concerns about Type II error are consequential given the topic being studied.

Table 1. Relative Frequency Percentages for the Most Commonly Used Violence Prevention Strategies

Strategy	rel. f (%)
Teachers/Admin Positioned in Hallways	94
After school Athletics	83
Suspension	83
Counseling for Students	74
Night Lighting	73
Expulsion	70
Dress Codes	66
Intercom Systems	65
Parent Involvement in the School	65
Closing of Lunch Periods	60

Table 2. Relative Frequency Percentage for Top 10 Strategies by Effectiveness

Strategy	Ineff.	Somewhat	Mod	High
Teachers/Admin Positioned in Hallways	0.0	4.2	18.6	77.3
Expulsion	1.5	3.1	23.0	72.4
Security Personnel	3.8	3.8	26.4	66.0
Suspension	1.7	6.0	33.8	58.5
After School Athletics	0.9	8.1	36.6	54.5
Zero Tolerance Policies	1.7	10.0	35.0	53.3
Closing Lunch Periods	1.2	14.3	31.0	53.6
Two-way Radios	2.3	12.6	31.0	54.0
Penalties for Gang Behavior	1.1	16.8	36.8	45.3

Data on violence prevention for the ten most frequently used strategies is shown in Table 2. Data for effectiveness is shown by the percentage of respondents selecting each of the four effectiveness categories. Overall effectiveness was calculated by providing each of these categories with a weighting factor and then calculating overall effectiveness for each strategy.

Factors Considered in the Selection of Violence Prevention Strategies

To determine which factors principals considered most important when selecting a violence prevention strategy, administrators' responses to the 11 factors identified on the questionnaire were organized so that the percentage of respondents selecting each strategy could be analyzed. The percentage of respondents indicating that each of the factors was important to them in the selection of a violence prevention strategy for use in their building are listed next. Respondents were free to identify as many of the eleven factors as important as they chose. The most common factor considered was the legal implications for the strategy (85%). Public acceptance was the next most commonly identified factor (62%), followed closely by disruption to the school day (59%), then cost (56%), student participation (53%), training time (50%), student acceptance and ease of implementation (48%), skills taught (42%), and student involvement (39%). The effect that the strategy would have on the appearance of the building was cited least frequently as an area for consideration when selecting a strategy (13%).

Summary

This study addressed the use and effectiveness of violence prevention strategies in Kansas high schools, and the extent to which these strategies were affected by school size, community size, and the physical design of the building. An additional component of the study was to ascertain the factors principals considered in their selection of a violence prevention strategy.

Principal Findings

Based on the data presented the following findings were identified.

1. While school size affected the violence prevention strategies used, it did not generally have a significant impact on the perceived effectiveness of these strategies.
2. Community size affected the violence prevention strategies used; however, it did not generally have a consequential impact on the perceived effectiveness of most strategies.
3. Building style as determined by date of initial construction had no significant impact on either the strategies used or the perceived effectiveness of most of those strategies.
4. The most frequently used strategies as identified by the respondents to this study in order of use were positioning staff in the hallways during passing periods, after school athletics, suspension of violent students, counseling for students, and night lighting.
5. The most effective strategies as identified by the respondents to this survey in order of perceived effectiveness were positioning staff in the hallways during passing periods, the expulsion of violent students, the use of school security personnel, suspension of violent students, and after school athletics.
6. Three of the five most commonly used violence prevention strategies were also identified among the five most highly effective strategies. These strategies were the positioning of staff in the hallways during passing periods, suspension of violent students, and after school athletics.

7. In reviewing the five most common factors considered in the selection of a violence prevention strategy, principals identified legal concerns as the most important. After legal concerns four additional factors were identified. In order of popularity they were public acceptance, disruption to the school day, cost, and student participation. Principals were least concerned about the effect that a specific violence prevention strategy would have on the appearance of the building.

Recommendations

From the principal findings and major conclusions identified above, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Communities must understand that the violence found in classrooms is a reflection of a larger societal problem. Communities must focus on violence prevention efforts which are broader than just the school. As society has witnessed an increase in the number and severity of crimes committed by juveniles (Educational Fund to End Handgun Violence, 1993; Juvenile Crime, 1994; Studies Show, 1994), school leaders have noted an increase in the severity of student discipline problems and violence at school. In the 1940s the main discipline concerns reported by teachers included talking, chewing gum, making noise, improper dress, littering, and getting out of place in line (Jackson, 1990). In the 1950s the primary concerns identified included fighting, stealing, and disrespect toward authority. By the 1970s these concerns had risen to distracting others, fighting, and unsatisfactory attitudes toward school. In the 1980s teacher concerns were focused on assaults on teachers, burglary, extortion, and destruction of school property (Arsulich, 1979). Today, teacher concerns focus on drug abuse, alcoholism, weapons, rape, robbery, and assault. (Jackson, 1990).
2. Principals must feel safe to openly discuss discipline and violence concerns with parents and community members. As long as principals fear for their jobs, an open discussion of what takes place at school is unlikely to occur.
3. Society, and especially its public schools, must come to grips with the issues of school violence and student safety. Given the large numbers of parents who believe that safety is a primary concern in selecting a school for their children and the increased threat of private schools, public schools must find a way to address this problem. Parents are looking for safe schools and some are pulling their children from public schools and placing them in private schools which they believe to be safer (Western Regional, 1996). With school choice being an increasingly ominous concern for public schools, the ramifications of these actions are obvious especially in Kansas where funding is based almost exclusively on pupil enrollment.

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Appendix 1

Violence Prevention Strategies Identified Through Literature Review

1. Teachers and/or administrators stationed in hallways during passing periods
2. Searching students for contraband
3. Student ID cards
4. Photo ID cards
5. Metal detection systems
6. Parking stickers for students
7. Counseling for students
8. Student safety patrols
9. Peer tutoring
10. Gun safety classes
11. Anti-violence seminars
12. Law education classes for students
13. Community service projects for students
14. Mentoring programs
15. Character education classes
16. Two way radios
17. School Resource Officers (S.R.O's)
18. Off-duty police serving as security personnel (on survey as security personnel)
19. After school athletic activities
20. Summer employment programs (on survey as job placements for students)
21. Job placements for student
22. Aggression Replacement Training (on survey as student conflict management and resolution)
23. Group counseling (on survey as counseling for students)
24. Emergency shelters for students
25. Tutoring programs for students
26. Dance lessons after school (on survey as after school athletics)
27. Family counseling
28. Youth magazines and publications
29. Leadership classes
30. Conflict resolution classes (on survey this area was separated into two items, staff training in conflict management and resolution, and student training in conflict management and resolution)
31. Weekend retreats (on survey as weekend retreats/summer camps)
32. Summer Camps (on survey as weekend retreats/summer camps)
33. Businesses owned by students
34. GED classes
35. College tuition paid for students who graduate from high school
36. Latch key programs
37. Phone hotlines
38. Suspension of violent students
39. Hiring school security personnel
40. Peer mediation
41. Video monitors (on survey as video monitors or dummy monitors)
42. Dummy monitors: nonfunctional monitors (on survey as video monitors or dummy monitors)
43. Expulsion of violent students
44. Zero tolerance policies
45. Alternative schools
46. Staff training in MANDT (on survey as staff training in student de-escalation and restraint)
47. Staff training in Second Step (on survey as staff training in student de-escalation and restraint)
48. Staff training in CPI (on survey as staff training in student de-escalation and restraint)
49. Locker searches
50. Decreasing the height of lockers
51. Closing lunch periods
52. Dress codes
53. Penalties for gang related behavior
54. Parent training programs
55. Phones in classrooms
56. Alarm systems for the building
57. Volunteer/parent patrols
58. Key cards for faculty and staff/programmed door locks
59. Staff ID cards
60. Limiting the height of trees and shrubs
61. Limiting access to the building by locking secondary doors or using exit only hardware
62. Securing against roof access
63. Security fencing
64. Dome mirrors at corridor intersections
65. Intercoms
66. Home visits
67. Behavior management plans (on survey as behavior management plans/contracts for student behavior)
68. Student contracts for behavior (on survey as behavior management plans/contracts for student behavior)

The declining population with school-aged children means that many taxpayers no longer have involvement in schools. Resentment grows when schools offer family services that taxpayers regard as non-school concerns.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF NEBRASKA PUBLIC SCHOOLS: Present Perceptions and Future Needs

Barbara L. Brock, Debra L. Ponec, Vincent Hamman, Lisa Nelson, and Lori Goff

The next generation of children will live in a world that promises to be substantially different than ours. The population is predicted to double within the next decade. More than 80% of our technological inventions have developed since 1900. The information available to us is said to double every five years. In accordance, American businesses are abandoning the antiquated systems of the past and re-engineering their operations (Price, 1993).

Dramatic changes are also seen in the American family. The family model that prevailed for the last several generations bears little resemblance to current family structures. Female employment, divorce, increased residential mobility, acceptance of alternative lifestyles, and a decrease in the supervision of youth have transformed the family structure (AASA, 1982). Martin (1995) cites the absence of parents from the household as a critical factor. Once considered the primary caregivers to their children, today's parents are transferring more nurturing responsibilities to schools.

Clearly, as society and the American family change, new roles are needed by the public schools (AASA, 1982). With these concerns in mind, a comprehensive survey was conducted of administrators, counselors, teachers, parents, students, and community members in the state of Nebraska to determine current levels of satisfaction with public schooling and to explore changes that are needed in the public schools.

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A grant from the Nebraska Department of Education, in conjunction with the University of Nebraska–Lincoln, provided support for the study. The complete report of the study, *The Changing Face of Nebraska* (Brock, Ponec, Hamman, Nelson, & Goff, 1995) forms the basis for the data presented here and is available from the Nebraska Department of Education.

Survey Instrument

A survey instrument was devised to record demographic data of the respondents, their perspectives on current performance of public schools, and their perceptions of what was needed within the state to ensure quality education in the future. Respondents were asked to rate as "outstanding", "satisfactory", or "needs improvement", specific areas of school administration, classroom instruction, counseling and guidance programs, college preparatory curriculum, vocational curriculum, technology, building and grounds, family services, and community involvement. The final section contained a listing of sixteen items that could be used to answer the question, "What can be done to improve the public education system of Nebraska?" The items were based on issues found in current educational research (Ciechalski & Schmidt, 1995; Coleman, 1995; Fairchild, 1994; Hardesty & Dillard, 1994; Magg, 1994; Welsh & McCarroll, 1993). Respondents were encouraged to identify any or all of the areas in which education could be improved. Personal comments, concerns, or suggestions were also requested.

Respondents

The 100 school communities included in the study were randomly selected from the *Nebraska Education Directory*, 97th edition. Every tenth school listed in the directory was provided with an opportunity to participate. A cover letter and survey were sent to administrators, counselors, teachers, and the Chamber of Commerce of each community. Administrators were responsible for selecting a parent and a student to complete the survey. A second letter and survey were sent two weeks after the first deadline. A total of 232 surveys out of 635 (35.7%) were completed and returned by the second deadline. Those individuals responding to the 234 surveys included: 46 school administrators (19.7%), 52 counselors (22.3%), 58 teachers (24.0%), 13 students (5.6%), 24 parents (10.3%), and 41 community members (17.6%).

The low response rate of the students (5.6%) may be attributed to two factors. A few of the principals reported that they did not distribute the surveys because their students were too young. A second factor may have been the administrators' reluctance to ask students to participate due to the recent controversy regarding parental permission for students to complete survey questionnaires (Cordes, 1995). Although the students who responded expressed definite opinions, the low response limits the confidence which can be placed on the findings.

Most of the respondents were females, between 40 and 50 years of age, possessed masters' degrees, earned under $40,000 a year, spoke English in the home, and lived in communities of less than 5000 in population. The only exception was the group of administrators, the majority of whom were male (80.5%) between 41 and 60 years of age (71.7%).

Results of the Survey

Frequencies of respondents' ratings were first computed as a total group and subsequently divided and reported by each group of individuals responding: administrators, counselors, teachers, students, parents, and community members.

Overall, the total group of respondents rated the schools as satisfactory (54.9%), with 56.7% believing that classroom instruction was outstanding. The following issues rated highest in needing improvement: building and grounds (31.3%), family services (28.3%), and community involvement (28.8%).

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A statistical view of respondents' ratings regarding present school performance is noted in Table 1.

Table 1. Respondents' Beliefs Regarding Present School Performance

	Outstanding	Satisfactory	Needs Improvement
Rating of Schools	32.6	54.9	12.4
Administration	29.6	44.2	19.3
Instruction	56.7	33.0	11.2
Counseling/Guidance	25.3	37.3	21.5
College Prep Curriculum	32.6	30.5	17.2
Vocational Curriculum	18.0	35.2	22.7
Technology	30.5	32.2	23.6
Building/Grounds	26.6	35.6	31.3
Family Services	14.2	31.8	28.3
Community Involvement	21.9	23.6	28.8

Note: Percentages may not total 100 as respondents were not required to respond to each area.

Table 2. Respondents' Beliefs About Future Needs of Education

Discipline/Classroom Management	63.9%
Training for Technology	52.4
More Social Skills Training	48.5
Increased Communication Between School, Home, Community	48.1
Curb Violence	42.5
More Vocational Education	41.6
Early Childhood Education	41.1
Address Needs of the Community	36.9
Assessment Procedures	33.0
Curb the Drop-out Rate	30.9
How Subjects are Taught	29.2
Involve Community in Decision Making	27.0
School Calendar	25.3
Issues Regarding Diversity	24.0
How Classes Are Scheduled	18.9
Length of School Day	12.4

Table 2 presents a picture of the total group of respondents' beliefs regarding future educational needs. Discipline and classroom management were reported as critical issues (63.9%). Respondents also reported that training for technology (52.4%), social skills training (48.1%), and increased communication between school, home, and community (49.1%) were issues that should be reviewed and improved.

A report of administrators' views regarding present and future performance and a report of individual groups' perceptions of present and future administration of school are provided. The statistics provided are based on the total number of respondents in each group.

Administrators' Responses Regarding Present School Administration

In rating current school performance, 91% of the administrators reported the schools as satisfactory or above. Administrators rated present school administration as outstanding (50%) and satisfactory (33.0%). Administrators who rated present school administration as outstanding described administrators as caring, informed, fair, consistent, progressive, experienced, committed, responsive to the public, cooperative, and hard-working.

Administrators who rated present school administration as satisfactory (33.%), reported the following concerns, "weak links due to focus different than district goals," "spread too thin—too many duties," and "need more teacher leaders and curriculum developers." A few administrators (10%) rated administration as needing improvement, reporting that administrators were "not meeting the needs of today's schools" and "needed to improve in teacher assistance."

Administrators identified family services (47.8%), community involvement (37%), and buildings and grounds (35%) as areas that they deemed as needing improvement.

The family services area received several comments, such as, "system needs to bridge the gap between haves versus the have nots in schools," "practically no program in this area," "parents don't have the good parenting skills that used to be passed down," and "because we're a rural school few parent services are available."

Administrators expressed a strong desire to improve community involvement, making comments such as, "community involvement should be expanded and encouraged," "too many parents do not support or encourage student academic endeavors," and "parents and community need to understand why schools should be changing."

Concerns about buildings and grounds included, "lack of space and adequate facilities", "deterioration of sites due to age", and "ADA concerns." Clearly, improvements in these areas will require skillful leadership.

Administrators' Beliefs About Future Needs of School Administration

Administrators were asked what could be done to improve the public education system in Nebraska. The areas selected impact administration in that they require skilled leadership. Administrators rated changing assessment procedures (63.0%) and addressing discipline/classroom management procedures (50.0%) as the most critical needs for education in the state. In the area of changing assessment procedures administrators suggested, "moving away from paper and pencil testing and grades" and moving toward "assessment that is authentic, performance based, portfolio style, requiring the application of knowledge." One administrator suggested that schools should,"use assessment that reflects local norms rather than national norms." Suggestions for improving discipline and classroom management procedures focused on increased "parental support and involvement."

The inclusion of more social skills training (47.8%) and more training for technology (47.8%) were also reported as important areas. Administrators suggested that a curriculum for social skills be developed. Technology needs were summarized by one administrator, who said, "more, more, more."

Administrators' Suggestions For Improving School Administration

The focus of the administrators' suggestions for improving school administration was the improvement of administrative preparation. Administrators suggested offering "more practical classes, workshops, and conferences", and providing "training in all aspects of administration." Another administrator suggested evaluating "preparation programs for administrators." Other suggestions included, "better screening for candidates", "a need to increase accountability", and "more cooperation with other schools."

Counselors' Responses Regarding Present and Future Needs of School Administration

Counselors who rated administration as outstanding (30.7%) commented that administrators were "organized and striving for improvement." Administrators were also described as "caring, innovative, and encouraging." Counselors viewed outstanding administrators as "experienced, competent, capa-

ble people doing a lot with few resources available to them." They also possessed "positive leadership skills", "fiscal responsibility", vision", and "exhibited great concern for students."

Administration was deemed satisfactory by the majority of counselors (59.6%). Those identifying administration as satisfactory noted that in some instances there was "great competition" between administrators. Counselors rating administration as satisfactory described administrators as "inconsistent", "mediocre", and "in need for constant renewing." The counselors voiced concerns regarding a lack of women in higher administration, the need for additional administrators, and the administrator's "ability to do as well as they can within the constraints of time and funds available."

Counselors rating administration as needing improvement (13.5%) criticized administrators for not enough teacher support, lack of backbone in issues dealing with discipline and parents, and ineffective evaluation. The counselors remarked that administrators must get out of the office and into the field.

Counselors suggested that administrators could make improvements by being available and consistently supportive of teachers. They suggested that administrators should empower teachers, be in touch with classrooms, and stay current with new methodologies. Counselors encouraged the practice of placing more women in administration, allowing administrators' greater control of teachers' activities, promoting teachers by merit, and removing poor administrators or teachers (even tenured) with mandatory state evaluations. The counselors felt that Nebraska students deserved the best...which meant greater communication, decision making, and cooperation between administration and staff.

Teachers' Responses Regarding Present and Future Needs of School Administration

Few teachers rated administration as outstanding (13.8%). Those who rated the administration as outstanding commented that administrators took the time to get to know students, staff, and the community. Teachers reported that outstanding administrators "demonstrated fairness", and were "personable", "experienced", and "knowledgeable".

Administration was rated as satisfactory by 48.3% of the teachers. Teachers reported that administrators were willing to work hands on with students, were effective and understanding, and tried earnestly to run schools effectively and efficiently. While administration was rated as satisfactory by almost half of the teacher respondents, this category was the highest rated area in need of improvement (39.7%). Teachers commented that administrators needed to get more involved with students, be more decisive in decision making, be consistent in enforcing rules, deal more effectively with discipline, and lessen their focus of athletics/sports.

The focus of the teachers' concerns was the improvement of discipline, summed up by this response, "My biggest concern is the lack of discipline which leads to a lack of respect toward teachers and parents. Administrators often do not back teachers when it comes to discipline problems." Teachers suggested that administrators maintain stricter enforcement of disciplinary procedures.

Students' Responses Regarding Present and Future Needs of School Administration

Students who rated administration outstanding (23.0%) commented that the administration is "willing to work with students" and is "effective and understanding." One student who rated administration as satisfactory (53.8%) reported that the administration is "more understanding and has more control than last year." Another said, "schools are mostly well run and efficient." None of the students rated the administration as unsatisfactory. The only suggestion that the students made for school administrators was to, "get more involved with students."

Parents Responses Regarding Present and Future Needs of School Administration

Most of the parent respondents rated the administration of schools as outstanding (33.3) or satisfactory (54.2%). Parents who rated administration as outstanding used the following descriptors in their comments, "flexible, willing to work with parents and community, outstanding principal, good listeners, school is growing, staff improving, up-to-date, visionary, progressive, and caring for each student."

Those parents reporting administration as satisfactory indicated that there are many outstanding administrators, but some are mediocre. Parents also stressed a need for consistent discipline. Parents who rated administration as needs improvement (12.5%) commented that Class I schools should not have all eight grades. Some parents criticized administrators for not being motivated and having poor communication and public relations skills. One parent said, "Since these jobs are paid for by taxpayers, all of these areas should constantly look for ways to improve. I don't think any school system should ever be exempt from striving to improve every area within their system." Suggestions for improving administration included, "small schools should not be in charge of their own special education," and administration "must expect the best from the staff—don't keep dead-beat teachers." Other comments suggesting bringing the schools into the '90s, needing principals who are honest, business minded, and who have good public relations skills. Some parents suggested that administrators enforce stricter discipline and increase their communications with parents.

Community Members' Responses Regarding Present and Future Needs of School Administration

Although community members rated the schools as satisfactory (46.3%) in performance, in their comments they generally agreed that administrators had room for improvement. Comments included, "They should work for all kids—not just athletes" and "be less administrative and more real world" focused.

Implications of the Study

Several themes were identified from the data collected. Future leadership, family services, discipline, technology, aging buildings, and community involvement were identified as areas of concern.

The ages of administrators represented in the study were indicative of a concern for adequate school leadership in the future. Most of the administrators who responded were between the ages of 40 and 60, with many between the ages of 50 and 60. The small number of administrators in the 30 to 40 age group (17%) indicated a small pool of leadership to meet future retirement needs. A study of administrative career aspirations of Nebraska student teachers, (Grady, Carlson, and Brock, 1992), reported that student teachers indicated an interest in administrative careers. However, whether these teachers receive the encouragement to change interest into active pursuit of an administrative career is questionable. A need exists for experienced administrators to seek out young teachers with leadership potential, provide encouragement, and sponsorship toward administrative careers.

Sponsorship for females entering school administration is particularly important. As noted in this study, the administrators who responded included few females. The counselors also commented on the lack of female administrators in the schools. This small percentage of female administrators is typical of the scarcity of females in educational administration on a national level (Pigford and Tonnsen, 1993). Increasing the number of females in school administration is an issue that needs to be addressed by school districts as well as preparatory institutions. Young women who are interested in administration need models, mentors, and encouragement. Women who already

hold administrative positions can be instrumental in identifying and sponsoring other females who aspire to leadership positions (Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993; Grady, Carlson, & Brock, 1992; Grady & Brock, 1993).

The needs of the family was a noticeable concern of the administrators. Parents are busy working, and in many instances a single parent is in charge of the family. In short, the family structure is changing and new roles are needed by schools and administrators to address the conditions. If children are to learn, their families must support education, and the school must be supportive of the family. Part of a school's function is to recognize what families need and to use the school as a location for the delivery of these services (Jeffer & Olebe, 1994; Joint Economic Committee, 1988). The administrators indicated that schools need to be responsive to the changing needs of students and families. Most reported a need to improve services that they offer.

Although most of the respondents believed that administrators were performing satisfactorily, concerns were identified in the areas of discipline and involvement with students. Teachers, counselors, and parents mentioned a need for more consistent enforcement of discipline by administrators. Teachers also expressed concerns about the lack of administrative support for teachers in disciplinary situations. Students, parents, counselors, and community members identified a need for administrators to become more involved with students. Clearly, these are areas in which administrators need to make improvements in policies, procedures, and consistency.

Concurrent with family transformation, the nation is experiencing a technological explosion. Technology that changed slowly in the past is now multiplying on a daily basis. During the last 15 years of the 20th century we will see as much technological change as there was in the first 85 years (Price (1993). This new information society requires a person comfortable with and competent in using the ever-changing technology (Negroni, 1992). Small wonder that the administrators expressed a need to narrow the widening gap between technology and training in the schools.

A need to improve physical plants surfaced during the study. Administrators reported that buildings were aging and in need of improvements. Inadequate space and poor facilities were obstacles in providing optimal educational experiences for students.

A pervasive theme of the survey was a need for increased dialogue and reciprocal involvement of parents and community members with the schools. This is a key issue. School improvements occur only when parents and the larger community of taxpayers know what the school needs and are willing to financially support the changes. Administrators need to update strategies to communicate with parents and community. The school newsletter, once the key communication tool, is no longer the only solution. The use of mass media needs to increase. Parent conferences, open houses, and volunteer opportunities should accommodate parent work schedules.

The declining population with school-aged children means that many taxpayers no longer have involvement in the schools. Citizens may not be aware of the demographic and societal issues that require curriculum changes and building improvements. Resentment grows when schools offer family services that taxpayers regard as non-school concerns. For example, some respondents in the study expressed the opinion that parents should be home with their children instead of relying on schools to offer programs. The community of taxpayers and voters must clearly understand the need for change before funding will be provided. Community involvement is the key to taxpayer support.

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. . . There is a reason to believe that women superintendents in this country are seeing the primacy of relationships and do configure their ideas about management in relational terms.

A Leadership Perspective From Women Superintendents

Linda Hampton Wesson and Marilyn L. Grady

The prevailing model of educational administration evolved over the last part of the nineteenth and the early decades of the twentieth centuries (Callahan, cited in Adkison, 1981). This leadership model paralleled the managerial changes in business, industry, and government; it defined the professional manager as a person who had an "internal decision-making monopoly and authority over others" (Kanter, cited in Adkison, p. 313, 1981) and relied on rigid hierarchical structure, competition, and control to bring about results (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988).

There are serious questions about the efficacy of this leadership model. As early as 1988, researchers in educational administration were asking two fundamental questions that highlighted this dilemma: "To what extent does a system of hierarchical control enhance teaching and learning? . . . To what extent do traditional ranking and emphasis on competition square with the enhancement of educators as people and of instructional services?" (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988, p. 138).

Experts in business management (Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992; Block, 1991; Covey, 1990; Helgesen, 1990; Peters, 1988; Wheatley, 1992) have discussed the changes in leadership models. These changes are depicted as a shift toward a more flexible organizational structure based on units that are more lateral and cooperative. Wheatley (1992) considers the need for these kinds of changes when she says:

> Scientists in many different disciplines are questioning whether we can adequately explain how the world works by using the machine imagery created in the seventeenth century, most notably by Sir Isaac Newton. In the machine model, one must understand parts. . . . The assumption is that by comprehending the workings of each piece, the whole can be understood. The Newtonian model of the world is characterized by materialism and reductionism—a focus on things rather than relationships. (p. 9)

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In her view, organizational change is taking place in part because the new sciences have changed the way in which we view the world. Defining the new sciences as the disciplines of physics, biology, chemistry, and theories of evolution and chaos that cross several disciplines, she explains the nature of these changes:

> In the new science, the underlying currents are a movement toward holism, toward understanding the system as a system and giving primary value to the relationships that exist among seemingly discrete parts. Our concept of organizations is moving away from the mechanistic creations that flourished in the age of bureaucracy. We have begun to speak in earnest of fluid, organic structures, even boundaryless organizations. (Wheatley, 1992, p. 13)

Those in education also have articulated a need for a paradigm shift in educational administration (Giroux, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1984); beginning with the educational reform movement in the 1980s, there have been serious discussions about the need for changes in the traditional, hierarchial, control-and-command environments found in many schools (Wesson & Grady, 1994). These kinds of changes could transform school into viable communities. As Wood (1990) notes:

> We take for granted that our schools are communities, when, in fact, they are merely institutions that can become communities only when we work at it. But, with proper attention to all the individuals within the school, we can create an experience for students that demonstrates what it means to be a compassionate, involved citizen. For it is only within a community, not an institution, that we learn how to hold fast to such principles as working for the common good, empathy, equity, and self-respect. (p. 33)

Educational leaders in these "communities of learners" value leadership over management and emphasize collaboration, consensus building, and empowerment. Emphasis is placed on vision, values, and guiding principles (Sergiovanni, 1990). The critical theorist, Giroux (1993), expresses the distinctive nature of this kind of educational leadership:

> Instead of weaving dreams limited to the ever-accelerating demand for tougher tests, accountability schemes, and leadership models forged in the discourse of a sterile technician, schools of education need programs which are part of a collective effort to build and revitalize a democratic culture which is open rather than fixed, disputed rather than given, and supportive rather than intolerant of cultural difference. (p. 22–23)

This research was conducted to see if women superintendents are in fact using leadership practices that fit this kind of paradigm shift in educational administration.

Methodology

To understand more about the leadership practices of women superintendents, the researchers conducted a national study which was two-fold in nature. First, we interviewed a national sample of women superintendents about their perceived sources of job satisfaction, the benefits accrued on the job, their sense of self-fulfillment in the work place, and personal strengths they brought to the job. Second, we assessed the leadership practices of women superintendents using the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Theoretical Framework for the LPI

Kouzes and Posner framed leadership from information they gathered from managers and executives in the public and private sector who described their "personal best;" that is, the leadership behavior used by the managers and executives

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when they received outstanding results (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). These "personal best" leadership practices can best be described by the following five practices, each of which has two attendant behaviors:

I. Challenging the process : A. Search for opportunities B. Experiment and take risks
II. Inspiring a shared vision: A. Envision the future B. Enlist others
III. Enabling others to act: A. Foster collaboration B. Strengthen others
IV. Modeling the way: A. Set the example B. Plan small wins
V. Encouraging the heart: A. Recognize contributions B. Celebrate accomplishments

The Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1988) measures the extent leaders have adopted these five leadership practices and ten behaviors.

Procedures

Since we were unable to locate a comprehensive directory of women superintendents, we solicited assistance from the American Association of School Administrators, state associations of school administrators, U. S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI), state departments of education, and other researchers. We did receive lists of superintendents' names from state departments of education and state administrators' groups. However, some states would not release the names of their superintendents. Thus we were able to identify 346 women superintendents in twenty-nine states and unable to secure names of women superintendents in the other twenty-one states. All 346 women superintendents received a letter explaining the study and were asked two questions: Would you be willing to participate in the study and how many years have you been a superintendent? After one mailing 263 (76%) of the superintendents responded. Of the 263 respondents, 249 (95%) agreed to take part in the study.

Because we were interested in differences in rural and urban superintendents, we classified superintendents working in population centers of 50,000 or more or in an area adjacent to such a population center as urban. All others were classified as rural/small school superintendents. In the initial study all 31 superintendents identified as urban were selected for telephone interviews. We randomly selected 31 rural/small school superintendents for interviews so that we could have an equivalent number of rural/small school superintendents for comparison with the urban subjects.

Twenty-one urban and 30 rural superintendents were available for a telephone interview during January, 1993. The superintendents answered ten open-ended questions in sequence during interviews of 30 to 45 minutes in length. The researchers independently reviewed the transcripts of the interviews and identified major themes. The researchers compared their findings to verify accurate identification and naming of the themes. Independently, the researchers developed categories of themes. The researchers then compared the categories and developed the final analysis. (For a full discussion of this study see Grady, Ourada–Sieb, and Wesson, 1994.)

With the permission of the authors, the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1988) was mailed in July of 1993 to the 249 women superintendents who agreed to take part in the study. One hundred seventy-four (70%) of these women completed and returned the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self.

Findings

The initial study investigated these superintendents' perceived sources of job satisfaction, the benefits accrued on the job, their sense of self-fulfillment in the work place, and personal strengths they brought to the job. The results of this study, which consisted of telephone interviews with 21 urban and 30 rural women superintendents, can be described as follows: Most of the urban and rural/small school women superintendents have been hired to be change agents, and they describe their leadership characteristics in similar ways. Whether in a highly bureaucratic, urban organization or a small rural setting, these women superintendents are successfully building collegial-collaborative organizations. Both are operationalizing leadership skills that fit a new leadership paradigm that values change and connectiveness (Shakeshaft, 1987).

The results of the follow-up study delineate more clearly the leadership practices of the superintendents in this country, but did not delineate differences in urban and rural/small school superintendents. An analysis of the scores on the five categories of the Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1993) reveals mean scores for the 174 women superintendents who completed and returned the LPI at or above the eightieth percentile.[1] This percentile ranking is classified by Posner and Kouzes (1992) in the self-assessment and analysis manual as a high ranking. In fact, they state that "studies indicate that a high score is one at or above the seventieth percentile" (p. 12).

Table 1. Results of LPI-SELF

	Female Superintendents (N = 174)		
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Comparative Percentile
Challenging the Process	25.78	4.29	83
Inspiring a Shared Vision	25.67	4.27	90
Enabling Others to Act	27.31	4.55	80
Modeling the Way	25.25	4.20	83
Encouraging the Heart	25.51	4.20	82

The percentile ranks of these women superintendents indicate that they ranked highest in Inspiring a Shared Vision (90th percentile) and lowest in Enabling Others to Act (80th percentile), but what is most remarkable is that they exhibit high mean scores in all of the leadership practices. With thirty points possible in each practice, the lowest mean score for a category was 25.25 and the highest mean score for a category was 27.31. It is evident that these women do well in the five practices and ten accompanying behaviors that have been described by Kouzes and Posner as the "fundamental practices and behaviors in exemplary leadership" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987, p. 279). Although Kouzes and Posner caution against interpreting the LPI-Self scores independently of LPI-Other feedback, the normative data of the LPI-Other have mean scores for each category that are only plus or minus 1.2 points different from the mean scores for each category of the LPI-Self.

Consideration needs to be given to the differences between our sample of women superintendents and the sample used to norm the LPI-Self. The normative sample consisted of 3,601 males and 1,011 females. (See Posner and Kouzes, Psychometric Properties of the Leadership Practices Inventory, 1992, for a full discussion of the LPI.) This sample did not include educators but according to the authors did represent a "full array of functional fields (e.g., management, marketing, finance, manufacturing, accounting, engineering, sales, human resource development, information systems, etc.)" (Posner & Kouzes, 1992, p. 2). The normative sample was only 28% female, but the scores indicate that "male and female respondents are more alike in terms of their leadership practices than they are different . . . although female managers reported that they engaged in Modeling the Way and Encouraging the Heart more frequently than did their male counterparts" (Posner & Kouzes, 1992, p. 14).

Discussion

We began this research by examining the positive aspects of being a women superintendent since previous studies seem to focus on the pathology of the position rather than its benefits. As the superintendents in the initial study talked about what was satisfying about the job, we found that what they liked about the job was the way they were able to lead—their leadership practices. These leadership practices seemed to be very similar. In general, what they enjoyed was the human relations part of their job—those leadership practices that emphasized the relational aspects of leadership. They recognized the importance and placed value on all kinds of relationships, relationships between and among teachers, children, the community, the school board, and state department personnel. Because the initial study indicated that the superintendents we interviewed were using leadership practices different from the practices that have been traditional in educational administration, the LPI-Self was used to provide quantitative data and discrete terminology to the kinds of practices these superintendents were using; the data also contribute to the triangulation of the initial findings (Mathison, 1988).

We chose the LPI-Self since this inventory came closest to empirically measuring the conceptual leadership framework that became apparent as we interviewed these women superintendents. Also other researchers had used the LPI to measure what is termed transformational or visionary leadership (Stoner–Zemel, 1988; Tarazi, 1990), a term we thought best described the superintendents we had interviewed. We now have quantitative data that corroborates our initial findings. Both urban and rural women superintendents are using leadership practices that are indeed different from the prevailing model of educational administration, and this shift in leadership practices resembles the paradigm shift in leadership depicted in business management literature. As Wheatley (1992) suggests,

> If the physics of our universe is revealing the primacy of relationships, is it any wonder that we are beginning to reconfigure our ideas about management in relational terms? (p. 12)

This research indicates that there is reason to believe that women superintendents in this country are seeing the "primacy of relationships" and do configure their ideas about management in relational terms. It is interesting to speculate if other superintendents are doing the same.

Endnote

1. The manual for the LPI reports percentile rankings only for the aggregated self ratings and observer ratings and does not separately report percentile equivalents for self and observer ratings, thereby making a direct comparison of our sample subjects with one national sample somewhat problematic. Since self ratings tend to be higher than observer ratings and since our sample data included only self-ratings, it seemed more appropriate to compare our sample data with the national data on self-ratings. To do this, we calculated a weighted mean and standard deviation for the national data, which takes into account the uneven representation of men and women in those data. We then calculated z scores for all possible scores on the LPI-Self. This enabled us to create a table of percentile rankings in self-ratings for the national sample scores. It was then a straightforward procedure to calculate z scores for our sample mean scores of 174 women superintendents in each of the five leadership domains of the LPI using the standard z score formula and then consulting a table of areas under the normal curve to derive percentile rankings for our sample

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. . . Technology provides significant opportunities through which teachers can move from . . . historical conventional instruction . . . to . . . reform instruction.

TECHNOLOGY IN EDUCATION: Building on the Past, Looking to the Future

John D. Parmley

Commenting on the current state of education in this country or predicting future directions for classroom professionals is an challenging endeavor. Some educators suggest that we should examine the past in order to find answers to current and emerging problems. Still others indicate that today's problems are so complex as to have almost no association with past practices. Clearly, the rapidity of change and the intensity of change provide sizable hurdles for everyone involved in the teaching and learning process. At the same time that rapid and intense changes are occurring, the most prolonged and intense examination of education in the history of the country is also in progress. This examination process is made even more difficult because many stake holders, decision makers, and decision implementers are ill prepared to reach conclusions which have extensive impacts on a dynamic system.

But before we leap forward and analyze issues which are influencing our future, this author recommends that we review of some of the earliest stages of the development of public education in this country and thereby establish a foundation from which to examine some of the latest educational issues. While the rapidity of change in mid 1990's may sway our thoughts away from historical bases, it seems reasonable to examine these early building blocks and their impact on contemporary practices.

The setting and some of the underlying forces behind the initial development and growth of public education were characterized by educational historian Melvin L. Barlow as part of the celebration of the nation's bicentennial. He wrote:

> The common school, the basic unit of the American school system, emerged as a response to the conditions of American life during the period 1825–1860. Its origin is related to the play of social forces and ideas agitating the young Republic. Commerce and industry were expanding. Improvements in transportation and communication—roads, canals, and railroads—brought communities closer together, stimulating the exchange of goods and services as well as the growth of cities. In 1820 the United States boasted twelve cities of 10,000 or more; by 1860 over 100. The emergence of the common school also owed much to the growing heterogeneity of the population. In the 1830's, 40's, and 50's came the great tide of European immigration. The common school would be a means of uniting the growing heterogeneous population by giving the immigrants an understanding of American ways. (p. 31)

Thus, we are reminded that common schools, which we would later refer to as K–12 schools, began with a dual mission of delivering content and socializing young people so that they would have a "common" view of what it meant to be an American. While an in-depth examination of the history related to the development of K–12 schooling in this country is beyond the scope of this discourse, it is the conclusion of the author that socialization—how to get along with others, what it means to be responsible or behave like an adult—has continued to be a major focus of the American K–12 school system across a vast expanse of time to contemporary times.

While the early nineteenth century perspective is quite valuable, perhaps additional keys to seemingly locked corridors leading to "meaningful progress" can be found in the consideration of K–12 schooling during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. In a document entitled, *Toward a New Science of Instruction*, Kate Maloy (1993) presented the following synopsis:

> A century ago, in the newly industrializing United States economy, mass education evolved largely to serve the needs of mass production. Most workers were expected to perform isolated tasks within the production process, executing procedures rather than planning or evaluating them, and carrying out assignments rather than asking questions or offering ideas. It was therefore assumed that the majority of children, who would enter work of this nature, needed no more from their education than fundamental competency in reading and computation. Both job knowledge and the knowledge learned in school were conceived as sets of basic skills, applied to the job at hand with no necessary grasp of the larger purposes being served.
>
> These larger purposes—the complex responsibilities of business, government, higher education, and the professions—were seen as the proper concerns of a small minority. As a result, a few students were held to higher expectations than the rest. They were encouraged to reach energetically for what today are called "higher-order" skills, which enable students to question and investigate assertions, devise and test hypotheses, analyze and solve problems, and apply knowledge beyond school boundaries. Education of this quality had been around for centuries, but it was reserved for those who would one day manage or govern. (http://www.ed.gov/pubs/InstScience/index.html, October 16, 1996)

Maloy's account of that formative period reveals the beginnings of critical thinking and problem solving skill development made available to the masses. However, communication and mathematic literacy as well as socialization for a laborer career continued to be the dominant missions of K–12 schools

As part of the major focus of schooling, socialization did not encounter formidable and prolonged criticism until the early 1980's. While America's involvement in the race for supremacy in space provided significant encouragement for advancements in math and science, it was not until the educational reform movement was launched that enormous amounts of

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critical attention was given to the all concepts, processes, materials, and groups involved in education. Throughout this prolonged period of examination, many observers have expressed concern about the slow pace of meaningful progress. In one such examination of progress, Means, Blando, Olson, and Middleton (1993) captured some of the prevalent opinions as follows:

> Political leaders, employers, and the public are expressing an unprecedented level of concern with the state of education in America. Since the stark warning in *A Nation at Risk* that the erosion of educational standards "threatens our very future as a Nation and a people", we have seen a proliferation of education reform efforts. Most prevalent during the 1980's were efforts aimed at raising course requirements and scores on standardized achievement tests. Critics have characterized these earlier reform efforts as quantitative rather than qualitative in nature (i.e., "more of the same"). The result was an increase in the number of school courses with advanced academic titles, but the nature of instruction remained unchanged and course content often failed to live up to course titles. Achievement of more advanced skills in subject areas showed no discernible gains. (http://www.ed.gov/pubs/EdReformStudies/TechReforms, October 16, 1996)

Beginning with the appointment of a National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1981 and the 1983 publication of the report, *A Nation at Risk* political and educational leaders began calling for widespread, systemic reform focusing on four major recommendations: 1) a strengthening of graduation requirements, 2) more rigorous and measurable standards, 3) more time in school, and 4) significant improvement of teaching. With these recommendations and the specific goals which were identified to support the recommendations, the United States K–12 educational system was challenged to take gargantuan steps into unknown territory.

While this author recognizes the significance of recommendations one, two and three, the major focus of this paper is the improvement of teaching or the teaching and learning process. While progress related to each of the first three recommendations could be achieved through appropriate deliberation and subsequent action from various policy making groups, "significant improvement of teaching" required action from 2.9 million elementary and secondary teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 1995, http://www.ed.gov/pubs/Prog95/index.html, October 16, 1996).

As part of the examination and reform process, a variety of teaching and learning strategies have received substantial attention. Among these continues to be the use of technology to significantly alter and enhance the classroom learning environment. In their 1993 publication, *Using Technology to Support Education Reform*, Means, Blando, Olson, and Middleton provided initial support for the use of technology in classrooms as they wrote:

> Many critics of American schools see technology as an important tool in bringing about the kind of revolutionary changes called for in these new reform efforts. Having seen the ways in which technology has transformed the workplace, and, indeed, most of our communications and commercial activities, the business community and the public in general are exerting pressure for comparable changes within schools.
>
> Thus, support for the use of technology to promote fundamental school reform appears to be reaching a new high. At the same time, we have the opportunity to profit from the experiences of those educational institutions that already have implemented various technological innovations within the context of serious reform efforts. In these cases, technology is viewed as a means of supporting goals related to increased student involvement with complex, authentic tasks and new organizational structures within classrooms and schools. . . . (http://www.ed.gov/pubs/EdReformStudies/TechReforms October 16, 1996)

The authors continue by stating their belief as well as the conclusions drawn by other researchers that "advanced skills of comprehension, reasoning, composition, and experimentation are acquired not through the transmission of facts but through the learner's interaction with content." They further explain that this "constructivist view of learning, with its call for teaching basic skills within authentic contexts (hence more complex problems), for modeling expert thought processes, and for providing for collaboration and external supports to permit students to achieve intellectual accomplishments they could not do on their own. . . ." should provide substantial ideas for meaningful reform efforts.

Following thorough consideration of historical elements and emerging opportunities, this author working in concert with wife and colleague, Dr. Dianna Parmley, began examining a variety of classroom applications of computer technologies. Limiting their attention to *interactive* technologies and applications which require significant involvement from each learner led Parmley and Parmley to a strategy they have labeled Interpretive Learning Experiences.

The concept of interpretive learning experiences is based in part on Bloom's (1964) identification of a cognitive learning domain with six levels listed from simplest to most complex, i.e., knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Another major contributor to this concept is the educational approach utilized by such organizations as the National Park Service as they provide special insight into or interpretations of historical, natural and/or cultural resources for visitors at their sites.

Bloom's Cognitive Domain

Bloom's (1964) landmark work identified levels of complexity in thinking. His lowest level of complexity is termed knowledge. If students are proficient at the knowledge level of this domain they exhibit such learning outcomes as: defining describing, identifying, labeling, listing, matching, naming, outlining, reproducing, selecting and stating. While we have traditionally thought of information gathering or knowledge acquisition activities revolving around printed documents, we may now expand this vision to include opportunities for students to obtain and exchange information through interaction with compact disk (CD-ROM) products electronic networks such as the World Wide Web.

Bloom's next level of complexity is termed comprehension. A student who is proficient at the comprehension level would exhibit such learning outcomes as: converting, defending, distinguishing, estimating, explaining, giving examples, predicting, rewriting, and summarizing. The use of text and graphic technologies, individually or in an integrated mode, offer a variety of opportunities for students to provide evidence of their proficiency in comprehending content and concepts.

Bloom follows comprehension with application. A student who is proficient at the application level would exhibit such learning outcomes as: changing, computing, demonstrating, discovering, manipulating, modifying, operating, predicting, relating, solving and using. Again, as the level of complexity increases, the number of creative opportunities to enhance learning also seems to increase. Information technologies provide opportunities to simulate application activities through opportunities to manipulate data and make predictions.

As individuals enter the remaining levels of Bloom's cognitive domain, often referred to as higher order thinking skill levels, the challenges and opportunities become more extensive. We begin with analysis. A student who is proficient at the analysis level would exhibit such learning outcomes as: diagraming, differentiating, discriminating, distinguishing, identifying, illustrating, inferring, selecting, and separating. We next climb to synthesis. A student who is proficient at the synthesis level would exhibit such learning outcomes as: categorizing, combining, compiling, composing, creating, designing, modifying, organizing, revising, and summarizing.

With analysis and synthesis, as with the previous levels, students may utilize a variety of information technologies to enhance their intellectual foundation related to an issue or problem. Of special interest to those working at the analysis and synthesis levels are the opportunities to significantly expand information sources. Through interaction with on-line data bases and electronic communication with informed individuals, one may develop an expanded information base from which to conduct an analysis and construct a synthesis. Without access to the opportunities provided by information technologies, analysis and synthesis activities become more limited in their scope and impact.

Finally we arrive at the top level of Bloom's cognitive domain, evaluation. A student who is proficient at the evaluation level would exhibit such learning outcomes as: appraising, comparing, concluding, contrasting, criticizing, describing, discriminating, explaining, justifying, interpreting, and supporting. Interactive presentation technologies provide opportunities to facilitate evaluation of students' work by other students as well as by the teacher.

Interpretation

While one root of the concept is firmly anchored in the classic work of Bloom and closely associated with school based education, the other root has grown out of the educational missions and strategies utilized by individuals best described as educators in interpretive settings. Such individuals would be found working with visitors at such locations as museums, state and national parks. The work of interpreters has been described by Tilden (1977) as he provided one of the early definitive discussions of this mission.

> The word interpretation as used in this book refers to a public service that has so recently come into our cultural world that a resort to the dictionary for a competent definition is fruitless. Besides a few obsolete meanings, the word has several special implications still in common use: the translation from one language into another by a qualified linguist; the construction placed upon a legal document; even the mystical explanation of dreams and omens.
>
> Yet every year millions of Americans visit the national parks and monuments, the state and municipal parks, battlefield areas, historic houses publicly or privately owned, museums great and small—the components of a vast preservation of shrines and treasures in which may be seen and enjoyed the story of our natural and man-made heritage.
>
> In most of such places the visitor is exposed, if he chooses, to a kind of elective education that is superior in some respects to that of the classroom, for here he meets the Thing Itself—whether it be a wonder of Nature's work, or the act or work of Man. "To pay a personal visit to a historic shrine is to receive a concept such as no book can supply," someone has said; and surely to stand at the rim of the Grand Canyon of the Colorado is to experience a spiritual elevation that could come from no human description of the colossal chasm.
>
> Thousands of naturalists, historians, archeologists and other specialists are engaged in the work of revealing, to such visitors as desire the service, something of the beauty and wonder, the inspiration and spiritual meaning that lie behind what the visitor can with his senses perceive. This function of the custodians of our treasures is called interpretation. (p. 3)

Additional insight into the concept of interpretation is provided by John Veverka in his 1994 publication *Interpretive Master Planning*. He defines interpretation as "a communication process designed to reveal meanings and relationships. . . ." (p. 19) In other words, interpretation is a process of sharing more than just surface information.

What are interpretive learning experience strategies?

Building on our examination of cognitive learning and interpretation, we now begin consideration of interpretive learning experiences. Learning opportunities which feature interpretive learning experience strategies emphasize a unique opportunity for students to develop a multi sensory or multimedia interpretation of the content in question in preparation for sharing such interpretations with classmates, teachers, parents and/or others. By identifying still and motion images, locating or developing sound resources, developing possible text messages and sequencing each resource, students have an opportunity to tie together the processing activities involved in moving from knowledge through comprehension, application, analysis and synthesis. The preparation of such a multimedia interpretation provides an expanded and solid base for individuals or groups to enter into a larger discussion or evaluative conversation about the content.

The application of this strategy requires significant changes in the roles of teacher and learner. The teacher assumes the role facilitator who assists students as they identify and seek access to information. Such a role is in stark contrast to the historically defined role of the teacher as distributor of knowledge. At the same time, students must move away from a historic role of absorbing knowledge and toward a role of using information to construct knowledge.

An example of application in a classroom

The interpretive learning experiences concept was originally developed during the authors' work with the staffs of Mesa Verde National Park and Hovenweep National Monument in southwestern Colorado. As previously stated, the concept provides an opportunity for higher order thinking skill development. However, when applied to a set of issues or problems, such as those associated with the early Native American culture preserved within such sites as Mesa Verde and Hovenweep, it also provides opportunities for integration of learning activities from a variety of disciplines to assist students in solving real world problems which involve concepts from many academic disciplines.

The instructional concept as applied to this early Native American culture example provides an opportunity for learners to investigate one or more of the major questions which have remained largely unanswered following the departure of the prehistoric Anasazi or Ancestral Puebloan culture from the American Southwest in the later part of the thirteenth century. Three of these central questions include: How were these people able to make the move from a nomadic existence to a more permanent civilization? What was life like for these people during their stay in the region? Why did over 40,000 people leave the Southwestern Colorado/Southeastern Utah region during the last quarter of the thirteenth century after having lived in the region for approximately 800 years?

According to Parmley, Hutchinson, Hower, Morris, and Parmley, (1995),

The instructional concept provides an opportunity for students to consider a question such as, "What was life like at various time periods in the development of the Ancestral Puebloan or Anasazi culture?" Students then obtain an overview of the culture and the present setting by interacting with the CD product, viewing digital graphic renderings and still photographs, digital video material, traditional printed information, information obtained through electronic interaction with the Mesa Verde staff (or other professionals such as the Hovenweep Staff), and other possible information sources. Next, students begin to **investigate** a number of more specific questions through further interaction with identified data sources. For example, middle-level or junior high students utilize their math and science skills to **analyze** primitive crop production, soil conservation practices in shallow soil, the impact of settlements located at 7,000 feet elevation on a fragile ecosystem. Students use their knowledge of social studies to **analyze** population densities, reasons why groups or clans occupied certain locations, and reasons why the current population in the region is approximately 20,000 individuals (1990, Bureau of Census) as compared to approximately 35,000–40,000 individuals who occupied the region at the height of this prehistoric culture. After analyzing such questions, students **synthesize** information and **draw conclusions.** Next they develop a technology based multimedia **interpretation of their findings and conclusions.** Finally, students present their **interpretation** to their classmates and respond to questions which help them evaluate their own work as well as the efforts of others. (p. 87)

While this paper has focused on one specific strategy for using technology, the author contends that technology provides significant opportunities through which teachers can move from what Means, Blando, Olson and Middleton (1993) refer to as historical "Conventional Instruction" and move to what they refer to as "Reform Instruction". The following table summarizes the two approaches.

Comparison of Conventional and Reform Approaches to Instruction*

Conventional Instruction	Reform Instruction
Teacher-directed	Student exploration
Didactic teaching	Interactive modes of instruction
Short block of instruction on single subject	Extended blocks of authentic and multidisciplinary work
Individual work	Collaborative work
Teacher as knowledge dispenser	Teacher as facilitator
Ability groupings	Heterogeneous groupings
Assessment of fact knowledge and discrete skills	Performance-based assessment

*Means, B., et.al. (1993). "Using Technology to Support Education Reform", Washington, D.C. United States Department of Education.

Finally we return to consideration of the concepts of socialization versus advanced content learning in schools and the role of technology in contemporary classroom settings. While much emphasis is being placed on strategies which enhance cognitive learning, this author contends that effective uses of technology and such specific strategies as Interpretive Learning Experiences, feature extensive opportunities for students and teacher(s) to interact. Students working in collaborative teams tend to enhance learning opportunities as well as opportunities for social interaction. The team approach also provides an opportunity to provide and expect additional depth of understanding. When team members assume various responsibilities and subsequently weave information together, test their information and conclusions against the work of other students or authors and finally defend their work, a significantly enhanced learning experience has been created. While the presence of technology is not essential to such an enriched experience, the presence of technology makes such experiences more feasible for students and teachers.

In conclusion,this author believes, as we search for solutions to what are currently referred to as problems associated with education, if we invest time examining the history and development of education we enhance the probability of not only *finding solutions,* but also, *understanding solutions.* Thus we **build** on past efforts while looking to the future.

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Approximately half of the traditionally prepared newcomers [teachers] to urban schools either quit or fail within five years.

PREPARING FUTURE URBAN ELEMENTARY TEACHERS: The Perceptions of Student Teachers in Urban-Comer and Non-Comer Settings

David W. Van Cleaf and Donovan Cook

"If I had done my student teaching in a school like this, I would have been better prepared!" (First semester Comer school teacher).

In an attempt to help preservice teachers gain an understanding of the profession and the challenges they will encounter as professional educators, schools and colleges of education provide foundations courses. These courses have traditionally included content related to history, philosophy, psychology, and sociology. More recently, preparation in educational foundations courses has come to include studies related to the cultural bases of education. However, foundations course work designed to teach preservice teachers about the multicultural needs of youth has not prepared individuals for the urban classroom (Grant, 1994).

Success as a teacher in many of today's inner-city schools is not easily attained. Because of dwindling resources, high poverty rates, overcrowding, wide-ranging language abilities and academic skills, chronic absenteeism, violence, and motivation problems, which are exacerbated by poverty (Reed & Simon, 1991), most new teachers are overwhelmed with the problems they encounter in inner-city schools. Aaronsohn, Carte, and Howell (1995) assert that part of the problem is a result of limitations in teacher preparation programs. They conclude that a majority of current teacher education graduates are unprepared to deal with the challenges they encounter in inner-city schools.

This lack of preparation manifests itself in several ways. Administrators in urban schools find it difficult to attract and retain capable teachers. Paine (1989) reported that new teachers tend to seek jobs with populations similar to their own. According to Gallegos (1995), many new teachers who accept positions in urban schools almost immediately " . . . plan their escape—to non-teaching or administrative positions in suburban school systems" (p. 783). Haberman (1995) indicated that approximately half of the traditionally prepared newcomers to urban schools either quit or fail within five years.

Field experiences have become an integral part of teacher education programs. Ladson–Billings (1994) predicts that if teachers are to be successful, they must be prepared to teach racially different children. Yet today's teacher training institutions often provide field experiences under ideal conditions (Haberman, 1995). This practice results in preservice teachers having limited opportunities to work with a diverse range of children.

To increase the likelihood of success for future urban teachers, teacher educators should provide preservice teachers with more experiences in urban schools. "Best practice," writes Haberman (1995), would be to learn "effective practice under the worst of conditions" (p. 778). Extending this postulate, Haberman states that the "most reasonable basis for awarding teaching licensure would be to prepare teachers in the poorest schools" (p. 778).

Programs preparing preservice teachers in urban settings have been successful. Pagano, Weiner, Obi, and Swearingen (1995) and Aaronsohn (1995) found that students who had been involved in preservice experiences in urban schools were more comfortable and, in some cases, motivated to want to teach in urban settings. Stallings and Quinn (1991) reported that individuals who participated in preservice urban field experiences expressed a greater interest in teaching in urban schools and actually got jobs in inner city schools. Further, they had principals who reported high levels of teacher success.

Washburn University adopted an urban mission in 1992 and the university's teacher education program began assigning a greater proportion of students to field experiences in urban schools. In that year the teacher education program joined the Comer School Development Program (SDP) and formed a school–university partnership with the Topeka Public Schools. This is one of three such partnerships in the country.

The Comer School Development Program has potential for contributing to the preparation of preservice teachers. Comer's SDP is an intervention program developed by James P. Comer and his associates at Yale Child Development Center (Comer, 1980). The program targets schools with poor minority youth, and is designed to improve children's school environments by facilitating greater communication between the home and the school. Comer (1980) concluded that children's school and home experiences have profound effects on their psychological, social, and academic development.

One goal of the Comer program is to create a sense of community among the parents, teachers, and staff. Parents and community members are invited to social events held at the schools. In many Comer schools special rooms have been set aside for parents.

When Comer's principles are applied to school settings, schools have been found to be more successful, particularly in the areas of academic achievement, attendance, and social skills (Comer, 1980; Deem, 1995; Ramirez–Smith, 1995). More specifi-

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cally, one school in North Carolina raised SAT scores by an average of 16 points, boosted the honor roll by 75 percent, and increased the attendance rate dramatically (Deem, 1995).

Currently the Comer process is operating successfully in over 250 schools in 19 states. By joining into a collaborative partnership with the Topeka Public Schools, Washburn faculty felt they could improve the quality of the teacher preparation process. Faculty hypothesized that field experiences in Comer schools and the sense of community created in these schools would have a positive effect on the preparation of future teachers.

The Study

In joining into a school–university partnership, we have made several changes in the way we prepare preservice teachers.

With an urban mission and a commitment to the Comer Program, we have elected to emphasize field placements in urban Comer schools. For example, we have a two semester early field component in which students attend seminars and spend 35 hours per semester in two different classrooms. At least one of these assignments must be in an urban school, preferably a Comer school. Elementary students also participate in practicums as they complete three methods blocks. One of the practicums is set entirely in Comer elementary schools. A sizeable portion of the students in the second and third practicums are assigned to Comer schools. Prior to student teaching, all students have worked in at least two Comer classrooms.

Not all of our student teachers can be assigned to Comer schools. First, there are not sufficient placements in Comer schools. Second, most of our preservice teachers are from suburban or rural backgrounds and want to secure teaching positions in their communities. They request placements in suburban or rural schools. Third, although students have had several practicum experiences in Comer schools, some of our students actively avoid student teaching assignments in urban schools. Therefore, we routinely assign student teachers to four different types of elementary schools. The four options include urban schools affiliated with the Comer process, urban schools not associated with the Comer process, suburban schools, and rural schools.

Problem

This study was designed to determine the effects student teaching placement had on the student teachers' views regarding their (a) student teaching assignments, (b) perceived abilities to work with students in a variety of socioeconomic and cultural settings, and (c) preferences for future teaching positions. The following four questions emerged.

First, did student teachers assigned to urban-Comer schools adapt well to their student teaching assignment? This question was placed on the questionnaire to help rule out possible bias resulting from students who may have been dissatisfied with their student teaching placements. As mentioned earlier, some students tried to avoid placements in urban schools.

Second, did student teachers assigned to urban-Comer schools develop an adequate understanding of the multicultural needs of students? Many of our graduates are assigned to urban schools and, as the introductory quote suggests, are not prepared for the challenges they encounter.

Third, did student teachers assigned to urban-Comer schools see themselves as effective teachers in inner-city, suburban, and rural settings? Haberman (1995) advocated placement in challenging settings. Do student teachers placed in urban-Comer schools perceive themselves as better prepared for teaching positions in a variety of schools?

Fourth, did student teachers assigned to urban-Comer schools prefer future teaching positions in urban settings? This may be the acid test of teacher preparation programs with urban missions. If preservice teachers are more inclined to accept teaching positions in urban settings, the university has achieved a degree of success in overcoming the problems cited earlier by Paine (1989) and Gallegos (1995).

Method

Questionnaires were completed by 128 elementary student teachers at meetings following the end of their student teaching semester. This response rate represents 89.5% of the 143 students enrolled in student teaching over a period of five semesters.

One hundred twenty-two of the student teachers were white, one was black, four were Hispanic, and one was Asian Indian. The sample included 116 female and 12 male student teachers. Washburn University has a sizeable number of nontraditional students, thus the mean age of the university's undergraduate student body is 28.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire contained six Likert-type questions. An additional question asked student teachers to indicate preferences for future teaching positions. The Likert questions asked respondents to indicate the degree to which they agreed with each statement on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (a value of one) to strongly agree (a value of five).

The question eliciting student teachers' preferences for future teaching positions required students to rank three options. The three options included urban, suburban, and rural settings.

An analysis of variance procedure was used to compare the mean scores of the four student teacher groups relative to the Likert-type questions. In instances where significance was found, a t-test procedure was used for pair-wise comparisons of the mean scores of the student teacher groups (at the 0.05 level of significance). A chi square procedure was used to compare the four student teacher groups' preferences for teaching positions.

Results

The first question asked student teachers to indicate how well they adjusted to their student teaching assignments. There were no significant differences in the mean scores of the four groups (see Figure 1).

The second question required student teachers to indicate the adequacy of their understanding of multicultural needs of children. Significant differences were present in comparisons of student teachers' understanding of multicultural needs of students ($F=5.41$; $p < 0.01$) (see Figure 1). The differences were present in mean score comparisons of urban Comer ($X=4.61$) versus suburban ($X=4.18$), urban Comer ($X=4.61$) versus rural ($X=3.86$), urban non-Comer ($X=4.70$) versus suburban ($X=4.18$), and urban non-Comer ($X=4.70$) versus rural ($X=3.86$). There were no significant differences in the mean score comparisons of urban Comer and urban non-Comer student teachers, nor in the mean score comparisons of suburban and rural student teachers.

The third question had three subquestions that allowed student teachers to indicate the degree to which they felt they were prepared to assume teaching positions in inner-city, suburban, and rural schools. There were no significant differences in the mean scores relative to preparation to teach in suburban schools. There were significant differences in the mean scores of student teacher groups regarding their preparation to teach in rural schools ($F=7.24$; $p < 0.001$) and their preparation to teach in inner-city schools ($F=5.92$; $p < 0.001$) (see Figure 1).

Significant differences of mean scores regarding preparation to teach in rural settings were found to exist between the following student teacher groups: urban Comer ($X=4.18$) and urban non-Comer ($X=4.59$), urban Comer ($X=4.18$) and rural ($X=5.0$), urban Comer ($X=4.18$) and suburban ($X=4.72$), and

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Even one learning-style element can either promote or inhibit adult productivity, but instruction responsive to an individual's multiple learning style elements can produce significantly increased academic achievement.

Introducing Educational Administration Candidates to Learning-Style Approaches

Rita Dunn and Barbara Nelson

What Is Learning Style?

Dunn and Dunn (1992, 1993) define learning style as the way each person concentrates on, processes, internalizes, and remembers new and difficult academic information. They describe it in terms of each individual's:

- environmental preferences for sound, light, temperature, and design;
- emotions toward academic productivity (motivation, internal/external need for structure, persistence, and responsibility);
- sociological inclinations for learning alone, in a pair, with peers, as part of a team, with either a collegial or authoritative mentor or supervisor, or in varied ways as opposed to patterns or routines);
- physiological traits (auditory, visual, tactual, and/or kinesthetic perceptual preferences, time-of-day energy levels, intake (snacking or drinking), and mobility versus passivity needs); and
- global versus analytic processing—as determined by correlations among sound, light, design, persistence, sociological preference, and intake (Dunn, Cavanaugh, et al., 1982; Dunn, Bruno, et. al., 1990) (see Figure 1).

Learning style varies with age (Dunn & Griggs, 1995; Price, 1980), achievement level (Milgram, Dunn, & Price, 1993), culture (Dunn & Griggs, 1995; Milgram, Dunn, & Price, 1993) and global versus analytic processing (Dunn, Bruno, Sklar, & Beaudry, 1990; Dunn, Cavanaugh, Eberle, & Zenhausern, 1982). Certain learning style elements, such as preferences for warm or cool temperatures, mobility or passivity while concentrating, or processing style tend to remain stable over years. Other elements, such as sound, intake, light, social preferences, and perceptual strengths are often predictable in how and when they change. Even one learning-style element can either promote or inhibit adult productivity (Ingham, 1991), but instruction responsive to an individual's multiple learning-style elements can produce significantly increased academic achievement (Dunn, Ingham, & Deckinger, 1995).

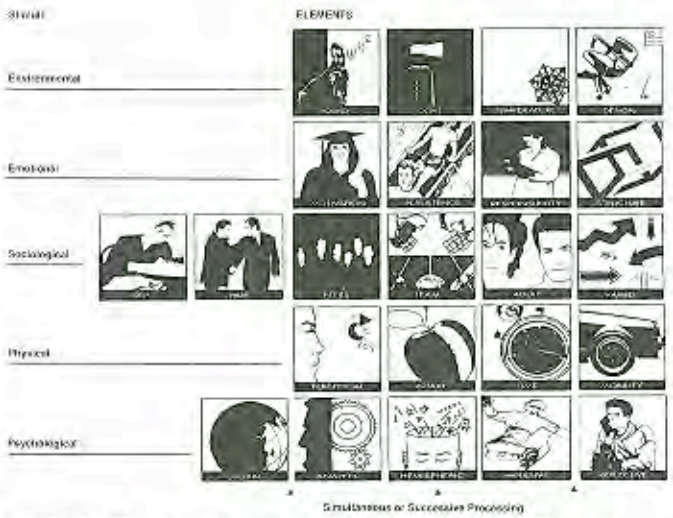

Figure 1. The Dunn and Dunn Learning Styles Model

Effects of Learning-Styles Approaches on College Students' Achievement and Attitudes

Several researchers have experimented with teaching undergraduates how to study with approaches that complement the students' learning styles. Without any emphasis on higher-level cognition, significantly increased achievement test scores resulted when students studied **anatomy** (Cook, 1989; Lenehan, Dunn, Ingham, Murray, & Signer, 1994), **bacteriology** (Lenehan, Dunn, et al., 1994), **marketing** (Dunn, Deckinger, Withers, & Katzenstein, 1990), **mathematics** (Dunn, Bruno, Sklar, & Beaudry, 1990), **physiology** (Lenehan, Dunn, et al., 1994) and **subjects across the board** (Clark–Thayer, 1987, 1988; Mickler & Zippert, 1987). In addition, overall grade-point average and attitude toward learning significantly improved (Clark–Thayer, 1987, 1988; Nelson, Dunn, Griggs, Primavera, Fitzpatrick, & Miller, 1993).

Learning Styles Research at St. John's University

Between 1970 and 1996, 18 St. John's University professors and more than 70 doctoral candidates in small teams of from 5 to 6 each, conducted more than 50 studies with the learning styles model developed at that institution (*Research on the Dunn & Dunn Model,* 1996). In Education, two courses in our Secondary Masters Program, three courses in our Elementary Masters Program, and four courses in our Instructional Leadership Doctoral Program focus on learning styles. Many of these courses require that our candidates conduct research with style responsive and style non-responsive resources, methods, and strategies with the students they teach—primary, elementary, or secondary. Faculty involvement in the results of these studies gradually increased their interest in learning styles. Eventually, in autumn, 1995, professors in our "other" doctoral program, Educational Administration and Supervision, voted to add one learning style course to

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that program. Research with learning styles has also been conducted by professors in business (Dunn, Deckinger, Withers, & Katzenstein, 1990; Dunn, Ingham, & Deckinger, 1995), math (Dunn, Bruno, Sklar, & Beaudry, 1990), reading (Drew, Dunn, Quinn, Sinatra, & Spiridakis, 1994), counseling (Griggs, 1991), and law (Dunn & Boyle (submitted).

Identifying Adults' Learning Styles

The Productivity Environmental Preference Survey (PEPS) (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1979, 1982, 1991) identifies adults' learning-style preferences. It consists of 100 statements that elicit self-diagnostic responses on a five-point Likert scale in approximately 25 minutes. Data collected from each assessment yields a computerized profile of each individual's preferred learning style. The PEPS is easy to administer and interpret and has been used by researchers at more than 90 institutions of higher education (*Research on the Dunn and Dunn Model*, 1996).

In 1979, Kirby reported that the PEPS had "established impressive reliability and face and construct validity" (p. 72). Since then, the PEPS has evidenced predictive validity (Dunn, Bruno, et al., 1990; Ingham, 1991; Lenehan, Dunn, et al., 1994; Nelson, Dunn, et al., 1993). In a comparative analysis of the conceptualizations and psychometric standards of nine different instruments that measure learning styles, the Dunn and Dunn assessments for K–12 students and adults were rated as having good or better reliability and validity (Curry, 1987). LaMothe, Billings, Cobb, Nice, & Richardson (1991) reported PEPS' reliability and validity specifically for nurses.

Conversely, Murray–Harvey (1994) reported that the PEPS test–retest reliability collected from two administrations to 406 Australian college students showed, " . . . this approach to learning is relatively stable over time, but learning style is not as stable a construct as has been claimed" (PsycLIT Database Copyright 1995 American Psychological Association, all rights reserved.)

Construct validity for the PEPS was established by Buell & Buell, (1987), Ingham (1991) and LaMothe, Belcher, Cobb, & Richardson, 1991). More recently, a meta-analytic study of 42 experimental studies conducted between 1980–1990 with the Dunn and Dunn Learning-Style Model by researchers at 13 different institutions of higher education revealed that students whose characteristics were accommodated by educational interventions responsive to their learning styles could be expected to achieve 75% of a standard deviation higher than students whose styles were not accommodated (Dunn, Griggs, Olson, Gorman, & Beasley, 1995).

Matching Study Approaches With Students' Learning Styles

Dunn and Klavas (1990) developed a software package to analyze each individual's preferred learning style based on the Dunn, Dunn, and Price PEPS computerized profile. The analysis of individuals' styles is then converted by a computer program into a series of directions for studying and doing homework based on each individual's "strong preferences" (PEPS scores of between 20–29 or 70–80) and "preferences" (PEPS scores of between 30–40 or 60–69). Each person's set of directions for study is called his/her "Homework Prescription".

Nelson, Dunn, et al. (1993) identified 1,089 randomly assigned community college students' learning styles with the PEPS and then gave students in the experimental group homework prescriptions for studying with complementary strategies. The homework treatment impacted significantly on student achievement ($p > .01$) and retention ($p > .0001$) and the experimental group's dropout rate was reduced to 20% in contrast with that college's usual 39% rate. Those results were meaningful in light of Demitroff's (1974), Trent and Rhyle's (1965), and Van Allen's (1988) earlier findings that poor study habits resulted in inadequate student scholastic performance and led to either voluntary or involuntary withdrawal from college.

Lenehan, Dunn, et al., (1994) identified the learning styles of 203 subjects randomly selected from the total population of 296 incoming, full-time, predominantly female (n = 178), freshmen nursing and transfer students enrolled in entry-level Anatomy and Physiology (n = 134) and Bacteriology (n = 69) courses at a small, private four-year college in the suburban northeast. Students in the control group were provided conventional study-skill guides, tutoring, and advisement assistance whereas students in the experimental group were provided homework prescriptions based on their identified learning-style preferences. Students in the experimental group achieved statistically higher science grades, grade point averages, and curiosity about science scores and statistically lower anxiety and anger scores than students in the control group. Data suggested that learning-styles-based homework prescriptions were more effective than conventional study guidelines and that their use in one subject affected grades in other subjects.

Why Introduce Learning-Style Strategies to Educational Administration Candidates?

Practicing or prospective school administrators enrolled in educational administration programs have demanding schedules and responsibilities. Because they tend to be capable professionals, they may do course assignments sufficiently well to earn good grades, but they may be engaging in short-term superficial, rather than in long-term, deep and embedded, learning (Schmeck, 1977). Thus, without realizing it, they may experience only scant retention of data they study—a good reason for introducing them to learning styles. Therefore:

(1) Using the PEPS to identify educational administration candidates' learning-styles and providing them with homework prescriptions based on their individual styles may make studying and remembering comprehensive information easier. Thus, candidates may perform better in courses than previously.

(2) If homework prescriptions facilitated candidates' learning and retention, they also could use this strategy to better interpret and retain complicated legislative regulations, often obscure Board and staff agendas, and communications from Board members, community representatives, parents, and others.

(3) If successful with homework prescriptions themselves, administrators are likely to make them available to students in their schools. Based on the meta-analysis described herein (Dunn, Griggs, et al., 1995), giving students homework prescriptions based on their learning styles is likely to increase achievement.

(4) In addition, knowledge of learning styles would enable administrators to describe to their teaching staffs how students can capitalize on their perceptual strengths. For example, see the boxed directions for students with different perceptual strengths.

Auditory Learners should:

- listen to the class lecture and then take notes, if analytic. If global, they should listen to the class lecture and map* or illustrate the information. They then should read their notes aloud and tape record them, after which they should play aloud. If global, they could write their notes on pre-shaped and pre-sequenced Task Card outlines (see Figure 2). When they are ready to review, they can cut the Task Cards apart and study by piecing the questions and answers together. (*To "map" is to outline information through a series of related boxes, shapes, and other graphics with only few words or numbers.)
- read the text aloud, tape record it as they read, and play it back. As they listen to the tape, they should take notes or map or illustrate the information;

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- have a classmate read sections of the text aloud while they take notes or map the information as it is read.
- say the key words or needed information to themselves and reinforce it by focusing on what they have written or using the information in a tactual crossword puzzle they create.

Visual Learners should:

- highlight important words or sentences in their texts. They should xerox the page before they do this if they do not own the book.
- color code their notes or the tactual games they (and/or their tactual classmates) create to help them remember the difficult or complex information.
- read and re-read the words and definitions while studying.
- read the text and directions silently while illustrating or mapping what they read.

Tactual Learners should:

- begin studying by developing hands-on resources such as Flip Chutes, Electroboards, Pic-A-Holes, Task Cards (see Figure 2), or Learning Circles (see Figure 3). These are student-created manipulatives made from paper to include all the new and difficult information required by a given topic. For example, each Task Card in a set poses a question on its left side. On its right side, is the related answer. Either the textbook or the teacher poses the questions; the students research the answers. Students cut the questions and answers of each Task Card set into halves, mix them up, and try to piece together the right question and the correct answers. After studying this way for a given amount of time (based on the student's age or academic level and the difficulty of the information), students then reinforce the same information through their secondary or tertiary perceptual strength (Kroon, 1984). Although each tactual resource differs from another, basically students learn by touching and seeing rather than by listening and writing. They then reinforce with another modality—such as a kinesthetic floor game. Directions for creating these resources are available (Dunn & Dunn, 1992, 1993).
- develop a series of symbols (like mnemonics or memory joggers) to synthesize the information they need to learn. They do this by touching, writing, illustrating, or highlighting key words with colors or graphics.
- take notes on a lap-top computer or write them onto multipart Task Cards. Then review with a different manipulative.
- trace (by physically touching and following the pattern of each letter) the major words in the constructs they read and need to remember. Tedious? Yes; but effective when the information is comprehensive and challenging.
- if global, organize their notes into colored shapes (boxes, hearts, circles) and develop symbols to indicate items of maximum, major, minimal, or lesser importance. If analytic, organize their notes in the traditional manner —sequentially.

Kinesthetic Learners should:

- create floor games and walking games to teach themselves the difficult information they need to remember.
- walk back and forth along the perimeter of the room while they study or read.
- sit in a rocking chair while they study or read.
- study on a bike or exercise table.

(4) Encourage students to study in their sociological style (alone, in a pair, in a small group, with a tutor, or with an expert.)

(5) Teach students to monitor their own successes by keeping notes on what they do to teach themselves each week and then comparing the grades they earn with each approach.

(6) Suggest that motivated students work with a classmate or two to program and contract their textbooks (Dunn & Dunn, 1993).

Conclusions

The first studies concerned with encouraging college students to study with learning-style approaches increased achievement and attitude test scores. The next step is to alert practicing and potential administrators to the potential of this learning-style approach for school-age students by having them experience the benefits first hand.

Author's Note

One possible reason for Murray–Harvey's findings is that students must be well prepared prior to administration of the PEPS; specific procedures should be followed (Dunn, 1996; Dunn & Dunn, 1992, 1993). Because Murray–Harvey is not a certified learning styles trainer with this model (Dunn, 1996), she may not have been aware of, and, thus, may not have followed, the required procedures for adequately preparing students.

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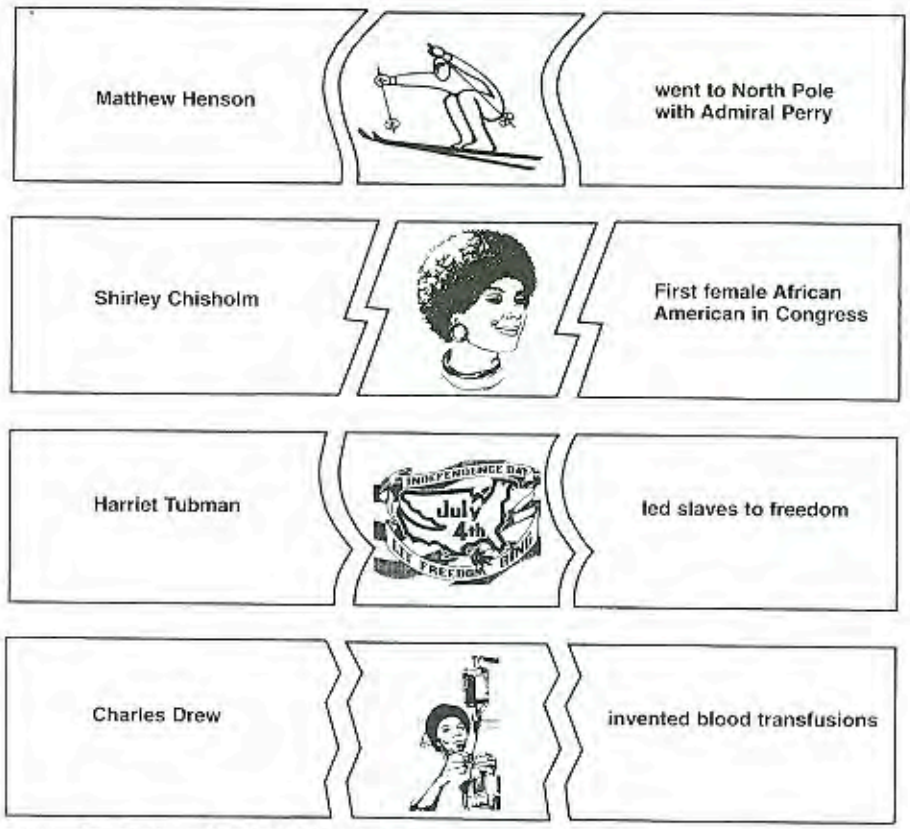

Figure 2. Pattern for Multi-Task Card

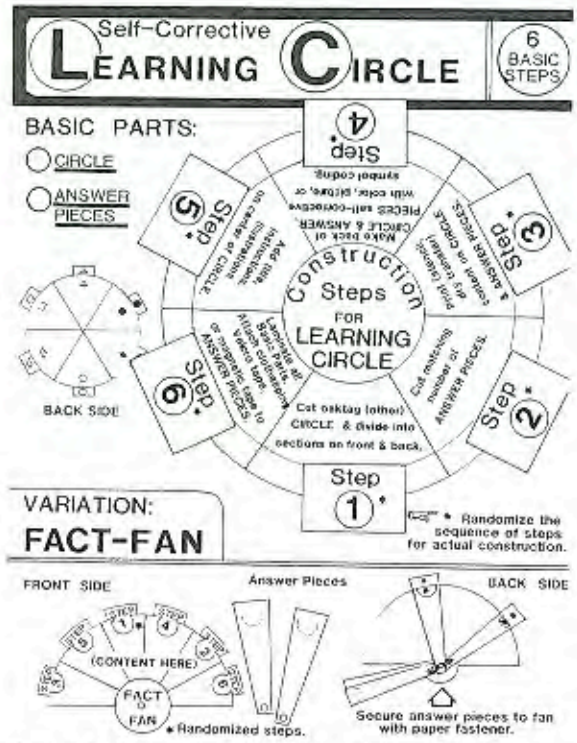

Figure 3. Directions for Learning Circle