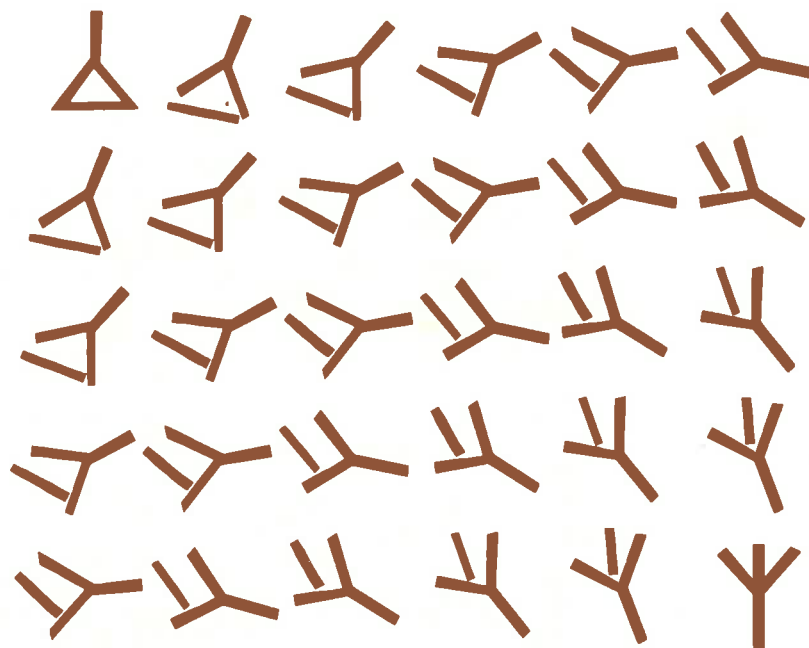


JANUARY/FEBRUARY 1975
NUMBER 1, VOLUME I

Sex Role Changes

Views of Major Authorities: Spock, Ohlsen,
Mouly, Hamachek, Garrison, and Others



Arthur Combs on Perceptual Psychology

Also: Desegregation, Corporal Punishment,
Students' Rights, Innovations, Job Outlook

**The first issue
Thresholds
in Secondary Education
is dedicated to**

**Stanley M. Elam, Editor of
Phi Delta Kappan Publica-
tions, an active, talented and
outstanding educational jour-
nalist committed to the
encouragement of educational
leadership, service and re-
search.**

THRESHOLDS

IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Number 1, Volume I,
January/February 1975

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EDITORIALS

How Thresholds Began

In the summer of 1973, several professors from the Department of Secondary Education at Northern Illinois University discussed the need for an education journal that related specifically to the field of secondary education. They talked about problems, experiments, research, and new developments. Questions were raised such as: "Who would be interested in launching such a project?" "What would be the sources of financial support?" "When could this endeavor get started?" and, "What would the journal be like?"

This group, under the leadership of Dr. Leonard Pourchot, proceeded to elect a board of directors, establish a non-profit foundation, solicit charter members, elect a managerial staff, and set the wheels in motion for a long range goal of publishing the first issue in February, 1975.

In October, 1973 the departmental members responded to a questionnaire which solicited ideas, suggestions, and a willingness to pick a topic and work as an editor

or assistant editor for a "Thresholds" issue. Ideas were offered for issue topics such as: legal education, continuing education, sex biases in secondary education, humanism in education, peace education, transpersonal psychology and its implications for secondary education, dealing with the cause of misbehavior, development of creativity and several others. Many of our professors with years of experience in teaching in the secondary schools as well as in teacher education, have volunteered to assume the responsibility of developing a specific issue.

Four issues per year will be published. The first is to be printed in January and distributed in February with subsequent issues published in May, August, and November. An editorial board with broad representation is being organized, and secondary schools are being asked to be contributing members and to help form the advisory committee for the Foundation.

The Threshold Foundation Board and members are excited about the prospect of establishing a journal specifically for personnel in secondary schools or other professionals who work with adolescents. We are enthusiastic about the prospect of contacting the best-known authorities for the specific journals. We sincerely believe that by developing a quality journal with secondary school topics of special interest that we may help ourselves and others to understand better techniques of motivating the secondary school student; that the journal may stimulate teachers with ideas on developing creativity; that thoughts will be expressed on reducing the causes of misbehavior as compared to treating the symptoms; and that ideas will be generated towards humanistic methods for development of high interest, good attitude, and increased appreciation of the learning process.

Robert J. Maple
Managing Editor

What's in a Name?

The name "Thresholds" points the direction for this new journal in secondary education. We intend to explore ideas and viewpoints which indicate possible paths to the future, without losing sight of the values of present and past knowledge and experience.

It is hoped that "Thresholds" will stimulate thinking, influence educational practices, and inform. Each issue will feature articles by scholars and thinkers as well as comments and criticisms from practicing educators, students, and lay persons. Innovative programs and activities in selected secondary schools will be presented regularly. Books and materials pertinent to secondary education will be reviewed.

We think secondary educators and students are interested in the application of theory and knowledge. What is found in "Thresholds"—whether theoretical or

applied—should be meaningful in some significant way to our readers.

In Justinian's day and now, men have questioned whether "the time is ripe" for launching their enterprises. Even though economic signs for 1975 are discouraging, members of Thresholds in Education Foundation are optimistic in pressing ahead with this publication. They believe that secondary teachers, other secondary professional personnel, college professors, students in secondary education, and even lay persons may be well-served by this journal.

Why do we need another educational publication? (Why should a million flowers bloom?) New ideas deserve a fair hearing. Actually, there are fewer good publications in secondary education than one might at first think. It is important that a forum be provided for new ideas and new

secondary practices. In addition to dissemination of ideas, there should also be vehicles for criticizing, evaluating, and refuting ideas.

America's changing sex roles, the subject of one of the articles in this first issue, is discussed by Mueller and Frerichs, who present the views of a number of eminent writers and thinkers in the field of human development. The article is both timely and provocative. Secondary educators everywhere should find this and the accompanying articles stimulating.

Equally important topics such as "education for peace" and "humanizing the high school" will appear in subsequent issues. We invite you to join us in our explorations. Your RSVP's are anticipated.

Leonard L. Pourchot
Editor

What is happening in our society and in the secondary schools as traditional ways of viewing sex roles change? For answers to this and related questions, the authors turn to research and to the views of prominent writers and thinkers such as: Adams, Garrison, Hamachek, Hurlock, Jersild, Kagan, Mouly, Ohlsen, Powell, Purnell, Sherif, Smart, Sorensen, and Spock.

Changing Sex Roles

The Views of Major Authorities

Richard J. Mueller and Allen H. Frerichs

Year 2050:

Scenario I:

A woman is President of the United States, struggling with a Congress almost evenly split between males and females. Males still appear to gravitate toward committees of defense, foreign policy, and finance while women are somewhat more prominent on committees of social welfare, international cooperation, and health and education. But the differences are closing.

The schools have just about eliminated the last vestiges of sexism. Athletic teams and the curricular offerings are totally integrated, a woman has won the Heisman Trophy, and public school teachers and college professors share approximately equally the best-paid and most prestigious teaching and administrative positions.

Scenario II:

A woman has been elected Vice-President of the United States, Congress still is predominately male, and males still are in major leadership positions except for such committees as those dealing with consumerism and child-care legislation.

The schools still have interscholastic sports for either males or females, with volleyball and a few other activities that are co-educational. Females who tried out with pro football and basketball

teams have dropped out because they rarely got beyond the bench. The educational establishment still tends to be male-oriented as one goes up the academic ladder. Great numbers of females have become disillusioned with the oratory of women's liberationists and are building a trend toward a new definition of woman's role within the family and home.

Which will it be? Which scenario will be the "dream" of the future and which one the "nightmare?"

Year 1975:

Cold reality does indicate that sex role behavior is changing in response to increased awareness of sexual equality. As is the case with changed behavior in the areas of sex, drug abuse, activism, dress styles and civil rights, schools will play a critical role in providing the setting and leadership for changing sex role behavior. Furthermore, the secondary schools will see much of the action, for upon reaching adolescence, both sexes participate in more frequent and meaningful social contacts with one another.

The purpose of this article is to review some of the major issues involved in the research of sex role behavior, and to discuss the views of fourteen writers on this issue who are leaders in research and writing on human behavior especially as it pertains to adolescents.

Three Approaches To Research

In a comprehensive analysis of research, Lynn (12) postulated that the intellectual growth of women is based on an interaction of: (A)

biologically rooted potentials which pre-dispose women toward some roles more than others; (B) parent-child relationships, characteristic of typical family patterns, which pre-dispose toward certain cognitive styles; and (C) both blatant and covert reinforcement of traditional cultural roles for females.

At adolescent age levels biologically rooted potentials can be subsumed under the general heading of whether females are fundamentally less aggressive and adventuresome than males. The answer to this question is important in considering the extent to which school athletic programs and extra-curricular activities should be designed strictly along the lines of equal sex role participation. According to Lynn (12), there is at present little doubt that the greater restless and vigorous overt activity of the male occurs in such early infancy that it seems clearly biologically based. Moreover, this hypothesis is supported by recent evidence that male-hormone treatment of pregnant primates increased the incidence of rough-and-tumble play among female offspring while decreasing their tendency to withdraw from threatening situations. In humans, too, girls affected by male hormones **in utero** display more of a developmental tendency toward increased activism.

Tanner (15), in a major research on the question, points quite emphatically to a host of genetical-ly-based factors that differentiate

females from males. These factors include measurable differences in the sequence and tempo of various growth characteristics.

It is reasonable to state that a great deal more hard-nosed, empirical research has to be done on the issue of biologically-based characteristics because the outcomes may cause massive shifts in expenditures and teaching strategies. Once put into gear, these changes—such as innovative athletic programs—cannot easily be reversed. What is, and what is not, a biologically rooted characteristic should be clearly understood by school administrators and school boards before actions are taken.

Furthermore, convincing research will not only have to be done but eloquently interpreted for the segment of our society that perceives the changing sex roles from a political point of view. As of now, the majority of militant liberationists are not even beginning to be convinced that the biologically-based differences between females and males now generally taken for granted are in fact untinged by cultural conditioning. Although bits and pieces of research certainly substantiate the hypothesis that differences are real, the total research picture does not present an unqualified answer to the question.

An interesting subject for research is whether parent-child relationships characteristic of nuclear and reconstructed family patterns result in early differentiation in cognitive styles. The process by which children differentiate in behavior as to sex is not clearly understood, and a paucity of empirical research exists in this critical area. This may well account for the differences of views held as to the development of male and female identity (8). Early theorists viewed the development of sex role identification to be a more difficult process for girls than for boys. More recently, Douvan and Adelson (6) suggested that the boys were able to establish their identity through vocational choice; whereas, the girls had identities that were more diffuse and bound up in future marriage. The girl's future was a retreat into stereotyped notions of the future which takes on the appearance of being unrealistic.

Mead earlier raised doubts about the concept that girls' identities were more easily achieved than boys' identities. She summarized it

succinctly:

The male's earliest experience of self is one in which he is forced in the relationship to his mother, to realize himself as different... In other words, the young boy realizes he is not like his mother nor wholly like his father. He learns the meaning of masculinity through indirect sources—his father, other males at work all day and inputs he receives from females, his mother and school teachers. In part, identity reflects internalizations of female expectations for that role (14).

Lynn (12), has advanced the hypothesis that nature combines with the usual process of acquiring feminine identification to produce a style of thinking and learning for females that differs measurably from the style characteristic of males. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that both male and female infants usually establish their initial and principal identification with the mother. Later, males tend to identify with a culturally defined masculine role, whereas females continue to identify with the mother, or with the feminine role in general. The male's task of achieving masculine role identification is considered a rather complex learning problem, whereas the female's task of achieving mother identification is a less complex learning lesson. According to this theory, the male "problem" stimulates considerable cognitive activity in the male child, and he is aided in his quest by his high energy level, his vigor, and his curiosity, all probably biologically rooted.

For the female child, learning the "lesson" does not constitute a major problem, according to Lynn, because it takes place in the context of a close personal relationship with the mother. One of the consequences of this process is that females are more motivated than males to learn in a social context. Another consequence is that females often show greater docility, passive acceptance, and dependence in learning situations.

Lynn emphasizes that whatever differences in cognitive style appear early in life are then considerably influenced by cultural reinforcement. He cites evidence of the success of learning strategies aimed at stimulating females to the same standard of active problem seeking and solving as that of males. Lynn suggests that one of the ways to achieve this is for schools to become more accepting of impulsive, active, and even aggressive intellectual behavior in girls.

The problem of blatant and covert reinforcement of traditional cultural roles for females has already been clarified by research on sex preferences of boys and girls. In early adolescence boys tend to view masculine traits and interests as more desirable than their cross-peers view feminine traits and interests. "Tomboy" has more positive overtones than the case of the boy who has "feminine" interests.

Brown, (3), summarizing several studies oriented toward questioning men and women as to their preference for their own or opposite sex role, reported that between 2½ and 4 per cent of adult males, in contrast to between 20 and 30 per cent of adult females, had experienced the desire to be a member of the opposite sex.

Bennet and Cohen (2), showed that adult men and adult women view males as stronger, more competent, more aggressive, and more daring than females. Adult women described themselves as weaker, warmer, more inadequate, more frightened, less aggressive and less mature than men.

An interesting aspect of this perception is the fact that so far there appears to be very little evidence to show that girls' self-esteem is especially worsened during the early educational process. In fact, as Lynn (12) asks, why should the education of females be of special concern when girls average higher grades than boys throughout the school years? Although the gap in achievement between boys and girls gradually narrows toward high school graduation, it can be fairly stated that the American educational system appears to function better with girls than boys. In a study done when there was less consciousness of sex role injustice, Carlson (4) found that self-esteem is a relatively stable dimension of the self, and one which is independent of sex role.

Coopersmith (5) found little difference between the scores of the two sexes on his Self-esteem Scale.

Nevertheless, personality differences exist between females and males. It is generally agreed that differences result at least in part from the way that boys and girls respond to role expectations. To the extent that differences are cultural rather than biological in origin, they are susceptible to

change. The question is, **how** susceptible?

In the short run, at least, the most important issue is career choice. Almost all of the research points to the female's conditioned tendency to choose career goals and future lifestyles along the lines decreed by the cultural heritage. There appears to be considerably less existential freedom, as compared to males in our society. Furthermore, there are moral and punitive elements in this choice process.

Maccoby (13) has pointed out that a girl who maintains the qualities of independence and active striving which are necessary for intellectual mastery defies the conventions of sex appropriate behavior and must pay a price in anxiety. This idea is encompassed in the conceptualization by Matina Horner (10) of the Motive to Avoid Success. She started with one consistent finding: Women score higher on test anxiety than do men. She began her study with the general hypothesis that whereas for men the achievement motive is socially reinforced, for women the desire to achieve is contaminated by what Horner calls the "motive to avoid success" (p. 38).

Horner's study used the **Thematic Apperception Test**. In addition, subjects were asked to read and comment on short stories—in this case, stories about people in success situations. The subjects were 90 girls and 88 boys, all undergraduates at the University of Michigan. Several conclusions emerged very clearly. Girls had strong fears of social rejection as a result of success. Their stories expressed guilt and despair over success, and even doubts about the femininity of or normality of highly successful females. Also, girls placed in competitive situations during the experiment performed more poorly than when they worked alone, whereas men were much more likely to achieve better in competition.

A striking finding of the study was the perception, expressed by both males and females, that the highly successful female in medicine, law, science, and other professions was doomed to a life of social rejection, isolation, and personal misery unless she renounced her hard-won success and settled for a life-style closer to the traditional role.

If a woman sets out to do well, she bumps into a number of obstacles. She

learns that it really isn't ladylike to be too intellectual. She is warned that men will treat her with distrustful tolerance at best, and outright prejudice at worst, if she pursues a career. She learns the truth of Samuel Johnson's comment, 'A man is in general better pleased when he has a good dinner upon his table, than when his wife talks Greek.' So she doesn't learn Greek, and the motive to avoid success is born (9).

Even the more activist students are not immune. During the 1968 student rebellion at Columbia University members of the radical left took over some administration buildings in the name of equalitarian ideals which they accused the university of disregarding. Here were many of the most militant spokespersons one could find during those volatile years. But no sooner had they occupied the buildings than the male militants blandly turned to their sisters-in-arms and assigned them the task of preparing the food, while presumably the menfolk held high level meetings for the planning of further strategy. The males received the reply they deserved, while illustrating the all-pervasive nature of stereotyped sex roles.

So much has already been said about the disparaging image of the female in children's readers that there is no need to elaborate, except to note the baleful fact that this phenomenon has literary roots far into the past. Beautiful and spirited women in western literature almost always paid a stiff price for their rejection of the culturally-defined role of wife, mother, and homemaker. Usually, that price was something horribly painful, or involving physical dismemberment. Zola's Nana dies from the ravages of smallpox. Tolstoy's Anna is decapitated by a train (while Vronsky, by the way, suffers only a mild toothache and in the last scene walks into the sunset). Flaubert's Emma, in one of literature's most graphic death scenes, experiences a long and excruciating death by poisoning. Ibsen's Nora slams the door on the doll house, but she pays the price of giving up her children. Even one of the few "good" female characters in literature—Joan of Arc—nevertheless is burned at the stake for undertaking a brief career as a warrior.

What complicates the task of changing sex roles is that women are often just as prone as men to disparaging the value and competence of other women (1). Goldberg (7) asked female college students to rate a number of professional

articles. One group reviewed articles attributed to a male author (e.g., John T. McKay), while another group reviewed the identical articles, but attributed to a female author (e.g., Joan T. McKay). Each student was asked to read the articles in her booklet and rate them for value, competence, persuasiveness, writing style, and so forth.

Goldberg found that the identical article received significantly lower ratings when it was attributed to a female author than when it was attributed to a male author. Further, the coeds not only downgraded articles from traditionally male fields such as law and city planning, but also articles from the fields of dietetics and elementary school education. (The same experiment done with males reveals the same implicit prejudice against female authors).

Changing the image of the female is now an avowed theme in textbooks and educational materials. So far this trend has developed with relatively little opposition. Unquestionably, schools will eliminate the more blatant cultural stereotypes, and vocational counselors will bring more parity to female and male vocational planning.

Who Will Raise The Children?

An issue yet to be resolved is that of attitudes toward children. Lott (11) has analyzed the problem brilliantly, and she directs some of her sharpest questions at the articulate spokespersons of the women's liberation movement:

It appears to me that a significant number of the most forceful spokeswomen for liberation have essentially very little use for children. When spoken of at all, the tendency is to do so coldly and unsympathetically, and to project the view that children are nuisances and a major barrier in one's path toward fulfillment in the larger world outside one's home. The function of child rearing is denigrated and regarded as basically burdensome, noncreative, and in the same category as domestic chores like cleaning (11).

Limpus (11), for example, argued that it is a woman's "relationship to her children," and not to a man, "which prevents her from seriously committing herself to a job" and is thus the major "stunting influence upon creativity." Kate Millett calls for the education of children to become a "public matter." According to Millett, "child rearing is infinitely better left to the best trained practitioners...who have chosen it as a vocation (p. 126) 'rather than

to harried and frequently unhappy parents. (11)

Betty Rollin debunked the "motherhood myth" by suggesting that "often when the stork flies in, sexuality flies out." Germaine Greer is not as strong against motherhood, but admits to a "dream" in which she bears a child in a farmhouse in Italy where the child will remain in the care of a local family. Her ideal is a communal atmosphere where busy adults lead busy lives in the city but visit the farm from time to time to enjoy the children and perhaps do a little work (11).

The response of women liberationists is to advocate the day-care center for the female careerist. There is no evidence in the foreseeable future that our society will make a mass governmental commitment of infant day-care centers (of the magnitude of the Soviets in the years following World War II). Private day-care centers is not the answer, either. Their cost makes them prohibitive for lower-income families, and in spite of the rhapsodic statements by liberationists to the contrary, the logistics of delivering and collecting children every day puts an enormous burden on both the mother and the father. Furthermore, the need is for day-care centers for infants as well as toddlers. Infants in the diaper stage require the kind of professional nursing staff that is rarely found in most day-care centers. Recent congressional support of Richard Nixon's veto of day-care funds indicates that there is still a great deal of wariness toward the idea of turning the care and feeding of little children over to the State while mother pursues a life outside of the home.

The issue is not so much a matter of principle: research does not generally support the view that children suffer when mother works. Maternal employment in and of itself does not seem to have any negative effects on the children; and part-time work actually seems to benefit the children. The major conclusion from all the research on maternal employment seems to be this: What matters is the quality of a mother's relationship with her children, not the time of day it happens to be (1).

Also important is the quality of the substitute care that children receive while their parents are at work. Young children need secu-

rity, and research shows that it is not good to have a constant turnover of parent-substitutes, a rapid succession of changing babysitters (13).

It is safe to say that those women today who are interpreting the "liberated" female role are largely well-educated, youngish careerists who, if they are married and have children, are likely to have husbands similarly "liberated" and able to play an appropriate role because they are in occupations that provide greater personal freedom and opportunity. There don't appear to be many spokespersons for the masses of women who are married to, or are destined to be married to, men in skilled and semi-skilled occupations whose occupations leave little time and vitality for "mothering."

The entire question of the responsibility for rearing children is an extremely important one for schools, since the large majority of high school graduates are not destined for upper social-class, highly educated leadership roles. It seems reasonable to state that for a very large segment of our society in the foreseeable future, raising children will be the dominant theme. Here, again, is where the schools can have an important impact: how to encourage females to develop a self-actualizing, "person" lifestyle while contributing as females to the nurturing of their children.

Authorities Talk About Changing Sex Roles

Fourteen prominent authorities on the psychology of adolescence replied to a questionnaire asking their views on changing sex roles. All of the respondents have conducted research or published papers and textbooks on adolescent psychology. Unfortunately, the respondent group contains only three women, which reflects the already accepted fact that men are more likely to be in leadership positions in the professions. However, few important differences in attitudes were found between males and females.

All respondents were positive and optimistic about the future changes in sex roles, with several stating that after a period of uncertainty and experimentation there will be a settling down to a much more egalitarian relationship between the sexes. Future lifestyles will not be markedly different for everyone, but the

options will be greater for both males and females. All respondents pointed with approval at changes in school curricula which are slowly beginning to appear. Aside from curriculum, several—especially Counselor Educator Merle Ohlsen—pointed to the need for new ways of counseling in the vocational areas for both men and women, so that lifestyle options can be made operational through access to careers heretofore limited to "males" or "females."

The questionnaire provided for "open-ended" responses.

1

[a] Do you see important modifications taking place in the ways in which Americans regard sex roles?

[b] If so, which modifications do you consider to be desirable?

Elizabeth B. Hurlock: I feel that the most important thing is to prevent children from developing concepts of sex roles based on the traditional concepts. This is far easier and more likely to be successful than to try to change concepts once they have developed. For example, a child who is not taught that "boys do this" and "girls don't do that" but rather that "people do this" and "people don't do that" will grow up with the belief that there are certain roles that are approved for people in general and not for members of only one sex.

Don Hamacheck: It seems to me that the sex-role modifications we're beginning to see are moving us away from the traditional ideas of what a man is supposed to be in order to be a "man" and how a woman is supposed to behave in order to be a "woman." The traditional, and, I might add, constricting boundaries around what constitutes "masculine" and "feminine" behavior are slowly expanding so as to include a broader range of behavioral and occupational options for both sexes. From a purely socio-economic point of view, this seems a desirable and sensible way for a society to achieve maximum utilization of its available skills, talents, and creative thinking regardless of sex. From a purely psychological point of view, ex-

panding sex-role boundaries may make it more possible for both men and women to more nearly realize their full potentials as total persons without fear of encroaching upon the still-existing and somewhat arbitrary parameters around what we've always thought as "man's" work and "woman's" work. People get unhealthy, neurotic, and feel unfulfilled when, because of either internal or external constraints, they stop moving toward personal and/or professional goals which may otherwise fill them out as complete individuals. Sex-role modification may encourage both men and women to consider more different ways to achieve a greater variety of goals, which, in the long run, cannot help but to have a healthy and desirable payoff for society in general and individual men and women in particular.

Merle M. Ohlsen:

1. With genuine equality I expect marked improvement in marriage relationships. This change should markedly reduce women's deceptive behaviors in order to accomplish input into family decisions.

2. Women will be paid fairly for quality of work.

3. There will be more family planning.

4. Hopefully, both parents will assume more responsibility for quality child rearing.

5. Both partners in the marriage will participate meaningfully in career planning.

6. In the case of divorce the better parent will be more likely to obtain custody of the children.

7. More women will do systematic career planning.

Arthur Jersild: I believe there is less acquiescence in the stereotyped concepts of "sex role identification." More recognition is given to the fact that the sex stereotypes some psychologists have emphasized deal more with overt than covert tendencies; more with superficial manifestations than deeper-lying attitudes and motivations.

differences is: [1] realistic? [2] advisable?

Benjamin Spock: I think that the denial of differences by feminists and their supporters goes further than is justified, but this is not the time to argue on that side. First, justice was to be done in the equalizing of rights:

James F. Adams: It is difficult, at the present time, to make a statement as to the realism or advisability of current sex role changes in the light of what we know about genetic sex differences. Much, if not all of the research on sex differences has been conducted in environments which have the potential of making sizeable contributions to these differences. To the degree that there are, in fact, genetic differences between the sexes, we may expect the "blurring" of sexual differences to have the potential for causing maladjustment in both sexes.

George J. Mouly: I would consider some "blurring" both realistic and desirable within the context of greater clarity. I see total "identicalness" as unrealistic and undesirable. Women and men are different, I think people would agree. The question is **where** it should make a difference.

Jerome Kagan: I do not think that the "blurring" of sex differences is realistic, but on the other hand it is not necessarily inadvisable. For most of the tasks of our culture, the known biological differences between the sexes are really quite unimportant in a society such as ours. Therefore, the moral evaluation of the blurring of those sex differences is a difficult judgment to make and each person will make it on the basis of different ethical premises.

Richard F. Purnell: If the objective becomes one of using the individual as the touchstone for determining the propriety of his or her sex roles, it becomes very realistic and advisable to try to minimize what have been referred to as sex differences. How these sex differences came to take their present forms is what is really "blurred". It is a simple matter to plot the threshold for pain among males and females and describe the differences that exist in these distributions, but quite another matter to account for the source of this difference with a satisfactory degree of accuracy and certainty.

Karl C. Garrison: It is neither realistic nor advisable.

Sex differences during the growing years must be recognized as it relates to the earlier maturation of girls.

There are significant sex differences in glandular secretions.

There are differences in the sexual response patterns. This has been definitely established among animals.

There are significant differences in early response patterns of boys and girls.

There are differences in body build that must be taken into consideration in many activities.

The fact that certain differences have not been clearly delineated is no proof that differences do not exist.

Don Hamachek: I do think that the sex-role differences "blurring" that we're experiencing at this time is advisable. I think that over time what this will help us do is to be clear (or at least **clearer**) about how much "blurring" we can be comfortable with. At the moment, we're not really sure about this. There's a great deal of experimentation going on among both men and women that will ultimately lead us to a keener sense of how far we can go with sex-role modification. More women are trying themselves out in the economic world; more men are exposing themselves to the domestic world. In this sense, a certain amount of sex-role experimentation is going on and very likely will continue for an indefinite period. I think it's safe to say that things will get "blurrier" before they get clearer.

Elizabeth B. Hurlock: "Blurring" of sex roles is "realistic" and "advisable" only if conditions make it possible to carry out egalitarian sex roles in real life situations. If these situations do not make this possible, then the psychological effect, especially on females, can be and often is devastating.

If, for example, girls are admitted to classes with boys in high school in areas formerly regarded as "male territory," such as shop work, and boys elect to take home economics courses in child care and cooking, will girls be guaranteed fair treatment in shop-work classes by the boys and their instructors and will girls treat boys in their home economics classes with an air of smug feminine superiority?

Carolyn Wood Sherif: Such

2

[a] Does current thinking about sex roles tend to minimize biological and psychological differences between the sexes?

[b] If so, do you think that such "blurring" of sex

[biological and psychological] differences are exaggerated far beyond the limits that available research evidence can support. Social stereotypes of the sexes are still so deeply ingrained and shared by the majority of both sexes that there is very little danger of minimizing the documented biological differences nor those psychological variations that can be supported by adequate research evidence.

3

What is the impact of these changing views of sex roles upon teachers, schools, and curricula?

Carolyn Wood Sherif: The variety of courses in women's studies and on sex roles in psychology, and various social science and humanities departments in colleges is already affecting curriculum in other courses within those same departments. Combined with pressures from younger teachers, students, and parents, we may see a real impact on secondary school practices and curricula. At present, the most evident impact seems to be "allowing" girls to enter traditionally male activities and boys entering a few traditionally female courses (e.g., cooking class).

Elizabeth B. Hurlock: When publishers of textbooks change their presentation of material to give a more favorable concept of the feminine role and to stress that the male role is not always a superior role—or certainly may not be a superior role—then schools can change their approach to the matter. Teachers tend to teach what textbooks say, and as a result what the child learns about sex roles is greatly influenced by the approach taken in the textbooks they use: Because teachers today are demanding a more egalitarian status for themselves, I cannot see how this can fail to creep into their teaching and their approach to the whole sex-role problem.

Don Hamachek: Given the great number of waking hours a child or adolescent spends with teachers, I think there is no question but that teachers will have to be among the first to respond flexibly to changing sex-role expectations. We're already beginning to see dramatic curriculum changes in books and

activities so that both boys and girls can explore a greater variety of options for their lives. And we need more. We need as many liberated curricula as we can get with as many opportunities as possible for growing youth to get involved in whatever turns them on while they're still young enough to be flexible and open to change. For me, a major impact on schools and teachers of these changing views of sex roles is the willingness, indeed, the maturity, to change along with them.

Karl C. Garrison: Both sexes are being held equally responsible for different acts.

Thus, one is not excused for certain activities because of his or her sex.

Boys as well as girls are held responsible for sex behavior.

Teachers may recognize that certain sex differences exist and make any allowance necessary for such difference.

Boys are being enrolled in home economics courses. In schools of Malmo Sweden, where I visited in the summer of 1973, I noted that boys were required to take a course in the area of home economics. Girls, on the other hand were required to take a special course in industrial arts. This change will likely take place in our schools.

Girls are increasingly taking courses in science and mathematics in anticipation of an engineering, medical or scientific career.

More boys are enrolled in elementary education courses and other courses leading to a career of working with younger children.

More girls are enrolled in courses in the technical schools and deal with crafts and other activities leading to a vocational career in what was once considered a male's field of work.

Richard F. Purnell: More teachers are less willing to acquiesce to the traditional expectations based on their sex in the areas of who shall teach which grade, how one should react during an interview, what is considered proper dress, how one should relate to children in terms of fostering traditional sex roles, etc. Schools and curricula are changing in response to which courses should be open to both sexes simultaneously, how much should be spent on activities for both sexes, mini-courses on women's rights, and the roles of guidance counselors in offering occupational information to students.

4

Many supporters of the feminist movement regard the abolition of traditional sex roles as liberating, not only for women but also for men. What is your view on this position?

James F. Adams: One makes the assumption, from this position, that all individuals wish to be liberated. While this may be true for large numbers, I suspect that it is equally true that many individuals do not wish to be liberated. For these individuals we may expect the pressure to conform to new standards to produce as many difficulties as the former pressures produced for those individuals who wished to be liberated.

Marvin Powell: Only partially true at present, and primarily in the occupational realm. I do not think females will ever divorce themselves from the "wife and mother" concept. Males may, and probably should, redefine their concept of "husband and father" along some of the lines recommended by the feminists. I do approve of the acceptance of people as "human beings" regardless of sex.

Mollie S. Smart: I don't believe traditional sex roles can be abolished. A loosening and expansion would free both women and men for fuller realization of their individual potentials.

Merle Ohlsen: I believe that equal employment opportunities and increased productive use of women will give women a greater feeling of self worth and enable men to share responsibilities for providing for the family with their spouses. This should reduce some of the anxiety men have experienced. Perhaps it will enable them to have fewer worries and live longer. The degree that men can learn to share family and home responsibilities will determine the degree to which women's load will be increased. On the other hand, women in responsible professional positions whose spouses do not accept home and family responsibilities can expect to have physical and emotional problems.

Carolyn Wood Sherif: Role refers to reciprocal expectations and ways of behaving. To the extent that women free themselves of traditional expectations and actions

toward men, men will be free to discard burdensome or archaic duties not in accord with contemporary realities. However, "liberation" from old fetters also implies periods of uncertainty, awkwardness, or even discomfiture, thus is not an end in itself, but a necessary step toward more satisfactory relationships between the sexes.

5

In the long run--say, in the year 2050--do you see sexual relationships and roles as vastly different from what they are today? If so, in what ways?

Benjamin Spock: I think there will be a lot more justice for women in terms of jobs, salary, promotion, legal rights, social and sexual equality. My own hunch is that average male and female temperaments will still differ somewhat less than today and that there may be less emphasis on the importance of an outside job for fulfillment for women and men. Also, men's contribution to the care of home and children will be as great as their wives'.

Jerome Kagan: I do not think that sexual relationships and roles will be vastly different from what they are today. I suspect there will be slightly more homosexuality than there was during the first 50 years of this century and slightly less stable marital relationships, but the fundamentals of sexual relationships that we have known for 3,000 years are likely to be with us.

George J. Mouly: Women will have to bear the children and this may necessitate separation from work (unless we adopt the USSR policy) for a number of years which may jeopardize chances for promotion, etc. Women will have to maintain work skills, etc., for effective re-entry into a career. The problem becomes complicated when we move out of the middle class white society to the lower class Black or the Latin American whose views on the fathering and mothering of children may be different.

At any rate, most primary and elementary teachers are women, and they're the ones who have up to now handled (or mishandled) the education of both girls and boys as to sex role.

I see a stabilization of present trends with marriage the accepted mode for most people (with or without children), but with cohabitation of singles continuing even if not totally accepted. The trend toward many remaining single will probably continue. There will probably be less belligerence and charges of exploitation heard from women libs--and more women willing to testify (without apology) to their satisfaction with good old fashioned marriage.

Marvin Powell: I would expect to find substantial numbers of females involved in what may now still be considered "male occupations." By 2050 we should have had a female President and many female legislators. Possibly our legislative units will be such that females are the majority.

Merle Ohlsen: Career education will begin earlier and will provide for improved vocational counseling for both men and women. With better understanding and increased commitment to apply the research on career development, schools will become more sensitive to youth's vocational maturity, to their need for earlier choices of careers, and the definition of relevant alternative careers.

I think that schools will gradually be encouraged to develop programs on human sexuality.

Elizabeth B. Hurlock: By the year 2050, having children may be considered "unfashionable" or even "unpatriotic" because of the overpopulation and hunger problems. Then egalitarian sex roles may be possible. Similarly, contraceptive techniques may be so fool-proof that family planning can be fool-proof also. If women feel "safe", they may skip marriage entirely in favor of a new form of sexual relationships--which will probably be given a socially more acceptable name than it now has--and this will enable them to satisfy their sexual needs and, at the same time, to live a type of life they want to live and do just what men do in the vocational world. We are seeing some of this today but there are still strong moral and religious barriers, especially among the lower intellectual levels.

Robert Sorenson: Different, but not vastly different. The basic societal requirement for family units will prevent vast changes. However, within limits, sex roles will be somewhat different for many people than what they have traditionally been.

Merle Ohlsen: Today we are seeing experimentation with many living styles, especially with reference to communal living. Except for some instances with senior citizens, communal living has not been very successful.

There is some very good research and training on family living. With the demands for consideration for the individual and with the increased interest in humanistic psychology I would expect continued interest in improving the family. Obviously, the family as we know it today cannot be abandoned until we find a substitute for it. I can't predict whether we will want a substitute or if we will find one if we try.

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The Desegregated High School as a Social Laboratory

Frank P. Bazeli

The arguments which prompted the Supreme Court decision in *Brown vs. Board of Education*, Topeka, 1954, mandating desegregation of schools, were based on sanguine expectations concerning student interaction and achievement in multi-racial schools. It was presumed that putting children of diverse subcultures together in the same school would result in a high level of mutually beneficial social and academic learning. In a word, it was expected that integration would follow mixing.

Twenty years of experimentation in social engineering show that this does not automatically occur. If a plan for integration is not systematically developed, the most frequent results of the desegregation of a school appear to be a period marked by mutual avoidance, conflict over social power, segregation of students at the classroom level, lowered morale among teachers, and the rapid departure of white and middle class students.

Disadvantaged and many minority group pupils are unsuccessful in school not necessarily because of poor aptitude or sensory deprivation factors. A more common cause is an inability to adapt as social systems to the environment of the school. There is too much incongruence with their family and neighborhood life-styles. Any workable integration plan must have as a primary objective the establishment of a non-threatening environment which will be perceived as promoting the legitimate aspirations of every individual within the school. To do this the school must become a social laboratory.

Student Typology

Every individual is unique and purposive. However, individuality is generally circumscribed by culture. Cultural patterns to a substantial degree determine how one organizes time and tasks, structures knowledge, perceives experience, communicates and interrelates. There are persons who are able to transcend the limits of their own culture in order to take a global view of human existence. But, for the great majority, accommodation with and tolerance of other life-styles must be worked at. In the desegregated high school the interface between two or more subcultures creates friction and discriminatory behavior on all sides.

While subcultures represented within a school will contain a majority of patterns which are more or less common to the dominant culture, incongruities must be identified, isolated and accommodated.

A distinction must be made here between disadvantaged and minority group students. While typologies are arbitrary and do not account for much human behavior, there are advantages to categorizing for purposes of study. In a desegregated high school, students may be categorized as being in the following groups:

1. **Dominant - advantaged.** Typically these students are sophisticated in understanding and using the cultural patterns of the dominant society. They are beyond the general student population in reaching congruence, and as a result, they make up the social elite who are the arbiters of the student environment.

2. **Dominant - normative.** The students in this group provide the cultural leavening within the school. They are developing social

capabilities at a predictable rate, and are committed to the major values and objectives of the society. They, generally, conform to the formal-institutional requirements of the school.

3. Dominant - disadvantaged.

While their perceptions and cultural perspectives are aligned with dominant societal themes, the restricted nature of their background experience hinders them from achieving satisfactory congruence within these patterns. The result is considerable failure and hostility which is often displaced against minority group students.

4. **Minority - advantaged.** Within each minority group represented within a desegregated school there tends to be a core of intelligent and early maturing students. Their maturity allows them to deal knowledgeably with the faculty and their peers. Holding many values in common with the dominant group there is a natural desire for status and integration. Frustration of this objective leads to the establishment of rival social status systems and open competition for power.

5. **Minority - normative.** The students within this category tend to be similar to dominant - normative students in terms of stages of development. However, there exists among them a sense of alienation. Little interaction with dominant group or other minority group children occurs except in formal classroom and activity situations. There is a sense of uneasy occupancy of a facility which belongs to another group.

6. Minority - disadvantaged.

This group of students represents the most difficult challenge to integration. Their sense of isolation from the school culture is overwhelming. Almost nothing which is taught in the academic classes

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seems to have application to their lives. They experience repeated failure in attempting to cope with unfamiliar social patterns. Yet the ponderous bureaucracy of most schools provides opportunities for the exercise of aggressive and predatory activities which are familiar, if not acceptable, in the environments in which many of them live.

Pattern Congruence

Every cultural pattern is represented by three systems approaches, each having application in definable situations. The **informal-restrictive system** is familiar to nearly every person. It is applied in situations which are not subject to rigid structural constraints. For example, there is a range of time which is acceptable for arrival at a party; and restricted language patterns which depend upon context and implication for understanding are acceptable in casual conversation. The **formal-institutional system** is required in the functioning of a bureaucracy such as a school: class periods are timed and sequenced; attendance, curriculum, faculty-student relationships, administrative procedures, and written and spoken communications are based on standard patterns. The use of informal-restrictive systems is discouraged in this setting. The **technical-research system** is appropriate to situations in which precision and experimental operations are necessary. The laboratory, industrial shop, and athletic event all have need for a technical language, precise timing, accurate measurement and closely controlled conditions.

Mature, and highly educated adults are frequently able to achieve congruence in a number of patterns. They are aware of the appropriate setting for the application of each of these systems and behave as necessary. Less skilled persons and adolescents are not as able to achieve congruence simply because they lack the training, usually in technical-research systems. However, they tend to have made a satisfactory adaptation to formal-institutional settings. Disadvantaged persons are often unable to act in any but the informal-restrictive system. Thus they are dysfunctional in organized and structured activities. Minority group children have the added problem of adherence to a number of cultural patterns which are different from those which are dominant.

Interface Areas

When students and faculty come together each morning, the interaction which ensues is pervaded by the interfacing of emotional and social goals between individuals and between groups. Generally, group conflict arises over expectations concerning a number of key patterns. Analysis and accommodation of legitimate group goals will lower the probability of conflict.

When minority group students are introduced into a school which has been controlled by the dominant group, or another minority group for that matter, they are minimally tolerated. The expectations are that they will use the facilities as inconspicuously as possible and leave quickly at the end of the day. Provisions, of course, will be made for the exploitation of talented minority group students on athletic teams and other performance organizations. The first concern for entering students is to gain informal control over an area at which to meet and create a sense of security. Establishing informal territoriality is usually done through tacit, non-verbalized agreement. Any invasion of territory is either inadvertent or a signal for conflict.

Minority group students, when allowed, move in company to ensure safety and enhance power. Expectations concerning use of facilities are dictated by ordering procedures informally agreed to by the involved parties. Individuals expect to be serviced in the lunchline and the bookstore in the order of arrival. Breaking into lines and demanding (and getting) service out of order is a favorite method of challenge. Groups work out rotational use of facilities. Agreements include time of day, acceptable time limits, and rules of conduct. Any violation of these unspoken agreements will invite some form of aggression.

Acknowledgement of their legitimate presence is the key to eliminating the sense of alienation typically experienced by minority group children. To this end the school must formalize territoriality, use patterns, and ordering procedures. The curriculum must be changed substantially to reflect the interests and goals of the entering students. Finally the school must legitimize the sharing of power among the student body. By this is meant that clearly defined, legitimate channels are opened for the upward status mobility of the

entering students. If they are not provided, other means will be developed which are adversary in nature.

Students as Social Systems

The professional staff of a desegregated high school, who are serious about developing a plan for integration, must eventually come to analyzing individual students as social systems. By identifying those basic patterns which are clearly necessary for success, the development of the student toward congruence may be charted. Pinpointing where each is in the informal-restrictive, formal-institutional, and technical-research systems of an objective, will prompt the prescriptive measure which can be developed in training sessions. The requirements of the school concerning formal and technical applications in the area of communications, visual-auditory learning, bureaucratic structure, work ethos, symbolic reward patterns, status hierarchy, and curriculum are all incongruent to a degree with the informal-restrictive patterns with which dominant and minority group disadvantaged children are most comfortable.

There will be a number of divergent subcultural values which are important for the student to maintain in order to continue congruence in the subculture. Measures must be taken to avoid procedures which will disparage them. However, it is necessary, when subcultural values are hindering success, to clarify the problem for the student, and to develop a plan for accommodation.

Abuse, discriminatory behavior, threatening and predatory activities are frequent occurrences when diverse groups of adolescents attend a high school. The street culture from which many children come train them to exploit the opportunities inherent in a large congregation of potential victims. They in turn are victimized by the demands of an alien formal-institutional system which brings unending failure. A prime responsibility of the educators in the school is to develop a climate which is secure and which has carefully worked out plans for integration and social learning.

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All of us who teach should pause now and then to re-examine the theoretical underpinnings of our approaches to learning. Secondary teachers and others are affected by the humanistic movement. Dr. Combs suggests that the movement needs a perceptual psychology, and he proposes eight criteria....

- 1** Must be capable of dealing with the internal life of persons, feelings, values, etc.
- 2** Must be systematic.
- 3** Must complement other systems of psychology, be congruent with them.
- 4** Must be capable of including the concepts of leading humanists.
- 5** Must be testable.
- 6** Must be applicable to the problems of the individual case; a guide to action.
- 7** Must contribute to solutions to the great human problems, as in education and social interaction.
- 8** Must be dynamic and immediate rather than descriptive and historic.

Needed: A Perceptual Psychology for the Humanistic Movement

Arthur W. Combs

Years ago, while working as a lobbyist for the New York State psychologists, I came to have a great respect for what politicians call, "the ground swells of human opinion." Successful politicians are always attuned to these implicit needs of people. They know that to oppose them is folly. The real masters among the politicians are those with the peculiar genius for combining deep sensitivity to the implicit yearnings of people with effective techniques for giving expression and direction to them. For me, the humanist movement is one of these great ground swells, perhaps the most important in our time. It represents a basic shift in human thought, a deep welling up of a new commitment to human dignity and integrity. One sees it worldwide in the decline of colonialism, the rise of the have-not nations, freedom for women, UNESCO, the United Nations. Here at home it seems to me to be implicit in the rise of labor, the elimination of child labor, the concern for education, Social Security, Civil Rights, Medicare, and, most recently, the War on Poverty.

All of us are tremendously impressed with the breakthroughs of the physical sciences, those instances when a new idea or new technique makes possible rapid strides forward in control of the physical world. But breakthroughs

occur in the social sciences as well, and I am convinced the humanist movement is one of these. I am further certain that when this movement reaches its full potential, its implications for human welfare will make those of the physical sciences pale by comparison. I believe the humanist movement in psychology is but a single expression in that discipline of the same deep stirrings in human thought going on everywhere else. Each humanist is attempting to bring some aspect of the basic concept into clearer figure, to give it organization and direction, to discover with greater clarity and sharpness its meaning for the science of behavior. We have called ourselves by different names; Personalists, Transactionalists, Phenomenologists, Self psychologists, Existentialists, and Perceptualists, to name but a few. Like the blind man approaching the elephant, we have acquired a multitude of part answers. There is need now for a unifying system which will provide: (A) A frame of reference capable of encompassing and giving meaning to these diverse contributions, and (B) A theoretical structure capable of pointing the way to new directions for research and innovation. The theme of this paper is to suggest that perceptual psychology can provide a start toward that end.

Criteria for Perceptual Psychology

Let us begin by establishing some criteria in terms of which an encompassing theory for humanism must be judged. I suggest the following:

Criterion I. It must be capable of dealing especially with the internal life of persons. The very heart of humanism is its concern with those qualities of man's experience which make him most human--his

values, beliefs, understandings, feelings, motives, goals and purposes. It is, in fact, the failure of traditional psychology to deal with these matters satisfactorily that has led many psychologists to embrace the humanistic persuasion.

Criterion II. It must be systematic. It must begin with simple assumptions and, thereafter, provide understanding and prediction of behavior through internally consistent variations, constructs and development from these fundamental axioms.

Criterion III. It must be congruent with existing systems of psychology. A humanistic view of psychology must not reject what is sound from other views. Rather, it must provide a framework in which they can be better comprehended and extended.

Criterion IV. It must be capable of including within its structure as many as possible of the concepts proposed by leading humanist thinkers. In this process some reinterpretation is acceptable but inclusion must occur without destructive violence to basic considerations.

Criterion V. It must be testable. It must possess a reasonable research methodology capable of disciplined application and must meet the customary scientific demands for rigor and reliability.

The above criteria have to do with purely theoretical questions. An academic theory for humanism, however, is not enough. The humanist movement in psychology is to a very large extent a consequence of the failure of traditional approaches to provide sufficient answers for problems of professional practice. Most humanists are deeply involved in some kind of helping practice; teaching,

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therapy, social action, etc. Even those who do not make a living in these ways are deeply concerned for the implications of humanist concepts for human welfare and personal living. A humanist theory must also provide assistance for thinking about these kinds of problems. I, therefore, suggest three additional practical criteria which a humanist theory must meet if it is to provide a satisfactory framework for constructive action.

Criterion VI. It must provide effective guides to action for the understanding and prediction of individual behavior. Its principles should have maximum applicability to the solution of practical problems of human growth and welfare.

Criterion VII. It must be capable of general use outside the laboratory. It must contribute effectively to solutions to the great human problems of our time, especially in education, social interaction and treatment.

Criterion VIII. It must be dynamic and immediate in application rather than descriptive and historic. The primary problem of the practitioner is the production of change. To do this effectively requires a theory of behavior emphasizing immediate rather than historical causation.

How Does Perceptual Psychology Meet these Criteria?

With reference to **Criterion I**, a humanistic psychology must be capable of dealing with the things that make man human, his feelings, purposes, beliefs, and understandings about himself and his world. Traditional approaches to psychology have, almost exclusively, dealt with man as object. They have sought the meaning of behavior from an external frame of reference, from the point of view of the outside observer. This places psychological science under a terrific handicap, for it eliminates from consideration large sources of data which might otherwise contribute richly to understanding behavior. With observation restricted only to the objectively observable conditions, traditional psychology has been unable to deal satisfactorily with such internal matters as motives, aspirations, feelings, purposes, and self awareness.

There are two great frames of reference we may employ to

observe behavior. We can look at it **externally**, through the eyes of an outside observer or, we may look at it **internally**, through the experience of the behavior himself. So long as one restricts himself to the external view, many matters of concern to the humanist can never be adequately dealt with. Humanism requires an internal frame of reference capable of dealing more directly and effectively with man's inner life. In my view this calls for a perceptual psychology. It seems to me a great waste to restrict the study of behavior to a single frame of reference. Surely, we need to use every device possible to push forward the frontiers of our knowledge. I believe psychologists must understand and use **both** the external and internal frames of reference. As a matter of fact this is what all psychologists do anyhow, whether they recognize it or not. Even the most objective psychologist will tell you his rats run their mazes "because they are hungry," while every psychologist concerned with people's meanings must make his inferences from external observation. The choice is not to throw one's lot with the internal or external camp but to use these ways of looking for those areas of study in which each is appropriate.

Humanism, especially, demands a phenomenological psychology, a psychology of personal meaning. And that is precisely what perceptual psychology offers, for perceptions are the personal meanings of events for the behavior, the raw data with which the humanist must operate. They are the individual's experience of events, and all the matters of special interest to the humanist, feelings, values, beliefs, purposes, even the self, can be expressed in perceptual terms. There may be some who wish to quarrel with my use of the term **perception** as synonymous with personal meaning. It will be difficult, however, to reject the thesis that humanism demands a psychology whose data is meaning by whatever term we wish to describe it.

I think the movement of humanism to a perceptual psychology is inevitable. If it is not the "Third Force" which Maslow spoke of in tracing humanist history, it is surely very like it. Objective, S-R Psychology was the first of the great movements in American psychology. This is an external view of human behavior

seeking its answers in the direct observations of outside observers. The second great movement, brought about by Freud and his contemporaries, started the drift to humanism. It began to be concerned with the phenomenological problem, what was going on inside the behavior. Someone has suggested that "Freud was the first psychologist to listen to his patients!" The practice of psychoanalysis, of necessity, was concerned with the internal life of patients and consequently students of this point of view persisted in introducing the internal life of the subject into psychological discussions. These intrusions of phenomenology into traditional psychology were at first resisted. But gradually, many such concepts, however grudgingly, came to be accepted as a needed point of view, albeit for the "**non-scientific**" aspects of the profession. Looking back on it now it appears that psychoanalysis was really a bridge from an external view of behavior to the internal one now demanded by modern humanism. What is needed now is a sharper, clearer expression of the phenomenological position and that means, for me, a systematic, perceptual psychology.

I shall never forget the occasion of my own adoption of the internal frame of reference. It remains the most exciting intellectual experience of my life. When I completed my doctor's degree at Ohio State I was full to overflowing with the orthodox, objective, behavioristically oriented traditions then characteristic of that university. I was also unhappy, because much of what I had learned did not provide me with the answers I needed for the human problems in which I was engaged in teaching and in the practice of clinical psychology. The psychology with which I was then equipped simply could not provide me with the answers I needed for my daily work. Then, on a train one night in 1947, I took from my briefcase a reprint which had been given me by Donald Snygg entitled, "The Need for a Phenomenological System in Psychology," published in 1941. What an experience! As I read the article, answers to dozens of questions I had been wrestling with started to fall into place. In great excitement I sat there for several hours, examining one after another the traditional problems of psychological thought, translating

each one from an external to an internal frame of reference. I was astounded to find how systematically they dove-tailed into a consistent gestalt. So many problems I had been struggling with fell neatly and systematically into place while a thousand new problems, released by my shift in frame of reference, began to arise in their place. In those few hours I experienced a tremendous "peak experience," a kind of intellectual conversion. As soon as I got off the train, I called Dr. Snygg and made an appointment for the following day. Out of the conference and the mutual stimulation of the next two years came the outline for the first edition of *Individual Behavior*,[†] setting forth our conception of a perceptual psychology. Since then I have continued to refine and expand the position but have so far not found it necessary to greatly alter its basic outline. It can and does provide a comprehensive, systematic structure for dealing with the problems of humanism for me.

If this "testimonial" to my personal experience with perceptual psychology offends, I am sorry, but I am human as well as humanist and I think it is good for young members of the profession to know that science is not always dry and dusty. It has its moments of high drama and personal fulfillment.

Regarding **Criterion II**, an effective humanistic psychology must begin with simple assumptions and thereafter develop its position through internally consistent constructs and variations of these fundamental axioms. The way in which perceptual psychology meets this criterion is illustrated below.

It begins with two assumptions:

First: All behavior is lawful. This is a necessary assumption of any science. Without it, there could be no science.

Second: All behavior, without exception, is completely determined by and pertinent to the perceptual field of the behaving organism. That is to say, how a person behaves at any moment will be a direct consequence of the peculiar field of awareness existing for him at that instant. This field of awareness is characteristic of life

itself and exists, so far as we can observe, in every living thing from the lowly amoeba (which turns toward food and away from danger) up through the scale of animal life to man with his immensely expanded apparatus for awareness. Whatever the behavior, it is the direct consequence of this field of meaning, called the phenomenal or perceptual field.

The perceptual field is fluid, in the sense that it is open to change as a consequence of experience and the operation of need. It also has stability, as it becomes organized around its most central aspects, especially perceptions of "self" and perceptions of the external world called "anchorages" or "expectancies." Change in the field occurs by a process of differentiation into figure and ground. Perceptions may exist at any level of differentiation from ground to clear figure.

Behavior at any moment is a product of the total field of perceptions existing at that moment, some of which may be in very clear figure, and others, which may be so obscure the behavior could not report them to an outsider if he were asked to do so. This conception of the perceptual field as including all levels of awareness has often been misunderstood by critics of perceptual psychology who have assumed that the term "perception" refers only to those aspects of experience which can be reported by the subject. This is an error. Perception refers to the phenomenal experience of the individual whether reportable by him or not. Perceptual psychologists, however, avoid the use of the terms "conscious" and "unconscious" because these seem to imply a kind of dichotomy or "place where." They prefer to speak of "levels of awareness," which allows for the existence of perceptions at any degree of differentiation from clear, reportable figure to vague and indistinct ground. Perception, as we have used it, is synonymous with meaning, and meanings may exist at any level of awareness in the phenomenal field.

Beginning from the assumption of a perceptual field, it is thereafter possible, step by step, to build a systematic explanation of behavior which is both internally consistent and capable of application to most of the phenomena about which psychologists are interested. The basic problems for investigation

center on perception and the dynamics of its development and operation in the behavior's phenomenal field. At this time, at least seven influences upon perception can be isolated for special study. They are:

1. The physical organism. This is the vehicle in which perceiving occurs; Kelley calls it, "the meat-house in which we live." The physical organism both affects the individual's perceptions and, in turn, is affected by the individual's perceptions.

2. Time. The perceptions possible to an individual are in part a function of the time of exposure.

3. Opportunity. Since perceptions are differentiated, in part, as a consequence of the individual's experience, the opportunities he has been exposed to will, of course, have a vital effect on the nature of the perceptions he possesses.

The above three variables of perception have long been studied in traditional approaches to psychology. They include the hereditary, physiological and environmental forces affecting the individual's behavior throughout his life time. To these three, perceptual psychology would add at least four more which have been given much less attention in orthodox frames of references.

4. The self concept. From a phenomenological orientation, the self concept is understood as an organization or gestalt of perceptions about the self. It includes all those aspects of an individual's experience which seem to him to be "I" or "me." Once established, the self concept has tremendous effects upon perception and so upon behavior. It is apparent that we have hardly scratched the surface of understanding the full importance of the self concept, as it is certainly one of the most currently popular areas for research. Unfortunately, there is a great deal of confusion about the concept. It has frequently been treated as synonymous with the self report, a quite different term. The self concept is an organization of perceptions relating to the self. The self report, on the other hand, is what an individual is willing, able, or can be tricked into saying about himself. To treat these two terms as though they were identical is a great pity, for it creates all manner of confusion in the literature.

5. Need. The perceptual view of behavior postulates a single need,

[†]Now in its third edition under a new title: Combs, A.W., Richard, A.C. & Richards, F., *Perceptual Psychology: A Humanistic Approach to the Study of Persons*, Harper & Row, New York, 1975.

namely, the need for adequacy or the maintenance and enhancement of self. This basic need can be traced through the phylogenetic scale beginning with the lowest forms of animal life, where it appears as mere "irritability," to its expression in a human being's search for self actualization or self fulfillment. It may find expression through many kinds of goals, some of which have often been described by other psychologists as "needs." The organism's search for fulfillment of the basic need for maintenance and enhancement of self provides the motive power for every behavior and exerts a selective effect upon all his perceptions.

6. Goals and values. These organizations of perception are learned as a consequence of experience and in turn, have extensive selective effects upon further perception.

7. The organization of the field. The existing organization of the perceptual field at any moment has an effect upon what further perceptions may occur within the field. We have only begun to understand the significance of this variable. One of its effects can be seen, for example, in the tunnel vision produced under the experience of threat or high anticipation.

In time we may discover still other variables affecting the nature and development of meaning. There is, of course, much yet to be done, but the outlines are apparent and a good start has been made toward the development of a systematic, internally consistent perceptual psychology. It is tailor-made for humanist problems, and capable of pointing the way to fruitful further exploration.

Our third criterion for the acceptability of a perceptual system requires that it complement rather than deny positions which have gone before and which have stood the test of empirical investigation. It is a very human trait to think in dichotomous terms, to assume that the establishment of a new position demands the abandonment of those which have gone before. Such an attitude is most unfortunate and badly mangles the possibilities of scientific progression. Perceptual psychology does not deny its antecedents, it complements them. It is not designed to replace traditional psychology, but to help to deal with problems more orthodox approaches have not yet been able to

handle adequately.

Criterion IV demands that a perceptual system be capable of including the concepts of leading humanists. In my own experience perceptual psychology more than meets this criterion. With little or no distortion to their fundamental tenets the concepts of Maslow, Rogers, Van Kaam, Allport, May, Bugental, Murray, Moustakas, Jourard, to name but a few, readily fit in a perceptual framework. Some, in fact, have consciously adopted a perceptual orientation for the expression of much of their work.

Criterion V demands a testable system. Does perceptual psychology satisfy this demand? The answer is yes. In the first place, a great deal of research originating in orthodox traditions lends itself to a perceptual orientation. Sometimes this is true directly, sometimes through reinterpretation of objectively obtained results. Even in 1949, Dr. Snygg and I were able to quote from 222 sources for corroboration of our position. By 1959, we could call upon 619 references. Perceptual psychology, however, need not rely solely upon researches carried out in orthodox traditions. It is rapidly developing a methodology of its own.

An internal frame of reference for the study of behavior has a much more difficult problem than that posed in the external tradition. Its subject matter does not lie outside the behavior but inside. Its methods therefore, cannot be so simple and direct as those in the external tradition. This fact has made many orthodox psychologists uneasy, for it seems to call for subjective methods of gathering data or a return to introspection which psychology rejected some fifty years ago. As a matter of fact, introspection is no more acceptable for perceptual psychology than it is for more orthodox approaches. The impression that such methods are acceptable in perceptual research seems to arise from two sources. It comes, in part, from the traditional definition of perception as "a mediating process within the individual about which he is able to give some report" which would, indeed, call for introspective methods. We have already seen earlier in this paper, however, that the definition of perception employed in perceptual psychology relates to all aspects of meaning, not just those the subject can or will divulge on demand. The

misconception is compounded by the unhappy fact that a number of current researchers have naively accepted introspective reports as acceptable data for psychological research.

The primary method of perceptual psychology is not introspection but inference, a highly respectable scientific technique which can be subjected to rigorous control. It is a method long employed in the physical sciences for approaching their most difficult problems. Without the use of inference, science would be forever restricted to that which was immediate and palpable. It could never deal with what was unseen or what lay in the future. The use of inference creates special problems, to be sure, but can and should meet the same exacting requirements as any science.

The use of inference for gathering data in perceptual psychology requires the use of the observer himself as a research instrument. This is a matter that causes many traditional psychologists great uneasiness. It need not. While the human instrument is not so neatly subject to control as a mechanical or electronic one, like any other instrument of research, it can be calibrated and adjusted so that its readings have high degrees of reliability. There is already much evidence in existing research on values, beliefs, and the self concept do demonstrate that inferential approaches can provide us valid and useful data. The technique has also a long and distinguished history in the interpretations of projective instruments. In time, no doubt, we will develop many more techniques.

At this early stage of the development of a perceptual orientation it is to be expected that we would not have the precise, highly polished techniques of the objective frame of reference with ninety years of experience behind it. Compared to those older devices, some of our current techniques for exploration in a perceptual orientation must necessarily seem rather crude. This need not worry us, however, or divert us from the pursuit of understanding. Someone has to begin and, as Dr. Snygg once suggested, "The Conestoga Wagon was a crude transportation device but it made possible the opening up of a continent."

Some years ago the Social Science Research Council formulat-

ed a series of criteria for the validation of a theoretical position. These tests were as follows:

1. Feelings of subjective certainty.
2. Conformity with known facts.
3. Mental manipulation.
4. Predictive power.
5. Social agreement.
6. Internal consistency.

Applying these criteria to perceptual psychology, the system stands up as well as any other.

Although perceptual psychology deals with the internal life of the individual, the perceptual psychologist, like any other, must begin his studies with careful objective observations. This is a legitimate demand. To require of the perceptual psychologist, however, that he utilize the same constructs and methods as those in traditional psychology is going too far. A new frame of reference, of necessity, must develop its own constructs and methods. If it did not it would not be a new frame of reference! The essence of science is not a common method but disciplined, responsible observation. This can legitimately be demanded of perceptual psychology. It can also be delivered.

Turning now to the practical aspects of humanistic theory, our **sixth criterion** demands applicability to the problems of the individual case. Orthodox approaches to psychology, with emphasis upon the stimulus, and restricted to external observations, have often failed to provide practitioners with the precise information they need for carrying out applied functions. It is not enough for the counselor, or teacher or social worker to be able to say "the chances are." He must often be able to predict the behavior of students, patients or clients with far greater accuracy. As we have pointed out earlier it is the search for a more precise understanding of individual behavior which has led many psychologists into the ranks of humanism. A theory especially applicable to the individual case is precisely what perceptual psychology offers. It regards behavior as merely symptom, the external expression of internal perceptual organization. Its primary subject matter is the perceptions of subjects and these, of course, are always unique and individual. It is precisely because we felt perceptual psychology was especially pertinent for handling the problems of the unique case

that Dr. Snygg and I chose the title, **Individual Behavior**, for our book setting forth this point of view.

The **seventh criterion** calls for a dynamic, immediately useful psychology. To understand behavior in the traditional approaches to psychology it has always been necessary to know the character of the stimulus. Accordingly, the practitioner was usually faced with the necessity of uncovering the events in his client's life which had produced his behavior. He sought these explanations in his client's successes and failures, in childhood trauma or in the relationships of the individual with the significant people in his past. This is a historic view of causation, after the fact. It explains how current behavior came about but often provides no great help in changing it. A perceptual view of behavior, on the other hand, approaches the understanding of behavior from the present. It sees the causes of behavior in the person's **current** feelings, beliefs, purposes, or ways of seeing himself and his world. This provides a dynamic, immediate view of causation.

Such a view of causation is immensely important for people engaged in activities involving human interaction. If behavior is truly a function of perception, then it is possible to modify behavior by changing perceptions in the present even if we do not have knowledge of how the subject got this way! That idea has already found expression in most of our modern psychotherapies which, either implicitly or explicitly, assume that human behavior can be modified in the present even if we do not know all of the factors which caused it in the past. In my own practice of psychotherapy, I find that the clients I have who spend long hours exploring their past are almost exclusively graduate students in psychology! They have thoroughly learned that their behavior is a function of the past, so when they come for help, they may spend long hours in an exploration of the past. Sooner or later, however, they arrive at the conclusion, "Well, now I know why I feel like I do," but almost at once, this statement is followed by, "But damn it all, I still feel that way!"

Our **last criterion** calls for a psychology capable of general use in the solution of pressing human problems.

The essence of humanism is a concern for man. Even the

humanists among us most preoccupied with philosophical and theoretical problems are also deeply concerned with the human condition and how it can be improved. For many of us, problems of application are crucial. Humanistic psychology must contribute to the fulfillment of human potential. Since it deals with immediate causes, perceptual psychology, almost automatically, provides direction for action whether in the classroom, clinic, consultation room or in solving social problems of the ghetto.

Let us take as an example the question of self actualization. Self-actualized people seem to see themselves in positive ways. That is to say, they see themselves as people who are liked, wanted, acceptable, able, and so on. Non-self-actualized people tend to see themselves in negative ways. Now, knowing that self-actualized people see themselves as liked, wanted, acceptable and able we have immediate clues to action. To produce such people (which is, after all, the goal of counseling, social work, and education) it is necessary for us to ask these questions: How can a person feel liked unless somebody likes him? How can a person feel wanted unless somebody wants him? How can a person feel acceptable unless somebody accepts him? How can a person feel able unless somewhere he has some success? In the answers we find to these questions we have immediate clues for action.

Humanistic psychology ought not be a secret society cloaked in obscurity and carrying on its business in a foreign language. Most of us in the humanist movement are concerned that our studies make a difference to the human condition. We, therefore, need to be able to communicate with our students, clients, patients, and the public in language and ideas which are readily and accurately comprehended. Psychological constructs couched in perceptual terms have an immediate applicability to the experience of the man in the street. They have a quality of "of courseness" for him. It is a heartwarming experience to watch the way students exposed to perceptual thought pick up its concepts with enthusiasm and seek for ways to apply them to their own experience and problems. I think a humanistic psychology should be like that.

I am satisfied that perceptual psychology can adequately meet the criteria for a humanistic psychology. It is only fair to say, however, that this opinion is by no means universally accepted. Indeed, some critics of perceptual psychology have serious doubts it can be regarded as a psychology at all! In this discussion I have already dealt with some of their most cogent criticisms. There are several more I should like to mention.

One of the most frequent complaints has been that perceptual psychology is much too simple. It is quite true that many of the principles of perceptual psychology are deceptively simple. Simplicity, however, is hardly a matter for the condemnation of a theory. Indeed, it is one of its greatest strengths. Parsimony is, after all, a major goal of theory building. What could be simpler, for example, than the physical formula $E=MC^2$? I regard this criticism as more of a compliment than a condemnation. The simple and obvious can have vast implications.

Some critics have also complained that the constructs of perceptual psychology are too fluid and are used as both product and process. They feel uncomfortable dealing with constructs like the self concept which is both a product of perception and a modifier of perception. While this two-sided aspect of such a construct makes it inconvenient for some forms of analysis, it in no way destroys its validity as data for a science. The rock in the streambed is a product of the erosion caused by the stream but also affects the flow of water. Thus it is both product and process and a force to be dealt with in understanding the stream and its behavior. Simply because a construct can be objectively measured is no guarantee it is the most accurate possible description of events. One could make a good case for the notion that the concept of the stimulus itself, although capable of objective observation, is not the *real* stimulus at all. A handful of jelly beans the day before Easter is not the same stimulus to a child as the same quantity of jelly beans the day after! The search for absolute concepts is an illusion. If behavior is a function of perception, then a quite satisfactory perceptual psychology can be constructed whether there is anything really present to be perceived or not!

Finally, a criticism voiced by some humanists has found perceptual psychology lacking because it is too deterministic. A humanistic psychology, they maintain, must leave room for choice and self determination. The age old free-will problem thus rises to haunt us once again. It need not, however, for perceptual psychology provides us with **both** a deterministic explanation of behavior and with a creative human being. Its basic axiom that all behavior is the product of the behavior's perceptual field at the moment of action provides us with a completely determined basis for behavior and so satisfies the requirement of a science that its subject matter be lawful. It also disposes of the possibility of "choice." On the other hand, the perceptual field is affected by at least the seven variables we mentioned earlier in this discussion among which, especially, are the self concept and the need for maintenance and enhancement. The operation of these variables on the selection of perception assures that the behavior of any individual will be unique and personal. Behavior is still determined by the field but the nature of the field is modified by need for fulfillment and the self concept. This uniqueness of behavior observed by an outsider is labeled "choice," although it is really nothing of the kind. It could have been predicted had we known enough of the nature of the behavior's field.

So it is that perceptual psychology eliminates choice or free will with one hand, but gives us a creative individual whose every behavior is a unique and personal expression of his self with the other. So it is possible to satisfy both the rigorous requirements of a science and the needs of a humanist movement, a deterministic psychology and a creative dynamic human being.

In closing, we may ask, why search for a psychology for the expression of humanism anyhow? Why not just be eclectic? Why not use whatever works? Certainly, not every worker in humanistic psychology needs to have the same frame of reference. An eclectic approach using "whatever works" may be quite acceptable so long as an individual is not responsible for other people. For persons engaged in professional work, however, eclecticism will never do. There is no special virtue in having no

position. Persons with responsibility for others cannot behave in so haphazard a manner. What they do must be a **predictable** process. This calls for the clearest, most consistent theoretical position possible in the light of current knowledge, to serve as a frame of reference for selecting action. The value of theory is to provide just such guidelines.

There are two great frames of reference for looking at human behavior. We may approach the problem externally, from the point of view of an outside observer, or internally, from the point of view of the behavior himself. The humanist movement began very largely because so many of us found the external approach inadequate to deal with our every day problems. I believe psychology has been drifting toward an internal frame of reference for a generation or more. Different students have also been moving at varying rates of speed and each has made the transition in more or less degree. Maslow once expressed the feeling that in twenty years humanism would become **the** psychology and I think he was right. It is time we made explicit now what we have been implicitly drifting toward. We need a clearcut stand in the new frame of reference and a systematic psychology to give it expression. I believe perceptual psychology can provide that position.

Many humanists have already adopted a perceptual approach as a vehicle for solving their problems. I do not believe a perceptual orientation is the last word nor the only possibility for an adequate expression of the humanist position. It is, however, the only position I have been able to find so far which adequately meets the criteria I have stated in this paper. It has also been stimulating and helpful to me in my professional work and fits most adequately my own thinking, experience and needs.

As Donald Snygg and I commented in our first presentation of this point of view in 1949, "As fallible human beings we can only hope that this is 'if not the truth, then very like the truth'."

The following article raises some interesting and disturbing questions:
 Can a school district always **afford** highly trained and experienced staff?
 What is to happen to good school systems with enriched programs if a state
 educational authority puts a ceiling on **maximum** school expenditures?
 If property taxes for school purposes are abolished, what are the alternatives?

Financial Characteristics of Four Illinois Unit School Districts

Charles W. Fowler

Since the Serrano case first captured the attention of the nation's legal and educational communities, considerable interest has been focused upon the wide range of expenditures per pupil which exists within a region, state and even the nation-at-large. What accounts for these differences? Is it proper to infer, as several state supreme courts have, that the educational program in the highest expenditure district is two or three times "better" than that in the lowest expenditure district? Or, is it simply two or three times more expensive? What are the major differences in the ways in which dissimilar communities raise and expend their funds?

These questions beg for answers in Illinois and other states where legislatures have summarily imposed upon districts maximum levels of expenditures per pupil. This notion of a **maximum** expenditure level constitutes a radical departure, philosophically, from the basic Strayer-Haig formula used in most states for the past fifty years. The S/H formula

provided for a "Foundation level"; i.e., a **minimum** level of expenditures necessary for a quality educational program. The new Illinois plan, known as the Resource Equalizer Formula is presently geared to equalizing the operating income level at \$1260 per WADA pupil. (Districts may spend up to 15% more on "innovative, experimental and research programs").

Given its responsibility for a district with a long history of a high level of financial support for its schools, the DeKalb Board of Education authorized a study of four Illinois unit districts (K-12) with approximately the same enrollment but varying levels of expenditures per pupil. While all of the questions, particularly with respect to programmatic differences, are not answered in the study, the major areas of expenditure differences are identified. In accordance with the agreements reached in obtaining these data, only the District #428 will be identified in the tables which follow:

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1 GENERAL COMMUNITY CHARACTERISTICS

DISTRICT	COMMUNITY POPULATION 1970 CENSUS	1974-1975 SCHOOL DIST. ENROLLMENT	CURRENT ASSESSED VALUATION	A.V.P.P.	CURRENT TAX RATE ALL FUNDS
#428	31,900	4607	\$119,468,176	\$25,931	4.084
A	21,000	5470	149,310,545	27,296	2.6190
B	25,000	4349	100,380,252	23,081	2.4440
C	18,000	4406	53,919,400	12,237	2.6920

Observations: None of the districts is "wealthy" on a measure of assessed value per pupil. In 1973-1974, the highest AVPP for a district in the state was \$462,550 and the lowest was \$3,141, with a state-wide mean AVPP of \$31,471. In DeKalb County,

the range was from \$18,841 to \$41,669. While not the "poorest" district in Illinois, it is clear that District C is considerably lower on a measure of AVPP than any of the others.

2 EDUCATION FUND REVENUE SOURCES PER PUPIL 1973-1974

DISTRICT	PROPERTY TAX	STATE AID	FEDERAL AID	FEES AND OTHER	TOTAL
#428	\$669.26	566.50	3.62	165.25	1404.63
A	379.34	348.53	.98	159.94	888.79
B	476.97	459.35	13.08	66.98	1016.38
C	192.91	502.95	34.95	99.98	830.79

Observations:

1. District #428 receives more than three times the per-pupil revenue of District C in local property taxes.

2. The state aid per pupil is high for District #428 because of its tax rate effort and high for District C because of its low

assessed value per pupil.

3. District #428 and District A are both administrative districts for special education cooperatives which results in a high per-pupil revenue in the "other" category (revenue from the member districts).

3 ALL FUND REVENUE SOURCES PER PUPIL 1973-1974

DISTRICT	EDUC. FUND	BLDG. FUND	TRANS. FUND	BOND & INT. FUND	IMRF	SPECIAL	TOTAL*
#428	1404.63	115.88	58.63	172.18	28.86	31.05	1811.23
A	888.79	106.08	37.54	82.18	11.88	16.73	1143.20
B	1016.38	114.59	47.75	75.80	14.32	11.80	1280.64
C	913.59**	54.93	39.04	41.53	13.16	4.13	1066.38

*does not include Construction Fund, where applicable
**Includes a significant carry-over balance

Observations:

1. District #428 revenue sources per pupil in all funds are higher than any of the other districts under study.

2. District #428 receives almost 60% more per pupil in its Education Fund than District A.

3. The bond and interest revenue per pupil in District #428 is most significantly higher (as much as four times higher).

4 REVENUE SOURCES, ALL FUNDS 1972-1973

DISTRICT	LOCAL TAXES	GENERAL STATE AID	OTHER STATE AID	FEDERAL	STUDENT AND COMM. SERV.	ALL OTHER	TOTAL
#428	6,446,202 (64.1%)	2,248,113 (22.3%)	350,900 (3.4%)	122,677 (1.1%)	415,671 (4.1%)	477,594* (5.0%)	10,061,157*
A	2,941,037 (54.6%)	1,868,012 (35.1%)	111,901 (2.0%)	116,461 (0.1%)	316,291 (5.8%)	130,862 (2.4%)	5,484,564
B	3,165,615 (56.8%)	1,884,356 (33.8%)	154,535 (2.8%)	105,577 (1.9%)	206,773 (3.7%)	56,961 (1.0%)	5,573,817
C	1,393,685 (30.7%)	2,169,774 (47.8%)	205,268 (4.6%)	457,699 (10.1%)	256,084 (5.6%)	55,727 (1.2%)	4,538,237
State Totals	1,379,426,412 (47.8%)	864,181,250 (29.9%)	160,971,439 (5.6%)	158,843,097 (5.4%)	104,329,925 (3.6%)	217,814,230 (7.7%)	2,885,566,356

*Adjusted to exclude bond sale proceeds of \$5.75 million.

Observations:

1. 360% more revenue is generated from local taxes in District #428 than in District C.

2. In all districts except C the local taxes produce a higher percentage of the revenue.

3. Districts A, B and C receive at or above the state average in State Aid; District #428 receives below the average.

4. Federal aid is significant only in District C.

5. The high "other income" for District #428 and District A is accounted for because of their roles as administrative districts for cooperatives.

5 INDIVIDUAL FUND REVENUE AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL REVENUE 1973-1974

DISTRICT	EDUC. FUND	BLDG. FUND	TRANSP. FUND	BOND & INT. FUND	IMRF	SPECIAL	TOTAL
#428	77.5%	6.4%	3.3%	9.5%	1.6%	1.7%	100.0%
A	77.6%	9.3%	3.3%	7.2%	1.0%	1.6%	100.0%
B	79.4%	8.9%	3.7%	5.9%	1.2%	0.9%	100.0%
C	85.8%	5.3%	3.7%	3.9%	1.3%	0.1%	100.0%

Observation: The districts are reasonably consistent in the distribution of revenue by funds.

6

EDUCATION FUND PER PUPIL EXPENDITURES AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION FUND AND ALL FUND EXPENDITURES 1973-1974

	PER PUPIL EXPENDITURES				PERCENT OF TOTAL			
	PER PUPIL DIST. #428	PER PUPIL DIST. A	PER PUPIL DIST. B	PER PUPIL DIST. C	EDUCATION FUND EXPENDITURES AS A PERCENT OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES	DIST. A	DIST. B	DIST. C
TOTAL ADMINISTRATION COSTS	48.95	31.10	26.69	34.81	3.4- 2.7	3.5- 2.7	2.6- 2.0	3.8- 3.3
SALARIES PRINCIPALS	41.07	30.04	34.48	37.29	2.9- 2.3	3.4- 2.6	3.4- 2.7	4.1- 3.5
SALARIES TEACHERS	735.52	490.91	646.03	527.69	52.4-40.6	55.2-42.9	63.5-50.5	57.8-49.5
SALARIES OTHER	36.98	8.11	4.15	8.23	2.6- 2.0	1.0- 1.0	LT 1	LT 1
INSTRUCTION OTHER	139.24	75.28	33.55	65.29	9.9- 7.7	8.4- 6.6	3.3- 2.6	7.1- 6.1
TOTAL INSTRUCTION	952.81	604.34	718.21	638.50	67.8-52.6	67.9-52.8	70.7-56.1	69.9-59.9
TOTAL ATTENDANCE	1.50	0	.37	0	LT 1	0	LT 1	0
TOTAL HEALTH	11.50	5.19	3.91	0	LT 1	LT 1	LT 1	0
TOTAL OPERATION	73.58	23.64	29.33	64.81	5.2- 4.0	2.7- 2.0	2.9- 2.3	7.1- 1.1
TOTAL MAINTENANCE	1.47	1.70	2.59	9.48	LT 1	LT 1	LT 1	1.0-LT 1
TOTAL FIXED CHARGES	40.45	12.64	20.36	17.29	2.9- 2.2	1.4- 1.1	2.0- 1.6	1.9- 1.6
TOTAL ADULT EDUC.	0.00	2.28	.31	0.00	0	LT 1	LT 1	0
TOTAL SUMMER SCHOOL	13.84	6.38	2.81	7.99	LT 1	LT 1	LT 1	LT 1
TOTAL ATHLETICS	20.74	5.91	8.08	12.24	1.5- 1.1	LT 1	LT 1	1.3- 1.1
TOTAL TEXTBOOKS	0.00	8.45	15.31	10.09	0	LT 1	1.5- 1.2	1.1-LT 1
TOTAL SCHOOL LUNCH	47.70	52.36	33.36	58.92	3.4- 2.6	5.9- 4.6	3.3- 2.6	6.4- 5.5
TOTAL STUDENT & COMMUNITY	24.99	3.63	.28	7.09	1.8- 1.4	LT 1	LT 1	LT 1
TOTAL CAPITAL OUTLAY	1.97	12.57	10.63	8.86	LT 1	1.4- 1.1	1.0-LT-1	LT 1
OTHER	165.13	118.60	144.14	43.51	11.8- 9.1	13.3-10.4	14-11.3	4.8- 4.1
TOTAL	1404.63	888.79	1016.38	913.59	100	100	100	100
ALL FUND TOTAL	1811.23	1143.20	1280.64	1066.38				

FIGURES GIVEN ARE PERCENTAGES
LT = LESS THAN

Observations:

1. District #428 spends the highest amount per pupil on:

Administrative costs
Principals' salaries
Teachers' salaries
Other salaries

Other instructional costs
Attendance

Health
Operation
Fixed Charges
Summer School

Athletics
Student & Community services
Other expenses

2. District #428 spends less than the highest amount per pupil on:

Maintenance
School lunch
Capital outlay

3. As a percent of the education fund, District #428 spends the highest percentage on:

Other salaries (secretaries, aides, etc.)
Instruction (other)
Fixed Charges

Student & Community services

4. As a percent of the education fund,

District #428 spends less than the highest percentage on:

Central administration
Principals' salaries
Teachers' salaries
Operation
School lunch

5. On a measure of the percent of expenditures going for Instruction, the four districts varied at most by only 2.9%. On the amount spent for Instruction, however, the per pupil variance is as high as \$348 or 57.6% more.

7

EXPENDITURES, ALL FUNDS 1972-1973

DIST.	ADMINIS- TRATION	INSTRUC- TION	STUD. AND COMM. SERV.	OPER. MAINT. FIXED CHARGES	BONDS	CAPITAL OUTLAY	ALL OTHER	TOTAL	PER CAPITA TUITION*
#428	225,515 (2.9%)	4,615,105 (60.9)	494,144 (6.6)	1,384,199 (18.3)	415,000 (5.4)	148,388 (2.0)	292,862 (3.9)	7,575,215 (100%)	1469.79
A	170,091 (2.9%)	3,475,189 (60.5)	432,199 (7.6)	823,313 (14.5)	365,000 (6.4)	459,038 (8.0)	28,394 (0.1)	5,753,224 (100%)	903.66
B	161,093 (3.4%)	3,239,562 (68.0)	261,600 (5.6)	824,205 (17.3)	210,000 (4.5)	50,303 (1.1)	18,608 (0.1)	4,765,372 (100%)	1042.74
C	140,241 (3.2%)	2,751,960 (62.1)	397,311 (9.0)	669,455 (15.1)	114,000 (2.6)	351,142 (7.9)	6,231 (0.1)	4,430,342 (100%)	780.65

*Determined according to a state formula.

Observation: While the amount spent per pupil varies by up to 88% higher in one

district over another, the highest difference in the way in which the funds are distributed amounts to only 7.3%.

8

STAFFING AND SALARY DATA 1973-1974

DISTRICT	TOTAL CERT. STAFF	CERTIFIED STAFF RATIOS				NON- CERT. STAFF RATIO	AVERAGE TEACHER SALARY
		ELEM.	SEC.	SPEC. ED.	TOTAL		
#428	272.5	18.5	25.8	10.1	17.9	28.1	13,800
A	316.5	17.7	19.4	16.1	17.1	38.5	10,288
B	255.0	17.7	21.7	7.0	17.1	52.5	10,453
C	256.1	21.3	19.3	7.8	17.2	34.0	11,574
State		20.6	20.1	7.2	17.9	37.1	-

Observations:

1. The ratio of total certified staff to students is about the same for all districts with District #428 being at the state average and the other districts being slightly below the state average (the lower the ratio, the higher the staffing level).

2. The ratio of high school certified staff in District #428 is significantly higher than the state average and the districts in this comparison.

3. The non-certified staff ratio in District #428 is significantly lower than in any other district or when compared to the state average.

4. The average teacher's salary in District #428 is 35% higher than in District A (although the differences in salary schedules between these districts amount to less than 20% at the beginning of the schedules and less than 30% at the maximum).

CONCLUSIONS:

1. While the dollar amount expended per pupil in the four districts varies considerably, the purposes for which funds are expended are reasonably consistent in each case.

2. Only in the case of the number of non-certified staff does District No. 428 appear to have a higher ratio (secretaries, custodians, aides, food services, etc.).

3. The average certified staff salary is higher by as much as 35% in District No. 428 although the salary schedules vary by only a few percentage points (more experienced and highly-trained staff force the average salary up).

4. If the average salary in all districts were \$10,288 and District No. 428 had the average number of non-certified staff, the operating fund per-pupil expenditures for 1973-1974 would have been approximately:

District #428 - 1147

District A - 1006

District B - 1131

District C - 974

The highest-expenditure district would be only 17% higher than the lowest expenditure district as contrasted with the almost 60% difference that exists without equalizing the staffing and average salary levels.

A FINAL OBSERVATION

There are at least two major questions which must be answered as high-expenditure school districts across the nation face the prospect of either (1) having to maintain their present per-pupil expenditure level in the face of declining enrollments and unprecedented inflation while other districts "catch up" or (2) having to level-down their per-pupil expenditures to some magical "average" figure. One question is that dealt with in this paper: does spending more money per pupil guarantee a higher quality program? I believe DeKalb has a high quality program

but its basis is multi-faceted:

(1) its philosophical commitment to educating children individually

(2) a supportive school board and community

(3) many highly-trained, experienced and creative teachers, administrators, and non-certified staff

(4) support services from the University and the community at large

(5) a reasonably homogeneous school population (sociologically and ethnically)

(6) flexible school facilities

While some of these factors may require a higher expenditure level, it is not a sine qua non. Stated in a more succinct fashion: a higher expenditure level per se will guarantee none of these. Spending more money per pupil does not guarantee a higher quality program. At the end of this great educational equalization movement we are likely to find the same

9

UNIT COSTS OF OTHER COMMUNITY GOVERNMENTAL SERVICES 1973-1974

DISTRICT	FIRE PROTECTION PER RESIDENT	POLICE PROTECTION PER RESIDENT	PARK & REC. SERVICES PER RESIDENT	LIBRARY SERVICES PER RESIDENT	TOTAL
#428	20.20 (35.5%)	23.43 (41.2%)	8.69 (15.3%)	4.53 (7.9%)	56.85
A	18.28 (42.3%)	20.06 (46.5%)	2.73 (6.3%)	2.11 (4.9%)	43.18
B	12.13 (26.2%)	19.34 (41.8%)	10.18 (22.0%)	4.58 (9.9%)	46.23
C	6.26 (25.7%)	9.24 (37.9%)	5.71 (23.4%)	3.15 (12.9%)	24.36

Observations:

1. The communities rank in the same order in expenditures for these services as they do for schools (See Table VI).

2. The expenditure per resident within each community follows the same rank order for services:

High - Police Protection

- Fire Protection

- Parks & Recreation

Low - Library

3. In communities of approximately the same size, the expenditures for these basic government services differ by as much as 500%.

schools and the same programs costing significantly more.

The second question is one of social policy. Should local communities be permitted latitude in operating their schools such that the minimum expectations of the state can be met and those community expectations that are desired and affordable by the community can also be met? The issue of course is local control. Prior to the Serrano decision the policy of most states was to guarantee a **minimum** per pupil expenditure level regardless of a community's wealth (Strayer-Haig formula). The State required certain minimal programs (basic literacy, physical education, driver education, etc.) but beyond this, communities were free to expand program offerings subject only to the financial limitations imposed by district voters. The social policy, therefore, was one of minimal quality level guarantees and local freedom to enrich. The problem, of course, was that the minimum (foundation) level never reached a minimum quality level. If, for example, the Illinois legislature established \$1260 as the minimum quality level rather than the \$550 that existed in the Strayer-Haig formula, a different effect would be noted.

Under the post-Serrano laws and court decisions we now must contend with **maximum** rather than **minimum** expenditure levels. As a matter of social policy, this is an anomalous situation. Consider, for example,

- [a] unemployment benefits are **minimum** benefits
- [b] the public defender usually meets **minimal** standards of legal expertise
- [c] Medicare offers **minimum** benefits
- [d] Social Security offers **minimal**

pension provisions

[e] there are **minimum** wage laws

Almost all the social programs in this country are built upon the concept of guaranteeing certain opportunities to all citizens regardless of their personal wealth. No limitation is placed upon individuals whose native ability or personal means permits them to secure higher wages, more qualified attorneys, higher pensions, better medical care, etc.

Perhaps the only thing wrong with the Strayer-Haig formula was that the foundation level was too low. The Serrano decision raised two major issues: variance in expenditure levels and inequity in property taxation. It is time to deal positively with both issues and in the process resolve the property tax albatross that has plagued the American taxpayer for half a century. As is displayed in Table IV, all citizens with income pay about 40% of the Illinois school costs and those citizens owning real property (who may or may not have a significant income) pay about 60% of the costs. My proposal would work as follows:

- 1. Abolish all property taxes for school purposes
- 2. Establish a realistic minimum foundation level to be paid entirely by the State to all school districts with weighting factors for:
 - a. regional cost of living data (which might require higher employee salary schedules, higher costs for basic maintenance services, higher food costs, etc.)
 - b. more highly trained and experienced staff
 - c. special education students including gifted
 - d. Title I students (related to available Federal aid)

e. vocational education students (related to Federal aid)

f. high school students

These costs would be funded through an increase in the state income tax and perhaps Federal revenue sharing.

3. Establish the opportunity for an income tax surcharge to be voted at the local school district level to cover local costs for:

- a. bond retirement for school construction purposes including special education facilities and life safety code work
- b. program enrichment desired beyond the foundation level

Such a system would not only permit the equalization concept to be realized on a minimum quality basis but would relieve the farmers and low or fixed income families from the burden of the property tax. Both of these changes are urgently needed.

THE **BEST** PROGRAM IN ILLINOIS

Arthur Hoppe

The Illinois Education Association has undertaken an enormous professional task: the definition and communication of Better Educational Standards for Today—B E S T. These standards are to reflect the best that can be hoped for as optimum conditions for teaching and learning in the schools of Illinois. It represents the profession's proposal for a sound base for accountability. The BEST program attempts to answer such questions as, "How do successful teachers get that way?" and "Where do good programs come from?" and "Who is accountable to whom? and for what?"

Teaching Success

The success of individual teachers is hardly ever the undiluted expression of pure talent. It is not usually the result of dogged determination in the face of insurmountable odds. It is rarely the application of all that is taught and learned in pre-service teacher education programs. It is not even guaranteed by vast community wealth or virtually unlimited resources in a school district. And it certainly isn't just dumb luck. Sometimes it seems that any of these could be the main reason for a particular success, but it is rarely that simple. Far more often, success in teaching and learning is the result of a combination of talent and training and resources and commitment directed toward values and goals that are commonly agreed upon and rigorously pursued. Mutual encouragement and cooperative help are required. It presumes high morale founded in support systems essential for success. And more. Such conditions are hardly universal among school districts today. The success of a student could be stymied by any one of such factors—even by the teacher. And the success of a teacher could be stymied by any of them—even by the student. The

teaching-learning situation is not as simple as it may seem. It does not lend itself to simplistic accountability schemes.

Responsibility

Public schools are so complex today because society is complex and because many persons and groups are involved in school affairs and have certain responsibility for their success. The roles and the influence of some are more immediate and more visible than others: for example, boards of education, school administrators and supervisors, guidance workers, librarians, medical staff, service personnel, teachers and paraprofessionals. Less evident but often critical in import are such groups as the State legislature, the State Department of Public Instruction, the clergy, the media—particularly the press, business and industry, unions, parent-teacher associations, the lay public in general and parents in particular; and in some ways the most critically important—the student and his peers. Virtually everyone in the school community has responsibility of some sort for the education of its members. Everyone should be interested and involved. Everyone should be accountable.

Who Shall Judge Standards?

The active members of any professional group are best qualified to identify the conditions and standards for their work. Barbers are not consulted on the illumination of operating rooms. Truck drivers are not expected to clarify vaguenesses in the law. And governors or pilots or bank presidents are not hired as agronomy consultants. It is not surprising, then, that the teachers of Illinois assumed the professional stance: that **they** are best able to outline optimum conditions under which their work can be conducted; **they** are best able to describe the likely consequences of following one teaching procedure or another,

of certain educational policies or their neglect, of necessary resources or their absence; they are best able to identify the standards for appraisal that would represent the optimum which school systems should provide for teachers and learners. The IEA saw a clear obligation to its members and to their clientele. But it is no quick or simple task.

IEA's Program

The BEST program was mounted by IEA less than a year ago, having been conceived and developed by the Committee on Accountability and the Professional Development staff of the Association. The six member committee represents teachers at levels of elementary, secondary and higher education. It soon became clear to them that the accountability programs most widely known had responded to a cry of "more success for less money" in education. The cry was often taken up by legislators who quite obviously had industrial models in mind. It was voiced by conservatives, more concerned with paying less than with getting a better quality of education for their communities. It seemed oddly irrelevant that the cost of bread or milk or toilet tissue went up 25 percent at a clip, with no noticeable improvement in quality; or that the automobile industry in 1972 recalled for dangerous defects more cars than were produced that year! At any rate, the IEA Committee tackled its task. They took a hard look at themselves as professionals, at their schools, their students and their world. They enumerated certain critical points in educational affairs where teachers needed to speak out if they were to participate in a program of accountability. The Committee took the initiative to set down the first tentative statements of belief and policy and standard which were to be spread to all districts, all teachers, and eventually to be

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more fully developed into the BEST program for the State.

The profession has a right and an obligation to express itself on such vital matters as make up the framework of the **BEST Handbook**. It is considered imperative that teachers be heard on accountability, evaluation and reporting, on teacher standards, training and appraisal, on decision making in general and curriculum development in particular, on school organization and staffing, on instructional resources, and on equality of educational opportunity at all levels. Pupil personnel services are also included, as are separate sections on each of the academic disciplines. Even this broad outline does not disclose other emphases that were operative, for example, in reading or in-service education of teachers.

Background for the work was secured from professional literature, authorities, research reports, as well as from practical experience and gut feelings of teachers. More than 100 education organizations, State and National, were sought out for their own statements of policy and standards to be worked into the program. Over twenty responded with useable material; nearly all the others indicated that they were grateful, concerned, working at it, and would like to participate—later. Their time will come. Guidelines and standards have already been incorporated from organizations representing early childhood education, health-physical education-and-recreation, librarians, counselors, English, mathematics, science, social studies, and others.

BEST represents an on-going program of professional **action** designed to arrive at standards which are optimal, not minimal, for education in Illinois today. The involvement of every teacher in the State was deliberately planned. The BEST program has come before meetings of the profession and its Board of Directors. It has

had wide publication in **The Advocate**, an IEA monthly newspaper received by over 60,000 members. Personal interviews, telephone conversations and correspondence have been carried on with numerous groups concerned. Workshops, seminars and open hearings have been held in the separate school districts. Questionnaires and reaction sheets were made available to every teacher. Task forces with regional coordinators were working all over the State. The fact that this is the teachers' statement has not precluded the involvement of other concerned persons and groups in the community. More and more opportunities for even fuller involvement are built into the developing program. And those who already have had several opportunities will have others.

BEST Is the Beginning

The central point is that BEST represents the beginning of an enduring program. It presents currently optimum standards which were never meant to be static or final. It is presumed that those standards delineated today will surely change in some ways from community to community as time goes on. As the **Handbook** is read, it will be noticed that certain important areas have somewhat sketchy guidelines or standards. These will likely grow more complete as appropriate representatives and their organizations continue to address the task. These BEST standards were never meant to be "the" final statement of targets for schools or final criteria on which more sensible accountability programs might be based. But the **Handbook** does represent a start; it does represent significant input from a professional group most intimately concerned; and it does begin to forge statements that make sense to teachers.

Accountability

It is not difficult to understand the misgivings of teachers who

contemplate other typical accountability programs. Usually they depend on systems approaches applied indiscriminately, regardless of the unique conditions in different districts or schools or classrooms. Usually they relate specifically to behavioral goals and performance criteria which may have limited meaning or application for different groups and may even be imposed on people who had no part in their development. Usually accountability has assumed that we can save money for taxpayers if only data can be secured to show that schools are somehow failing in their work. Of course, some people might argue that every school below any statistical mean could be considered failing in its work and hence eligible for the big budget cut. Yet, while the auto industry recalled millions of dangerously defective new cars, they unabashedly **raised** the prices of their products! Shall we follow the industrial model?

BEST doesn't promise miracles. But neither does it compare kids to cars. It won't produce genius where none is warranted. But it won't destroy morale thru mass testing or proclaiming in the public press that this school or that teacher of those students are below the norm! BEST doesn't even promise to save money. Teachers realize, even as do doctors or lawyers or business men or union representatives, that costs are going up and the limits aren't even in sight. Perhaps more important, BEST is the product of teachers, thousands of professional practitioners whose main concern is the creation of those conditions conducive to good teaching and learning, and the identification of standards that teachers can support.

The **BEST Handbook** for schooling in Illinois is available from
The Illinois Education Association
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THE POTENTIAL OF ETV

Tom Fisher

Educational television (ETV) is a widely recognized teaching tool that has never reached its potential. It has possibilities in a wide range of educational settings. ETV reaches out beyond the classroom into the community providing opportunities yet untapped. However, in spite of this glowing outlook for educational television, the financial support for this form of instruction is left wanting.

Unlike commercial television stations and networks, educational television is severely restricted in terms of equipment, personnel and studios. With smaller crews and facility deficiencies, ETV needs more support in order to develop a quality educational program. There have been excellent stations like KQED, San Francisco, and WGBH, Boston. And programs like Sesame Street do exist. Funding for these exceptional stations and shows has occurred as an outgrowth of strong local support. However, for the majority of stations, consistency and completeness of programming are lacking as a result of poor funding.

Funding Problems

Historically, ETV has had minimal support. During the past decade, state and local governments have underwritten about 60% of ETV's funds. For the remaining 40% of the funds the federal government has contributed about 10%, foundation grants 15%, and personal contributions have accounted for the remaining funds.

In 1967, over two billion dollars was spent on television, but ETV comprised less than 3% of that total. So on a comparative basis, ETV operated on peanuts, and the situation is still basically the same

today. Currently, the average state per capita contribution to the medium is fifty cents.

Several funding plans have been attempted and many untried ideas have gained attention. The most frequently expressed ideas include federal funding, an excise tax on receivers, financing from a public satellite operation, subscription television, funds from commercial broadcasting licenses and cable TV fee, and "controlled" advertising. ETV needs a stable, long-range funding plan that goes beyond past attempts.

Recently, the PBS (Public Broadcasting System) announced that it is organizing a campaign to bolster funding. The campaign will be financed by over one million dollars by the Ford Foundation.

This campaign, called the Station Independence Project, has the following goals:

1. to triple the amount of American households subscribing to their local PTV stations in three years (from one million),
2. to encourage more individual stations to increase their fund raising and promotional efforts,
3. to raise awareness on the part of state and local governments in the hope that more money will be forthcoming.

Promotion

National PTV Awareness Week is scheduled for March 7-17, 1975. At that time, PBS will be feeding its member stations a special package of programs designed to attract a specific audience. PBS is preparing a graphics package and promotional spots for publicity. Locally, television and radio stations are being encouraged to break into the national programming with requests for funds, auctions, and informational reports on the nature of PTV's financial needs.

This new department will eventually offer stations promotional materials including news letters, direct mail lists, on and off-the-air promotions, and additionally, will counsel stations on local promotional projects and fund raising. It is expected that 60% of the one hundred fifty-three PTV licensees will play an active role in the project.

In the area of federal funding, Congress passed and President Ford recently signed a continuing resolution that would give the Corporation for Public Broadcasting \$60 million for fiscal 1975. Educational broadcasting facilities program would eventually receive \$10 million. It is expected that both of these amounts will be slightly increased when Congress reconvenes.

It remains to be seen whether current funding efforts will be more successful than those in the past. Perhaps the Station Independence Project will develop and open the eyes of many, but it will take some doing, it appears.

Why is ETV worthy of extensive funding? Quality educational television, in response to adequate funding, involves adding to the significant knowledge of the audience—knowledge that can be applied for individual needs as well as for social purposes. ETV may deal with specific understanding or training for certain skills. Cultural experience and range of topic can also be increased. ETV may look at social and political values, and explore human judgments—supported by reason and in accord with fact.

School Programs

In schools, programs can be utilized in a variety of ways. First, programs can be developed as supplementary teaching aids. For example lessons related to the course of study could be presented

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A secondary education student views the potential of an instructional medium.....

Are there still untapped opportunities for using ETV?

What progress is being made in securing more funding?

once or twice a week by an expert to augment classroom work. Secondly, television can be a procedure for teaching directly, when material is introduced and completed on the screen. Thirdly, television can be used as a means of enrichment. In this way, programs can utilize outstanding local resources or talent which becomes available to the classroom for a short time. Finally, television can be used as a total teaching tool.

ETV offers several unique advantages. Television facilitates communication. Knowledge from experts can reach large groups of people. Television gives viewers a sense of reality for they can observe people in terms of settings, emotions, and situations. TV's technical assets allow for expert editing, use of film clips, recordings, special effects, etc. Material on television is usually timely. Students also seem to enjoy the variety TV in the classroom offers. Motivation is seldom a problem when a quality television program is presented. (1, 299)

The Teacher and ETV

Contrary to popular opinion, the teacher of a class viewing an ETV program cannot afford to take a vacation. A machine alone cannot counsel, assist, direct, inspire, and notice the feelings of the student. Personal presence during a presentation is needed. First rate teachers are needed to supplement instruction. If the program fails, it is the teacher's responsibility to salvage the experience. Certainly, the teacher will have the difficult task of coordinating program times with classes, and maintaining the equipment.

Those who have been most successful with television have used program materials that students can comprehend with some ease, but have also presented

ideas distinctive enough to be remembered. ETV lessons have been best received when they didn't interrupt the continuity of a unit, but rather supplemented the material. Programs of 20-30 minutes in length have fit into most schools' class periods nicely, leaving discussion time at the end of the period.

Community Benefits

Public television can also be a benefit to the community. The following is the program policy for station WCET, in Cincinnati:

1. Systematic programming for children of pre-school age,
2. Programs to enrich the classroom experience for children in the elementary and secondary schools,
3. Constructive programs for out-of-school hours for children,
4. Courses in formal education in high school and college level subjects for youth and adults,
5. Programs for the home viewer to improve skills and earning power, to better understand community problems and projects, to demonstrate new developments in science, art, and international affairs,
6. Music, drama, and other programs in the field of the arts that are both entertaining and self-improving,
7. Programs that will add to the store of personal value which may contribute to better family life, and the long-range welfare of the community and country (1, 236-237).

Other School Uses

Television in schools can be used for other purposes in addition to ETV program viewing. Daily announcements can be communicated immediately. Television can be used for teacher training, cafeteria monitoring, fire and

safety drill instruction, group meetings, and security surveillance.

Teachers can also tape their own presentations for broadcast to their own and other classes. Students can use television for taping and playback, especially in speech, drama, and broadcast classes. For instance, one teacher is looking into the possibility of daily monitoring of UPI wire copy in strategic places in the school. Eventually, a daily newscast by the students could emerge. This could take the place of the school newspaper in some schools, where the newspaper has become infeasible economically.

To sum up, with proper funding, ETV programs would be able to present a balanced schedule of quality programs. Schools need to use television more for ETV programs (and for other uses). Educators should explore the potential of television in their schools and promote the growth of ETV and school television accordingly.

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Students' Rights and the School Administrator

Steven G. Hartman

Research in the field of due process in relation to student rights shows eight major areas where school rules and laws are presently changing or have recently undergone some major revision. Some of the areas are closely interrelated, but each area has its own individual set of ramifications for the administrator responsible for dealing in the particular areas. The first is freedom of speech, the right guaranteed to all citizens by the First Amendment to the Constitution. In the last ten years, the term "symbolic speech" has appeared frequently in connection with student rights. An example of symbolic speech was demonstrated in the 1969 Tinker Case which dealt with the right to wear black arm bands in school. A federal judge awarded \$150.00 to a student who was not allowed his constitutional freedom to wear a black band at school.(3) In the area of attempting to anticipate disturbances, the courts have taken many of the alternatives away from administrators. When making rulings on cases involving discipline, as applied to students whom the courts later ruled were only in a potential state of disruption, it has been emphasized that there must be a serious threat of disruption or violence, otherwise the administrator can be held accountable for restriction of the individual's constitutionally sanctioned freedoms.

Freedom of the Press

Directly related to freedom of speech is freedom of the press, which reaches the courts in the form of litigation concerning the

rights of students to publish and distribute so-called underground newspapers and pamphlets. The courts of the nation have been increasingly filled with students attempting to affirm their right to publish personal opinions, regardless of a probability of offending the majority of adult sensibilities. A test case in Joliet, Illinois in 1969 illustrates this point. Two students were expelled from a high school after writing a publication which was then distributed in the school building, and which contained materials critical of school policies and authorities.(6) Adults reading the publication might easily have taken offense at the facetious references to oral sex, or to the abundance of name calling, and negative statements aimed at administrative officials, but the courts condoned these expressions. The court awarded all requested settlements to the plaintiffs because, "the Board could not have reasonably forecast that the publication and distribution of the paper would substantially disrupt or materially interfere with school procedures."(6) It seems that administrators are going to have to do their own homework in becoming aware of what constitutes freedom of speech.

Expulsion and Suspension

The expulsion or suspension of students is another item of due process. If after an administrator has leveled an expulsion or a suspension he has not provided for a hearing to question and inform the transgressor about the nature and extent of the rule violated, it is a failure to provide due process. In essence, what the courts are saying about the idea of involuntary interruption is somewhat different

from what has been assumed previously. Until 1967, the school administration has been pretty much the sole authority for deciding the nature and the extent of suspensions and expulsions. Since the sixties, the courts seem determined to support the concept that a student is an individual, equal under the law. Students are now finding themselves in a state of equality that could be termed as more than equal. In the State of Michigan, in a case pending in 1972, two students contended that they had been deprived of property rights in terms of future employment, because they had been deprived of their high school diplomas, resulting from an unfair expulsion.(5) No other class of people in the United States has ever been given such protected rights. No one else is so prevented from making mistakes, and especially from paying the penalty for any mistakes that do occur. Some courts have even gone as far as to reduce the amount of time set by school authorities for a suspension or an expulsion because it was said to be unduly harsh. Exclusion from school can prevent a student from obtaining the all-important high school diploma, which is viewed as an economic entity, not as a symbol of academic achievement. Statistics show that the more education one receives, the better will be his chances of earning a higher income. Such is the legal reasoning. Here is a clear example of court intervention in the everyday functioning of the school.

Locker Searches

Another right that has not been respected until legal recourse became common practice is the freedom from capricious search

Steven G. Hartman is a teacher at Mt. Carroll, Illinois and has taken graduate work at Northern Illinois University.

A graduate student expresses his views on student rights....

Do you agree with Mr. Hartman's analysis of the present state of students' rights?

Do you think the courts have gone too far in protecting these rights?

What are the consequences of recent court decisions?

Can our nation's schools become functional democracies?

and seizure. The laws that apply in a criminal suit are now being applied to the adolescent in school. Any admission of wrongdoing made under what might be termed coercive conditions can be found invalid. It is assumed by the courts that when an administrator makes a search of a student's locker, he is looking for something in particular and that he has a good reason to believe that he will find something there. At least this rationale is what is allowing the school supervisors to continue locker investigations without being required to obtain a search warrant. School officials are currently being given the benefit of the doubt concerning the intent and purpose behind locker searches, but it would also be logical to assume that it will take only a few court cases proving abuse of that privilege and the administrator will have to get a search warrant every time he wishes to look into a student's locker.

Dress Code

One of the largest areas of conflict in the schools has stemmed from student dress code. It has been ruled by the Federal Courts that a student has the right to dress in any manner he chooses. One court has even gone so far as to assert that it is the right of a girl to come to school in a bikini, or a boy in a loin cloth, if they so desire.⁽⁵⁾ Federal courts have repeatedly negated any specific guidelines for acceptable dress in the schools by refusing permission to create a criterion for determining what or what not to wear. Sanitary codes, where applicable, are the only guidelines that may be suggested as a possible standard of acceptability. The current trend of

knocking down dress codes and upholding almost in total students' rights, would have the appearance of a pendulum that has swung only in one direction. All that has been brought into legal focus so far has been the student's right to individuality. No one has given more than a cursory thought to the rights of teachers and other individuals in a classroom when the dress is offensive to the majority, or so overly provocative as to distract from the ability to concentrate on the process of education. A workable solution might be for each class to establish its own guidelines of acceptability. Manner of dress could be decided by each individual class, and flexibility in compliance with individual standards would then be the responsibility of each individual in each particular class.

Since the courts of today are interpreting freedom of appearance under the heading of individual expression, when a board of education prepares to make rules pertaining to manner of dress, they might do well to consider the student's rights as expressed by an authority on school law, M. Chester Nolte. "In the balance between the individual rights of the student to be himself and the interest of the board in running a good school system, the court first places a weight on the side of the student."⁽⁴⁾ It would now appear that the best guideline for school personnel to use in attempting to bring about agreement as to appropriate school dress, would be to allow everyone to make his feelings known, and then attempt to establish a working agreement. Some problems in group decision-making might be anticipated because of the type of

student who takes pleasure in the knowledge that he has disrupted class activity. The courts have also changed the definition of disruptive activity to an act that can be proved to have existed after the fact, rather than allowing any attempts at restraint previous to the actual incident. The school must now exercise caution in challenging a student for what might have been termed unacceptable dress standards, previous to the 1960's abolition of dress codes per se. The pre-existing justification for making discretionary judgments, the old worn-out idea of *In Loco Parentis* should be given up for dead and buried.

Discrimination

Another area of growing concern among many educational institutions is discrimination. Discrimination refers not only to racial issues, but also to sexual discrimination. The courts have recently been drawn into the battle to protect the equal status that women are supposed to share under the law. Rulings have come out of the courts to date to force the schools involved to hastily establish some programs involving women, and this is only the beginning. Arguments against equal competition are crumbling rapidly, and there may soon come a time when more than a scattering of female athletes participate on the same teams as their male counterparts, except for sharing the shower.

Corporal Punishment

A sensitive area for administrators is the freedom to dispense corporal punishment with the autonomy once practiced. There was a time when the teacher was not only allowed to make physical

contact whenever it was felt necessary but there was virtually no restriction on the use of force by a teacher. Many people who have matriculated through the educational system have recalled injustices imposed on them and have begun to make use of the courts to test the rights of teachers to use physical punishment on their children. The current practice of discipline in Illinois allows the teacher to use wrist slapping, or some other minor forms of punitive action as long as there is at least one witness, and the teacher holds his temper. Even though it is common practice, there are many parents who have forbidden the schools to touch their children, under any circumstance involving discipline. This takes one more means of control out of the hands of the classroom instructor and is an unrealistic concept. Democracy, as it functions in our society, imposes a coercive system of punishments on those individuals who violate its constructs, and in the classroom, the teacher who is not permitted to discipline will find that her effectiveness to maintain order has been weakened. Many students have taken cases involving corporal punishments to the courts in an attempt to prove that the Bill of Rights prohibits cruel and unusual punishment. They have found to their dismay that the courts usually do rule to allow physical punishment, and they are in essence saying that this type of punishment is not cruel and unusual. If the necessity, or felt necessity, for corporal punishment were removed, schools might be able to educate for democracy. If for no other reason, the courts, must be made to believe that it is impractical through logic and reasoning. Failing in this, our forced system of education would parallel some other non-functional aspects of our democratic system of government.

Religious Activities

As a result of the earliest court battles, Johnnie can't be forced to participate in religiously associated activities. Besides restraints aimed at preventing theistic indoctrination, there are immunities from recitation of any religious or patriotic material in the classroom. At the present time we are in an interim stage of rebuttal from the pro-patriotic and religious segment of our society.

Right to Assemble

Another area that has not realized its full potential is the right of the student to peaceable assembly. Students have long since had the right to organize groups for student government and student councils, but often these groups were helpless or extremely limited in actual power. Today, students cannot be prohibited from assembling, even if the cause of the meeting is viewed by the administration as being controversial. Here the student side of the issue may work toward improvement. If an expanded curriculum, or an updating of physical structures, or better food service, or any positive contribution to the over-all educational system were the result of student activism, then the school should allow dissent and learn to be responsive to it. A plan to action or inquiry initiated by students which results in access to school officials does more than simply allow the public to see where students stand on any particular issue, it hopefully puts an extra responsibility of review and disclosure on anyone exercising power.

The end result of true equality in the schools would tend to be the creation of a microcosm of society, in which democratic principles would be the basis for operation and existence. In such a situation, directives and rules would be something agreed upon by all parties concerned. It would seem that the responsibility for decision-making is being thrust not so much upon the adolescent as it is being withheld from that segment of society which up to this time has been responsible for spoon-feeding decisions to the school inhabitants.

Due Process

The concept of what constitutes due process is one which permeates the entire spectrum of school functioning and the process of learning. In some of the cases mentioned here, it is quite imaginable that the initial disruption caused has never settled down totally. In some of these cases these decisions may have served as a catalyst to the more disruptive segment of the school population in encouraging them to continue to experiment with further exploitation of student rights. It must be admitted that there is a definite legal trend toward the restriction of the areas of ultimate jurisdiction and concern of the school adminis-

trator. We have yet to see the end of court decision-making dealing with the limitations of school policies and prerogatives. If, in this difficult time, the school administrators fail to stand up for what they believe right, they may find themselves reduced to becoming glorified business managers. It is the job of the administrator to be the educational leader, and that connotes being in on conflict and decision-making. If the administrator is considered weak-kneed and spineless, it is that he understands the realities set forth by the student rights movement. It is easy to simply shy away from the "hot" areas once one has already been burned. The courts seem intent on upholding the fallibility of administrators and teachers as human beings. Because we are all human, we have weaknesses. A decision made in the haste of impending chaos, which is later overturned by the courts, could often be resolved without use of the judicial system. If parents, as well as students, had faith in the competency and fairness of their school officials, very few problems would ever reach the courts.

An administrator deals with due process every time he makes a decision that could affect one or all the members of the school organization. The decision may affect a teacher, or a janitor or any person involved with the process of education. Areas of conflict are not limited to problems of discipline or for a failure to live up to a contractual obligation, but these areas can be more important than most administrators may realize. A casual word or promise thrown out can come back to haunt. One simple solution to many problems that arise out of one-to-one situations is to write down as many notes as are pertinent. Many legal ramifications can come under the guise of due process, in relation to an action that was not taken, or one taken but not properly approved by the board. As is true in most areas of conflict, if an administrator takes an omniscient attitude toward problem-solving, he will usually find himself on the losing end of a court decision. Administrators are being called on more to listen to the other side of the story, and then to act fairly, instead of tending to listen only when they want to. Individuals and groups are now more likely to take the smallest issue to court, just to prove that the school was in the wrong.

Teachers' Unions

What orderly process will improve the situation for teachers? The fundamental concept of democracy that has recently fulfilled its designated purpose of gaining freedom and rights for teachers, is the proper use of collective bargaining. One noted authority on school law, M. Chester Nolte, feels that it is quite possible that one day there will be one giant national teachers' union, with teachers collectively bargaining along the lines of those now carried on by the teamsters.(3) Since collective bargaining is a fairly recent expression of and an expansion of power, it seems only natural that students will also organize into similar groups for the same purpose of collective goal achievement. If this form of negotiation were to become a truly viable force in education, one can foresee some positive aspects growing out of the turmoil. If students assume a representative and responsible voice in the task of decision-making concerning their future, it could add a creative input to that segment of society concerned with solving the problems of the school. There is, of course, the other side of the coin concerning collective bargaining. It implies, as does any other privilege conferred by the courts, that the students will accept and handle this new-found power with a high degree of responsibility expected of an adult. Are then the majority of adolescents in our society ready to handle the large amount of recently emerging rights with any more finesse than should be expected of an adolescent?

Who is an Adult?

One of the possible outcomes of the litigations now being experienced is a legal definition of what age determines an adult. In the sense that students are fighting for recognition under the law, there must come a judgment as to whether a child of kindergarten age is also entitled to equal treatment. Equal treatment should imply that the individual is able to accept the responsibilities that inherently go with elicited freedoms. It is a definition that could vary in relation to each school, and might once again be left up to the courts to determine. The tendency to state that "eventually the students will run the school" is too broad a generalization to warrant any more than a negation. The swinging

pendulum of student rights has not yet begun its downward stroke. When the students have finally scaled the wall of equal rights and begun the climb down the other side, they may find some unexpected consequences waiting for them. Part of the unwritten doctrine inherent to our system of democracy is that all freedoms carry with them definite responsibilities. In society when someone breaks a law, he is sent to a neutral and impartial judge to assess guilt and then to pass judgment. If students truly desire absolute equal rights, they should be ready to accept equal punishment. A responsible student government is a possible means of providing a working example of how a democracy works, and an example of how violators of the process are helped to maintain normalcy. A new organizational method of school administration, and a stronger emphasis on making the school democracy work could provide a workable system of relative self-government that would make the school an exemplary institution. There might even be a system of fines imposed by the ruling body for infractions of a set of mutually approved rules of self-government, as provided by the group's ratified constitution. An incorporation with the adult school board would also be provided. The closer to a working model the situation came, the greater would be the potential for learning. If we can truly educate for democracy by means of a democratic educational system, we shall be assured of a preparedness to cope with tomorrow's problems.

Achieving Functional Democracy

The ultimate test of such a system would be to make our nation's secondary schools a functional democracy. To implement this plan, high schools should be composed of grades ten through twelve only. This would allow the middle schools to establish some of the currently existing secondary courses of instruction to prepare students to cope with freedom. The plan for such a system should come primarily from our colleges and universities, for here we find maturities and abilities that will assist in the more rapid fruition of the concept.

The nation's students are clamoring for their rights and privileges. Let us as adults hope that they are ready to accept the responsibilities

that go with full citizenship in our society. If the timing is not right for this major influx of youth, it might put education even farther behind than it is now in its role of meeting and anticipating future needs. It had better be the correct time, because no matter how we feel about it, due process is going to be with us for a long time.

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CORPORAL PUNISHMENT: BANE OR BOON

Ralph A. Belnap

For several years, it has been held that teachers were permitted to punish children, under the "in loco parentis" doctrine. The teacher was not given all of the powers of the parent, since the parent is responsible for the youngster's entire day; but, limited punishment—administered reasonably, prudently, and without malice—has been the prerogative of the teacher and principal in the past.

The Illinois Story. Some interesting developments have been occurring in this area and, as a case in point, developments in Illinois are being presented to illustrate what is happening in that State. The Illinois legislature stipulated that schools have the right to administer proper punishment when it passed (on July 13, 1965) the following law:

Maintenance of Discipline. Teachers and other certificated educational employees shall maintain discipline in the schools. In all matters relating to the discipline in and conduct of the schools and the school children, they stand in the relation of parents and guardians to the pupils. This relationship shall extend to all activities connected with the school program and may be exercised at any time for the safety and supervision of the pupils in the absence of their parents or guardians. Nothing in this section affects the power of the board to establish rules with respect to discipline. . .

This law does not permit abusive treatment of children, and it really did not alter existing procedures. It simply states that the local school board shall prescribe the procedures to be followed. It even permits districts, by board resolution, to outlaw all corporal punishment in schools under their jurisdiction. And, several boards have stipulated that school staff members are not to assault students.

Local school districts in Illinois recently were required to prepare regulations for governing schools, stemming from a State guideline known as Circular A160. The local

boards were required to outline specific procedures in those policies. A regulation of the Illinois Office of Public Instruction was added to A160 in October, 1974, and districts were advised of the change which suggested that parents be given a chance to respond and also to decide upon the disciplinary measures to be used with their children. The new regulation merely served to cloud the issue and make it difficult to maintain proper pupil control in Illinois schools. The text of the superintendent's regulation is cited below:

Corporal punishment, as a penalty for misbehavior, may be employed by the district unless an individual parent or guardian submits a written request that corporal punishment may not be administered to his child or children.

A brief explanation accompanied the new rule. Reference was made to the qualification contained in the School Code that "nothing in this section affects the power of the Board to establish rules with respect to discipline." Then, the letter continued:

Our concern is not with the merits of corporal punishment. We believe that this is a question for the local board of education to determine. While many local boards of education have, by board policy, prohibited or severely curtailed the use of corporal punishment, it is our feeling that this decision can correctly only be made by the local board of education. We do not believe that the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction has the authority to change this determination by regulation.

Due Process. It has been well established by courts and legislatures alike that students have constitutional guarantees of due process. In fact, "when a school district seeks to take action against a student which may permanently impair the student's education, then certain due process procedures must be followed."¹ But, it is also true that "a school teacher, to a limited extent at least, stands 'in loco parentis' to pupils under his charge and may exercise such

powers of control, restraint, and correction over them as may be reasonably necessary to enable him to properly perform his duties as a teacher and accomplish the purposes of education."²

Court Decisions. Recent court decisions dealing with discipline have held that corporal punishment is not unconstitutional,³ that due process is an indefinable, elusive concept,⁴ that formal notice, hearing, and representation are not necessary in instances involving corporal punishment,⁵ and that punishment shall not be excessive or the teacher can be liable.⁶ The Appellate Court of Illinois has upheld the right of teachers to verbally chastise pupils even though severe emotional distress was alleged by a pupil.⁷ The right of a teacher to use reasonable force in removing a disruptive student from the classroom⁸ and the right to use a "sneeze gun" to quell classroom disturbances⁹ were also upheld by the courts. A rather unusual, but significant, decision dealt with the slapping of a teacher. In that case, the court said that the action of a teacher in slapping a student in the course of an effort to expel him from a classroom did not justify the student in striking the teacher, and the student's action amounted to misconduct, warranting his suspension for the balance of the school year.¹⁰

A Plausible Course of Action. It would seem quite clear that the power to prescribe appropriate procedures for classroom control and punishment rests with the local board of education. The Illinois law has been cited herein, since the issue was raised recently at the state level. The reader should examine the statutes in his own State to clearly determine what changes might be needed in local policies or state regulations. The Illinois action should not be followed as a model as it is not an exemplary act. The State Superintendent there clearly stated that the decision to use corporal punishment can correctly only be made by the local board of education—not the state office—and then he proceeded to draft a regulation (Sec. 4-32, Circular A160) instructing local districts in the matter. Hopefully, other states will act more judiciously.

In the event that a school employee finds himself embroiled in legal action, he should check to see whether assistance will be forthcoming from the school

INNOVATIONS IN EDUCATION

John D. Davis, Sr.

While this writer was serving as North Central Association evaluator on a Junior High School visiting team a math teacher was overheard saying, "There could be something new and exciting going on just a few miles down the road and we might not know anything about it." He went on to comment that perhaps Northern Illinois University was a logical institution for serving as a "clearinghouse for innovative ideas" - a place where we could write the find out the names and addresses of persons to contact who could tell us about any special programs in which we might be interested.

That comment overheard by this writer left a nagging thought that remained long after the return to campus. NIU's newly established Service Bureau was contacted to learn if this was a "service" it might be interested in supporting. The director, Dr. Louis Deprin, received a favorable reaction to the concept of a data-bank of innovative programs that were on-going in the schools in NIU's nine-county service area. An inquiry as to just what should be included in such a data-bank was distributed to the faculty of the College of Education and then a questionnaire was prepared for mailing to the school districts to be included in the data-bank. It was at this point that the Northern Illinois Cooperative in Education (NICE) was consulted. It was determined that the member schools would serve as the source

of data for the establishment of a pilot data-bank to be used with experimental programs for the purpose of perfecting the operation of such a data-bank, as it was conceived. NICE also generously provided funds for that, and subsequent, mailings of the questionnaires.

The data were gathered and programs prepared for interpretation. A desirable format for use in answering requests for information—the person to contact, school districts having such innovative programs in operation, and willingness to talk about them with persons outside the district—was composed, and the service was ready for operation.

Currently, the data-bank is operative and is being used by teachers and administrators. Updating of data input last year is just about completed at this time and new contributions are coming in. It appears that 75 to 100 new additions will be made this year to the 405 contributors of last year.

The present operation of the data-bank calls for persons wishing information about any of the twenty-four Innovations in the data-bank to contact NIU's Service Bureau with their request. The response is in the form of a computer print-out which lists the information dealing with (1) the name of the contact person, (2) the address of the District, and (3) the telephone number of the contact person. All Districts in the data-bank offering the innovation for which inquiry was made, be they Elementary, Secondary, Unit,

Private or Junior College, are reported in the computer print-out. The person making the request can then choose the District that is most suitable to his needs as to location, level or size of district, for further inquiry.

Interested persons may obtain further information about NIU's Data-Bank of Innovative and/or Exemplary Programs by contacting this writer at the following address: John D. Davis, Sr., Secondary Education, 217 Gabel, NIU, DeKalb, Illinois 60115.

TABLE 1

INNOVATIVE PROGRAM (59 Secondary School Dist.) (70 Unit School Dist.)	Type & Number of Dist. Reporting	
	Sec. Unit	
1. Alternative Schools	17	4
2. Career Education	20	24
3. Differentiated Staffing	7	15
4. Drug Education	12	12
5. Environmental Educ.	13	11
6. Individualized Instr.	26	35
7. I.G.E. - M.U.S. - E.	3	11
8. Learning Contracts	19	11
9. Learning Packages	20	11
10. Prog. for Minority Stu.	11	19
11. Modular Scheduling	12	8
12. Movement Education	2	5
13. Open School Concept	11	19
14. Outdoor Education	6	19
15. Prog. for Disadvantaged	18	8
16. Multi-Media Centers	19	34
17. Schools w/in Schools	4	0
18. Spec. Math Programs	18	16
19. Spec. Science Prog.	16	13
20. Spec. Social Std. Prog.	22	11
21. Spec. Reading Programs	22	22
22. Tele-Prompter Math	1	1
23. Westinghouse PLAN Prog.	4	6
24. Year-Round School Plan	0	2

TABLE 1 shows the twenty-four Innovative Programs that are contained in NIU's data-bank, along with the number of School Districts reporting the operation of those programs. For instance, of the fifty-nine Secondary School Districts, seventeen report Innovation #1 (Alternative Schools) in operation. At the same time the seventy Unit School Districts indicate that four operate Alternative Schools.

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district. The **Save Harmless** statutes that have been enacted in several states provide a teacher with some protection; the reader is advised to check the laws in his state to see whether the district will help in his defense.

In the final analysis, the best policy that a teacher and a district can follow is to abstain from physical involvement and attempt to provide stimulating educational programs—those that will so interest the student that discipli-

nary measures will seldom be needed. But, since ideal conditions are not possible, there will be a need for disciplinary action. And, unless board policy prohibits it, the wise use of corporal punishment is still legally possible.

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8. Simms v. School District No. 1, 508 P. 2d 236, 1973.
9. Owens v. Commonwealth, 473 S.W. 2d 827, 1972.
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How tight is the job market for secondary teachers?
Which fields offer the best chances for placement in 1975?

The worst?
What is needed to find a suitable job?

The Outlook for Secondary Education Placement Nationally

Robert H. Gourley and Brett Bankie

Teaching positions may be harder and harder to find. A survey of the placement outlook for secondary school teachers was made in the hope that it might help this year's graduating students (and present teachers) to make decisions about employment. This information should also be of value to students (via their teachers and counselors) in planning their course work so as to insure greater employment opportunities upon graduation. Obviously, prospective teachers should avoid overcrowded areas and select majors and minors in areas of greater demand.

A random sample of college and university placement offices in all 50 states was taken to determine placement expectations for secondary education graduates for 1975. Questionnaires were sent in November, 1974 to one hundred placement officers, asking them to rate placement expectations for their school and their region during the next year. They were also asked to list the particular subject areas they considered as **best** and **worst** for job placement within the field of secondary education.

Results

The results of the survey were compiled and are shown in the accompanying chart. Twenty-eight officials, all in different states, responded in time to be included in this report.

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The overall placement outlook is good, with a few areas that are excellent and some that are fair-to-poor. No regional pattern is apparent for the excellent and the fair-to-poor areas. Placement officers from six schools said that chances for placement are better if the prospective teacher is mobile. An official from the University of Alaska responded that employment is excellent for those willing to work in rural areas. Respondents from two schools indicated that graduating students with single subject majors will have a hard time finding employment in their regions. Other criteria listed by schools as necessary for successful employment include: good grade point average, ability to work with athletics, combination skills, flexibility, ability to teach more than one foreign language, good major-minor combination (especially math and science), and ability to teach both vocal and instrumental music.

Definite patterns emerge from the reports of the placement officers surveyed. The **best** subjects listed in order are: Math (23 schools), Physical and General Science (22), Industrial Education (Arts) (17), Special Education (15), Music (10), and Business Education (7). The **worst** subjects are: Social Studies (27 - all but one school reported this), Foreign Language (12), English (11), Art (8), and History (6). Three subjects were listed in both categories: English (best - 6, worst - 11), Art (best - 2, worst - 8), and Physical Education (best - 2, also Women's PE only - 3, coaching - 4; worst - 6,

also Men's PE only - 6). Again, there is no apparent regional pattern for these subjects. Math and science teachers are needed the most, and social science teachers are needed the least throughout the country.

Conclusions

When all the subject areas listed by the schools are totalled, the results show there are 29 rated **best** (listed 149 times) and 20 **worst** subjects (listed 92 times), with some overlap between the two. This, plus the above mentioned overall placement outlook (good) suggests that secondary education can still be a successful field for the young graduates to enter — provided they have carefully planned and prepared themselves.

Recent studies show a general trend toward the stabilization in the number of teaching graduates, and this trend is projected for some time. Since there is presently an oversupply of teacher graduates in some areas, more graduates in those areas in the immediate future will create an even greater surplus. This oversupply will make it even harder for those teachers to find jobs, but it should allow the schools to be more selective in their hiring practices and more effective in their utilization.

Future teaching graduates will likely concentrate on those subjects areas having a more favorable placement outlook. Competition for jobs in those areas will then also be greatly increased, with the top quality graduates having the best chance for placement.

It seems best that the teacher preparing institutions not limit the number of admissions, but that they raise their teacher graduation requirements. An intense screening process at the end of the sophomore and junior years might guide some students into more appropriate fields. This procedure would produce better qualified teachers, and will save many graduates from entering overcrowded fields.

Secondary education graduates of the future may be able to find jobs, especially if they are well prepared in school (both in subject material and in actual teaching experience), have carefully selected their major and minor subjects, are mobile, are willing to teach in rural areas, and have carefully planned their academic career in relation to their preferred geographic region.

The Outlook for Secondary Education Placement Throughout the Country

SCHOOL	PLACEMENT OUTLOOK	MAJOR SUBJECT OUTLOOK
Univ. of Alabama University, AL	Good, with some exceptions.	Best: Math, Science, Special Ed., Industrial Arts, Remedial Reading. Worst: Social Sciences, Foreign Languages, Home Ec.
Univ. of Alaska Fairbanks, AK	Excellent, especially for those willing to work in rural areas.	Best: Those having knowledge of Alaskan education problems. Cross-cultural ed. Strong science backgrounds. PE and strong teaching spec. Northern (arctic) history and geog. Worst: English, Social Studies.
Northern Arizona U. Flagstaff, AZ	School: Good Region: Fair	Best: Industrial Ed., Special Ed., Women's PE. Worst: Social Science.
U. of California Los Angeles, CA	Stable - predict no great change for next year.	Best: Bilingual-Spanish, Math, Sciences, Voc. Ed., Ed. Handicapped (not all Spec. Ed. areas). Worst: Social Science, Language (general - inability to relocate outside major metropolitan area)
Western State College of Colorado Gunnison, CO	Difficult in most fields.	Best: Industrial Arts, Spec. Ed., Physical Sciences, English, Music. Worst: Social Studies, Art.
Univ. of Georgia Athens, GA	Fair to good.	Best: Math, Science, Industrial Arts, Agriculture. Worst: Social Studies, Foreign Languages.
Northern Ill. Univ. DeKalb, IL	Good - need major-minor and mobility.	Best: Industrial Arts, Math, Physical Science, Instrument and Vocal Music combination, Learning Disabilities. Worst: Social Science, English (females).
U. of N. Iowa Cedar Falls, IA		Best: Agriculture, Industrial Arts, Math, Reading, Sciences, Spec. Ed., Speech Pathology. Worst: English, Foreign Language, PE, Social Science.
Fort Hays Kansas State College Hays, KS	Good	Best: (Excellent): Industrial Arts, Business Ed., English-Speech, Math, Physical Sciences, Spec. Ed. - Learning Disabilities, Counseling, School Psychology, School Admin - Principals (young), Coaching. Worst: History-Social Studies, PE only, Art.
Grambling State U. Grambling, LA	Good	Best: Math, Biology, English, Special Ed. Worst: Art, Social Studies, History.
Univ. of Maine Gorham, ME	30-40%	Best: Sciences, Art, Music, Industrial Arts. Worst: History, Social Studies.
Northern Michigan U. Marquette, MI	Fair to good in general.	Best: (Excellent): Math, Physical Sciences, Art, Music, English/Coaching, Counselor (M.A.), Bus. Ed. (vocational cert.), Industrial Ed. Worst: Social Sciences, PE.
U. of Minnesota Twin Cities Minneapolis, MN	Shrinking number of positions but placement depends on major, combination of skills, flexibility and mobility.	Best: Vocational fields. Worst: Single subject academic fields, Social Studies, Foreign Languages, Art, Male PE.
Univ. of Missouri Columbia, MO	Fair - need more than one teaching area, mobility, work with athletics, good GPA.	Best: Indust. Arts, Science (excluding straight Biology), Math. Worst: Male PE, English, Social Studies, one lang.
Eastern Montana Col. Billings, MT	Good	Best: Music, Math, English. Worst: History, Psychology.
U. of Nebraska Lincoln, NE	Quite good.	Best: English, Math, Math-Science combination, Special Ed., Indust. Arts, Voc. Agric., General Sciences, Distributive Ed., Business Ed., Vocal and Instrument Music combination. Worst: Art, Social Studies, Speech, Journalism, Human Development and Family.
Univ. of Nevada Reno, NV	Good to fair.	Best: Specialists / Math / Science. Worst: Social Studies, PE.
Plymouth State Col. of the U. of New Hampshire Plymouth, NH	Up 4%	Best: Business areas, any French speaking teacher - all levels. Worst: All Social Studies, Men's PE.
U. of New Mexico Albuquerque, NM	Fair to good - depending upon educational preparation and qualifications. Need mobility and more than one subject area.	Best: Bilingual (Spanish/English) teachers (any area), Math, Sciences, Reading, Indust. Arts, minority student (American Indian, Chicano, Black) counselors, Spec. Ed., Girls PE and sport coaches, librarians, Distributive Ed. Worst: Social Studies, English, Art, Music, Boys PE (except experienced coaches), Recreation and Health Ed.

The Outlook for

SCHOOL PLAC

Duke University Durham, NC	Fair
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U. of N. Dakota Grand Forks, ND	
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Temple University Philadelphia, PA	Highly
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Rhode Island College Providence, RI	
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U. of S. Dakota Vermillion, SD	Should who are
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Texas Tech Univ. Lubbock, TX	Excellen
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Brigham Young Univ. Provo, UT	Above n
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U. of Wisconsin Whitewater, WI	Fair to g
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U. of Wyoming Laramie, WY	Genera Denver
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Secondary Education Placement Throughout the Country — continued

EMENT OUTLOOK

MAJOR SUBJECT OUTLOOK

	<p>Best: Special Ed., Reading, Science, Math. Worst: English, Social Science, Foreign Languages.</p>
	<p>Best: Business Ed., Distributive Ed., Principals, Indust. Arts, C & G., Composite Music (vocal and instrument), Math, Chemistry and Physics. Worst: English, Foreign Lang., Men's PE, Speech, Social Studies.</p>
competitive.	<p>Best: Indust. Arts, Reading, Special Ed., Speech, Busines Ed. Worst: Social Studies, English.</p>
	<p>Best: Indust. Arts, Math, Music. Worst: English, History-Social Studies, Languages.</p>
be good for graduates mobile.	<p>Best: Sciences, Math, Coaching, Indust. Arts. Worst: Social Studies, PE, Foreign Languages.</p>
nt	<p>Best: Math, PE, Special Ed., Sciences - all areas. Worst: Social Studies, English, Art.</p>
national average.	<p>Best: Physical Science, Math, Indust. Arts, Music, Biological Science. Worst: Speech/Drama, Foreign Lang., Social Studies, PE, Psychology, Sociology.</p>
good.	<p>Best: Sciences, Business Ed., Distributive Ed., Math, Spec. Ed., Comm. Disorder, Learning Disability, Emotion. Dist., School Psych., Social Studies. Worst: Geography, Foreign Lang., Social Science, Speech, Theatre, Journalism.</p>
ly good except in area.	<p>Best: all Vocational subjects and areas, Music, Math, Special Ed., Science (except Biology), Library Science, Reading, Counseling, Administration. Worst: Men's PE, English, Social Studies, Art, Foreign Languages.</p>

THRESHOLDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION
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NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
DE KALB, ILLINOIS 60115

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