WINTER 1975
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TRENDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

In this issue...

The Proper Role of Moral Values in a Philosophy of Education

Year Round Education

Pupil Punishment and Due Process

and other articles of interest and value

THRESHOLDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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WINTER 1975

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Editorials

Three years ago the Department of Secondary Education at Northern Illinois University held a faculty retreat at the Lorado Taft Outdoor Education Field Campus at Oregon, Illinois to consider departmental concerns. During one of the informal sessions the idea of attempting to publish a new journal to deal with contemporary issues and practices in secondary education was discussed. It was from this meeting on the Taft Campus located on a high bluff overlooking the Rock River that **Thresholds in Secondary Education** later became a reality.

This issue marks a full year of publication in which numerous topics have been featured. Previous publications have included special editions on Peace Education and on Humanizing Secondary Education, in addition to presenting a variety of articles of general interest. As we pass the milestone of the first year of publication, it is anticipated that the upcoming volumes on adult continuing education and bilingual education in the secondary schools will serve to keep our readers abreast of educational endeavors.

The treatment given to the topics in this issue by the contributors make for another interesting and informative edition. Articles are included on such timely subjects as moral education, middle schools, local control of education, competency education, pension funding, year round education and an interview with a state superintendent. We hope you enjoy reading Volume 1, Number 4 of Thresholds.

Roy L. Bragg, Editor

Associate Professor of Education
Northern Illinois University

Dr. Roy Bragg is the editor of this fourth issue of the Thresholds Journal. He has been a member of the Thresholds Foundation Board of Directors since its inception. Roy received the educational doctorate from the University of Arizona and his other degrees from the University of Arkansas. He has taught in the Tucson, Arizona public school system, Western New Mexico University and Northern Illinois University. He has much experience in publishing as he has authored or co-authored two books and approximately twenty articles. Dr. Bragg has traveled through many foreign countries and studied their school systems. He has participated in seminars and taught comparative education courses in Russia, England, and Denmark. He has continued his interest and participation in school organization and education through participation in the Parent-Teacher Organization and was President this last year. He now serves the community as a member of the DeKalb, Illinois School Board. With this expertise we believe that he has organized and edited an interesting issue for Threshold Journal readers.

Dr. Clive Veri is the editor of the spring issue of Thresholds, which will emphasize "Life Long Learners" and the theme of "The Compleat School". Dr. Reyes is making much progress on the summer issue which will concentrate on the need for more bilingual education in the secondary schools with an emphasis on education for the "Latino Student."

Future issues of Thresholds are in the "thought" stage. One topic is based on organizational problems in the secondary schools. This issue could emphasize negotiations, legal aspects of education, decreasing enrollments, etc. Another topic is student and/or teacher-oriented and is based on conflict, delinquency, discipline, vandalism, truancy, and frustration. We look forward to the coming issues and welcome your comments and suggestions.

Robert J. Maple, Managing Editor

Professor of Education, and
Chairperson, Secondary and Adult Education Department
Northern Illinois University

The Proper Role of Moral Values in a Philosophy of Education

John A. Howard

In speaking of "The Proper Role of Moral Values in a Philosophy of Education", I think it well to be explicit at the outset about the meaning I shall attribute to the terms used in that title phrase. By "philosophy of education", I mean a concept of a formal program of schooling created to serve the general citizenry. I shall focus my commentary at the college level and I shall use as illustrations, circumstances in my country and from them formulate some recommendations for higher education. In doing so, it is my earnest hope that this analysis may have pertinence and usefulness for all levels of education.

In seeking to arrive at a proper role for moral values within the concept of education, I shall, for present purposes, exclude religious and spiritual considerations. I do so, not because I deem them irrelevant—indeed I regard them of transcendent import—but rather, because it seems, alas improbable that religious arguments will have much direct influence on the formulation of a concept of schooling in my country, and also because I believe that a rational analysis of present circumstances will lead to virtually the same conclusions about the place of moral values in education as would an analysis drawn from Judaeo-Christian precepts.

The term "moral values", I shall take to mean specific standards of that which is judged right and wrong, good and bad, desirable and undesirable in human conduct. I hope you will fix on that usuage, because the term is otherwise somewhat vague. Finally, I shall try to present arguments which are readily understandable to the general citizenry, for it is that group, not the intellectual elite, that must be brought to understand what is at issue and that must be convinced of the error of our present course.

Let us turn now to some of the phenomena of our day that give pressing pertinence to the subject of this commentary. One assumes that all thoughtful people are familiar with the mounting crime rates. However, I would like to call attention to several aspects of this relentless problem. First, it appears that people tend to take a fatalistic attitude about it, accepting the periodic reports of crime increase in much the same fashion they receive word of new increments of economic inflation, with a what-did-you-expect shrug, assuming, it would seem, that we can learn to live with more of it each year if we must. I suggest it is time someone began to calculate the saturation point at which the volume of crime will simply overwhelm the machinery of society. How far can the United States go beyond the present $14 billion a year purloined by shoplifters and still have stores that can do business? I believe we must acknowledge the necessity to take such action as is needed to turn the tide and reduce the rate of crime.

Furthermore, crime is no longer chiefly confined to the fulfillment of some real, albeit illicit personal gain. A recent article in U.S. News & World Report provided information about vandalism in the United States, estimating the annual cost at a billion dollars or more. The destructive acts ranged from the popular pastime of tearing up lawns and parks with automobile and motorcycle tire tracks, to the abuse of animals in the zoo, including maiming, spray-painting and even burning them.

The schools seem to be the most frequent target of the young thugs bent on destruction. One source estimates the 1972-73 cost of school vandalism alone at half a billion dollars, about equally divided between the repair of the damage and the expense of additional security personnel and equipment. In order to have some idea of the magnitude of the vandals' operations, let us suppose that half of the total estimated cost is allocated to increased security measures. Given that assumption, if the average

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vandal produced $100 worth of damage last year, that would mean 5,000,000 citizens out tearing things up or burning them down for the sheer, sick pleasure of wrecking things.

Going a step further and examining the public response to crime, one is brought to an uncomfortable realization that the citizens are not very well prepared to deal with the problems of criminal conduct. If, for instance, one scans the literature on the question of legalizing marihuana, it is startling to discover how many people, generally presumed to be sensible, have urged the repeal of the laws against marihuana on the grounds that those laws were criminalizing so many of our "fine young citizens". Only a moment's reflection will yield the realization that if such an argument were ever accepted as a valid basis for changing the law, it would justify the repeal of the statutes against bicycle and auto theft, shoplifting, and all the other more popular crimes. The fuzzy thinking about basic issues of law and citizen obligation seems to me a reflection of a wholly inadequate training in moral values as we are using that term in this commentary.

The concerns mentioned thus far deal only with the matters of public law where even the citizens of limited intelligence and little education can presumably distinguish between what is right and wrong, because that distinction has been spelled out for them by legislation. How much more complex and unmanageable are the issues of moral values out beyond the scope of the laws! The manners and mores, the informal standards of conduct which a society develops, may be just as important for maintaining a civilized society as those acts which the society has seen fit to govern by legislation. These informal codes depend upon a wide consensus for their perpetuation, upon the kind of understanding which formal training in moral values is intended to provide. In our times, these informal norms of conduct seem to have fared even worse than those regulated by law. Indeed, there has been a systematic overt defiance of the whole gamut of limits which our society has in the past judged to separate civilized from uncivilized conduct..

I am sometimes inclined to wonder how many people have registered on the significance of the actual meaning of the term "counter-culture". It seems as if the counter-culture often is thought of simply as a handy catch-all designation to apply to those people who are being fractious in one way or another. It is far more than that. The intent of the concept is to defy all the judgments and habits of conduct of the dominant culture. If the accepted practice is for men to wear short hair, then it must be long. If modesty is good, be immodest. If it is assumed women's dress should be different from men's, provide identical clothes. If patriotism is held to be a virtue, scorn it and mock it. If neatness is prized, be slovenly. If premarital chastity and marital fidelity are advocated, opt for sexual freedom. And so on throughout the whole range of the prevailing expectations of society. The counter-cultural thrust is, in fact, a systematic rejection of the moral values of the society.

Whereas the number of genuine counter-cultural devotees who have carried out this sweeping rebellion as a matter of principle was undoubtedly quite small, nevertheless many of the changes the counter-culture espoused were very attractive to young people who have never really rejoiced in the do's and don'ts which parents, teachers and other stuffy types have tried to teach them. As a result, vast numbers of the young who were not fundamentally opposed to their society took up many of the counter-cultural practices. As a further result, some of these young people eventually became in fact hostile to their culture because the habits and attitudes they had acquired made them into outcasts, and they felt obliged to rationalize and justify their conduct. This attitudinal divorce from their background was particularly true with regard to those who took up the use of illegal drugs or who became involved in anti-Vietnam war activities. If one examines the statements of the revolutionary leaders and the revolutionary periodicals of the late sixties, he will discover that those who wished to destroy our society clearly perceived that the enlistment of young people into either the drug culture or the so-called "peace" movement could result in swelling the ranks of their revolutionary organizations.

Well, very few young Americans have been unaffected by the counter-cultural thrust and the impact upon the youth is still growing. It is not receding. Many people seem to have supposed because the campuses are no longer subject to arson and forcible seizure of buildings that the students have had their fling and the colleges are once more in the business of educating fairly sensible and responsible citizens. If that supposition implies that college students today are embracing values roughly comparable to those proclaimed in the past, then it is an erroneous supposition. The gap between the moral values of current college students and previous generations continues to widen.

Recently the Daniel Yankelovitch organization released the results of a sequence of nationwide surveys which sought to identify the attitudes of college students about certain issues in 1969 and again in 1973. In 1969 45% of the college students regarded living a clean moral life as a very important value. That figure dropped 11 points to 34% in 1973. Only a third of our college students now prize a clean moral life! Fifty-six percent of the college youth in 1969 believed that hard work pays off. Four years later, only 44% thought so. Thirty-eight percent of the 1969 college students considered religion very important in their lives. By 1973 the figure had dropped to 28% of the students. Those students who disapproved of casual premarital sex diminished from 34% to 22% in the four-year period. Those who would put duty before pleasure dropped from 63% to 54%. Almost half the students have been "liberated" from a sense of obligation. These changes are not minor fluctuations, but reflect a continuing, perhaps accelerating collapse among college students of the standards of conduct which have previously been judged to be good or right or useful.

It may be helpful then, to turn our attention to the college campus to try to ascertain what policies and practices may be fostering or contributing to the attitudinal changes which Mr. Yankelovitch has recorded. I am unaware of any comprehensive research that deals with the causes of these changing

student values, so what I shall say on this subject is speculative, but is is at least speculation informed by the study and experience of college administrative responsibilities begun more than twenty-five years ago.

The commitment to an unrestricted search for truth and the forging and polishing of the armor of academic freedom to protect that unrestricted search, in my judgment, constitute the backbone of the philosophy of American higher education as it exists today and has existed for some decades. The supreme position accorded academic freedom was registered, rather curiously, in a study conducted by Professors Gross and Grambsch at the University of Minnesota. They asked professors and administrators at 68 universities to list what they believed to be the objectives of the American university, and to rank them in order of importance. A tabulation of the more than 7000 answers which they received revealed that the objective considered to be of first importance was "To protect the academic freedom of the faculty". That startling first-place answer and the other objectives that received a high rating made it clear the student was regarded primarily as a unit of intellectual raw material, that his character, his aspirations, his conduct and the values to which he is committed were of little, if any, concern among the formal objectives of the university.

Let me offer one other illustration of the dominant attitude of college officers about their responsibility for the student as a human being.

I served as a member of the President's Task Force on Priorities in Higher Education. The Task Force, appointed in 1969, was charged with identifying the most difficult problems which higher education would face in the decade of the seventies, and with making recommendations for meeting those problems. You will recall that in 1969, American campuses were beset with the forcible seizure of buildings, arson, terrorism, militant demands of various sorts, and a growing use of illegal mind-altering drugs. The members of the Task Force were representative leaders of colleges and universities, most of them well-known and highly respected in their profession. Only a minority of the members was willing to try to come to grips with the problems of drugs, destruction, disruption, and other forms of intolerable conduct, so that the final Task Force report was devoted to recommendations for such items as more federal funding, the creation of a new governmental agency to encourage edcuational innovation and special help for the colleges serving large numbers of black students. That astonishing product of the Task Force, was not, I am firmly convinced, the result of either cowardice on the part of the members nor lack of concern for the ravages and excesses that were so damaging to the whole educational enterprise. The formal avoidance of these matters seemed to be, instead, a reflection of a deeply-held conviction that it is somehow profoundly inappropriate for an academic institution to concern itself with the moral values and the conduct of campus personnel.

With that as the dominant attitude in the academic community, the circumstances were ripe for the triumph of the counter-culture out of all proportion to whatever logic it might have been able to muster in support of its endeavors. Since the institutions of learning no longer considered it a part of their mission to transmit the cultural heritage of the society, to justify and sustain the mores and the values of the civilization, and had moved to the other pole of believing it improper to do so, the field was left open for the dissidents to advance their causes. In any group, those who are dissatisfied with the status quo tend to make the most noise, and so it has been on the campus. The faculty members who were more or less in tune with the dominant culture would tend to their scholarly duties and go home to live their private lives. So, too, with the students who considered themselves basically allies of the society as it existed. They had not come to college to fight a counter-revolution. Few were the voices that spoke out in behalf of marriage, or abiding by public law or honesty or virtue or the basic obligations of a citizen. There has been not only an absence of education in the traditional values of society, but there has been virtually unopposed assault upon those values.

To summarize this chain of thought, the continuing sharp decline among college students in their commitment to the traditional moral values of our society, as reflected in the Yankelovitch report, is, in my judgment, the predictable result of the prevailing philosophy of higher education. It is a philosophy which denies any institutional obligation to provide an understanding of our moral heritage, and which proudly protects those who would reject that heritage.

The extensive involvement of our young people with mind-altering drugs is well known, but the high correlation between serious drug problems and an antipathy to the values of the society is not so generally understood. My own observation as a member of the Shafer Drug Commission is that their hostility seemed to be essentially an emotional one, seldom based on an intelligent and informed understanding of the values being rejected. Many of the young people we encountered who had fallen into a drug trap, seemed to be alienated from their society as a result of a one-sided critical evaluation of the status quo similar to the anti-war illustration already described.

I am not suggesting that the increase in the emotional and attitudinal problems of young people is exclusively the result of insufficient training in a code of moral values; but that there is a direct relationship between the two is, I believe indisputable.

Psychologists tell us that among the necessary conditions for good mental health are a certain degree of self-respect and also a sense on the part of the individual that he is valued by others. I suggest that if an individual has not developed a concept of what is right and wrong, good and bad, useful and counter-productive, then he has no reference points for judging himself or achieving self-respect. The whole thrust of the so-called "New Morality" in trying to do away with fixed standards of attitudes and conduct not only diminishes the possibility of developing self-respect, but in fact renders the concept meaningless. The sense of an "intolerable disharmony with the universe", the absence of standards is, it seems, in psychological terms, one

of the pre-conditions of emotional illness.

As for the need to be found valuable by other people, the individual's ability to achieve this kind of reassurance is also related to effective training in moral values. It appears that most people need to be taught gracious and civilized conduct. Such conduct doesn't seem to be inherent in mankind. That unfortunate person who is self-centered, ill-mannered, short-tempered or dishonest is less likely to be valued as a friend, spouse, employee or colleague than those people who have learned to be civil and responsive to the sensitivities of others. It seems rather clear that the failure to provide training in moral values can jeopardize the capacity of the individual to lead an emotionally stable life.

I have the impression that the change from the past when most citizens were schooled in self-imposed moral restraints to the new society where this is no longer the case, has come about so gradually that most people haven't registered on the degree to which their own lives have changed.

Not long ago, I was leading a discussion of fathers and sons, the latter ranging in age between eleven and twenty-one. As we were talking about the mounting crime rates, I asked how many of the fathers, when they were growing up, lived in homes where the doors were not locked when they went out. Every one of the fathers responded in the affirmative. I then asked how many of them used to leave the car unlocked when they went to an evening movie downtown, and received the same response. The sons were amazed. It was indeed a different world when the educational process trained the young in what was acceptable and what was unacceptable conduct, and took action to enforce those codes of conduct.

The reinstatement of training in moral values as the supreme objective within the philosophy of education is imperative. To bring about the reinstatement will be a sensitive and an arduous task because the commitment to the absence of moral values is so deeply ingrained in the thinking of academic personnel.

The concern of this paper, however, goes far beyond the discontinuance of policies which tolerate or support activities contrary to the most basic moral values of the society. The larger question is: Does the public have a right to expect its educational institutions to try to train their students to be responsible citizens and mature, civilized, morally alert human beings? I believe the answer is clearly that it does. The specific determination by each college and university of what should constitute moral education will be even more sensitive and arduous than the decision to provide such education, but the difficulty of the task cannot be permitted to thwart the effort, for what is at stake is nothing less than the survival of a free and civilized society.

Year Round Education – A Philosophy

Don Glines

Year-round education is a philosophy—a concept—related to the quality of life. Year-round education is not a mechanical system designed to house more students in overcrowded schools. Instead YRE helps people and helps society by providing calendar and curricular options to meet the needs of changing life and learning styles. Continuous lifelong learning thus becomes an essential characteristic of the new age the world is moving toward.

There are a number of reasons for adopting year-round programs now. First, **flexible** twelve-month calendars are more humane by permitting vacation and other non-school activities to fit the personal needs of each individual and family. Second, YRE programs extend the learning opportunities available to all students by keeping schools open more days of the year, and increasing the learning choices available by involving the summer months and year-round intersessions in more creative ways. Finally, year-round education increases the resources available to society in three ways: (1) human—by placing approximately 65 to 80 percent of the students in school for a given period, but at the same time allowing 25 to 35 percent to be out of school and available for volunteer work, such as hospital candystripers, Monday-Friday, 9-3, September-June, migrant student tutors, and other such badly needed community assistance projects; (2) physical—by allowing districts to build less facilities, thereby saving precious land for more valuable ecological use, saving the parks and recreation areas, and cutting down on the immediate use of raw materials and the long range energy consumption; and (3) fiscal—by saving millions of dollars in growing districts, by making unnecessary much new construction and followup maintenance and/or by allowing declining districts to close older buildings more rapidly thus saving thousands of dollars in maintenance and repair, and returning the building and site to other community uses. Nationally, in most any district in 1975, a minimum of 30 percent of the students will normally volunteer for a year round calendar; 70 percent is generally the maximum number of volunteers during the first and second years the program is offered. The average number usually falls between 45-55 percent.

These percentages lead to the conflict between voluntary and mandatory year-round education, and to win/lose battles between proponents and opponents of the system. Such splits in communities are unnecessary and contrary to the productive energy of the district. It only occurs where people do not comprehend the philosophy and purposes of YRE.

For example, if a district is going under in its search for facilities to house students—perhaps being 40 classrooms short plus having overcrowded special facilities such as gymnasiums and shops—it has four options: (1) to pass more bond and tax money and build; (2) to double shift and/or extend the day; (3) to have a voluntary year-round program and hope enough participate to alleviate the load; or (4) to mandate a year-round calendar to pick up 25-35 percent more space and thus eliminate the overcrowded conditions. In view of the above situation, mandating year-round education in a community is perfectly acceptable if it appears to be the best of the four alternatives. Mandating a year-round calendar is no worse than the mandated nine-month calendar which is currently enforced in most districts. Unfortunately, opponents of YRE usually fail to acknowledge the dictatorial aspects of nine-month calendars, and continue to fight against the proposed solution through year-round education.

However, if a district has status quo enrollment, or even is declining, year-round education should still be offered as an option

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to all who could benefit. If a district understands the philosophy of year-round education, then the 30, 40, 50, 60, or 70 percent who volunteer should be allowed to begin. Suppose only 30 percent volunteer in a given community. That is beautiful. If a flexible year-round calendar can help those families, then the district has the moral responsibility to provide such a program. It is simple, does not cause great conflict, and can be done at no extra expense. Proof of that is available from throughout the nation. Further, in status quo enrollment districts it frees needed space for such facilities as art, industrial arts, home economics, music, physical education, and resource centers which are currently non-existent in most elementary schools, and allows those subjects to expand in space, which is usually badly needed, in most secondary schools.

Year-round education must be seen as a philosophy if all its advantages are to be understood and ultimately outweigh its disadvantages. Most of all, though, YRE should be available to all persons in a district on K-12, pre-kindergarten, and adult levels, who could benefit, whether the district is growing or declining. Too many districts offer it only at the elementary school level or only in one section of town which might have one overcrowded school. These are not viable options; the districts do not understand the philosophy of YRE, of offering choices to all persons in the community regardless of age level or location of their home. Year-round education is an exciting option at the secondary level. Fortunately, more educators are beginning to understand that it can and does work well in high schools.

In implementing this philosophical stance, a number of common patterns have developed throughout the nation. One is the school-within-a-school plan. A number of buildings, including high schools, now offer both YRE and traditional calendars in the same building. Other districts have chosen to pair nearby schools so that people have a choice of a neighborhood YRE school or a nine-month school. A third pattern is to cluster schools so that one of each three or four schools of a cluster is a continuous learning opportunities design, thereby providing the neighborhood cluster a choice of school programs. A fourth effective pattern is to develop a YRE plan that can accommodate either a nine-month or YRE program in the same structure, such as is possible with the Concept 8 arrangement or the Flexible All-Year plan. There are several other methods. The point is that creative humane districts have been able to offer choices in the true spirit of democracy wherever YRE has been understood as a philosophy, not just a method of housing students and/or saving money. Districts which have started and then dropped YRE calendars have been guilty of this latter thinking.

Further, a growing variety of organizational plans has increased the options related to the method of implementation. Though each state seems to have its favorite plan (Georgia/Texas, the quarter system; Florida/South Carolina, the quinmester; Colorado, Concept 6; Illinois/Virginia, 45-15; and Michigan/California, some of each, as sample states), no one calendar arrangement has proven to be best—only the most acceptable at this moment in time for a given situation. YRE is still in the propeller stage. Perhaps in the early 1980's it will reach the jet age.

Nationally, approximately 170 districts in 28 states offer some form of YRE. California, currently considered the leader in year-round education, as of July 1975, had 159 schools in operation spread over 45 districts, serving about 102,000 students. The majority of the districts were using the 45-15 (nine weeks in school, three weeks on vacation on a rotating cycle) calendar approach at the elementary level, started because of space problems. However, this picture is

changing. Concept 8, an exciting K-12 compromise calendar (8 six-week terms—students choosing any 6 of the 8) is now emerging. The Quinmester, 5 nine-week terms—students choosing 4 of the 5; Concept 6, 6 forty-four-day terms—students attending 4 of the 6; the Quarter plan, 4 twelve-week terms—students attending 3 of the 4; Concept 16, 16 three-week terms—students selecting 12 of the 16; and the individualized Flexible All-Year plan—students selecting any 175 days out of 240 that school is open. This is now in operation in California, as well as the 45-15 staggered track calendar (four groups of students with one always on vacation), and the 45-15 block calendar (one group of students with the entire school on vacation). The Personalized Continuous Year, a completely individualized drop-in/drop-out plan is under development as is the 45-15 Flexible Calendar—an individualized 45-15 rotation, along with the multiple access approach. Further, growth is occurring at the secondary level; more junior high age have joined, as well as ten high schools, the largest of which has an enrollment of over 2,000. Intersession programs, those which are offered when students are technically on vacation, are increasing in popularity and creativeness. Thus, California is a good example of the national trend toward year-round education.

Year-round education is not new. The records of the early 1900's show programs in Newark, New Jersey; Bluffton, Indiana; Ambridge, Pennsylvania; Memphis, Tennessee; and Omaha, Nebraska—just to name a few examples. For various reasons, these programs did not survive the trauma of the 1930's and 1940's. However, the latest resurgence is giving every indication of becoming a permanent fixture on the American scene. Even international interest is growing. Puerto Rico now has 13 schools on year-round calendars. Several other Central and South American countries are studying the possibilities.

To assist this revitalization, a group of lay-citizens and professional educators joined together to form the National Council on Year-Round Education (NCYRE), with headquarters located at the Research Learning Center, 836 Wood Street, Clarion, Pennsylvania, 16214, (814-226-4024). Each year this group, in cooperation with a state department of education, has sponsored a national seminar to assist the study of year-round education. At this writing, the Eighth National Seminar, co-sponsored by the California State Department of Education and NCYRE will be held January 25-28, 1976 aboard the famous Queen Mary in Long Beach, California. Information about each semester and other data about the status of year-round education can be obtained by contacting the headquarters of NCYRE.

If year-round edcuation can be understood as a philosophy, as a means toward assisting the improvement of the quality of life of individual persons, and of society as a whole, the concept will continue to grow as a viable alternative which can enhance the potential to improve education and living in those communities to personalize learning opportunities for all of it citizens.

Ninth Grade Dilemma: Who Wants Them?

Jerald L. Reece

More than seventy-five years of debate has failed to solve a real dilemma faced by the ninth grader. A continuing issue is raised: Where does the ninth grader belong? A review of the literature raises this same issue in a somewhat different tone: Who wants the ninth grader?

Answers to these questions must be based on professional judgments and research evidence rather than on mere emotional reactions. The move toward the middle school organization has frequently disregarded the ninth grade dilemma beyond the feeling of relief on the part of principals over the removal of the ninth grade from their schools. Few statements are found in the professional literature to indicate that ninth graders are welcomed, wanted or provided with appropriate educational experiences when they are placed in the senior high school. Is the decision to remove the ninth grader from the junior high or middle school based more on emotions than on real concern for these students? This should be a concern for all educators, especially in view of the national trend to establish middle schools.

What reasons do middle school proponents give for not including the ninth grade within this new organization? Among those given are the following: **1.** seventh and eighth grade students are relieved of ninth grade domination;(1) **2.** there are fewer discipline problems;(2) **3.** having the ninth grade is a social disadvantage;(3) **4.** Carnegie Unit structure for grade 9 handicaps flexibility of the program offered the younger students;(4) and **5.** the physical, emotional and intellectual characteristics of ninth graders more closely resemble students in grade ten then they do those of students in grade eight.(5)

Is there evidence to support the above reasons for wanting to remove the ninth grader from the middle school organization? DeCoste surveyed 2248 junior high and middle school students and found a tendency for middle school students to perceive less severe problems than did their peers in the junior high school.(6) Was this difference due to removal of the dominance of the ninth grader, or was it contributable to the fact that ninth graders normally perceive more severe problems than do the lower age group? If the latter is true, the removal of the ninth grade would reduce the number of perceived problems within the school population. A study of the ninth graders placed in the senior high school might show an increased incidence of severe problems as perceived by these students.

Curtis(7) found that middle school administrators felt there were fewer discipline problems without the ninth grade and that senior high school principals reported fewer discipline cases in the senior high school ninth grade than had been reported in the ninth grade when it was a part of the junior high school. There are a number of variables which might be responsible for these findings including the possibility that ninth graders in a senior high school feel so suppressed that they avoid any possible confrontation with older students, teachers and administrators.

The problem of the ninth grade being a social disadvantage in the junior high or middle school appears to be more of an assumption at this point than one established through research. The mobility of present day youth may make this a matter of less importance since transportation modes make it possible for these youngsters to mix easily during out-of-school hours even when not permitted to do so during the school day. It may be that administrators believe discipline and social disadvantage are coupled one with another. If such is the case, the perceived reduction of disciplinary problems might be seen as a social advantage when ninth graders are

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removed from their schools.

The Carnegie Unit structure may have limited the flexibility of educational programs in the past; however, administrators who continue to excuse inflexible programs because of the Carnegie Unit may not understand that flexibility is often encouraged now both by state departments of education and by regional accrediting associations.

Research evidence is available which supports the concept that today's ninth graders are more mature physically, emotionally and intellectually than were those of prior generations. This fact alone does not seem sufficient to assume that they ought to be placed in the senior high school regardless of whether appropriate provisions are made for them to benefit from the shift into the senior high school.

Regardless of the adequacy of reasons given for removing ninth graders from the junior high or middle school, it is important to consider whether or not they belong in the senior high school setting. The following arguments might be advanced for keeping the ninth grader in the junior high or middle school in preference to placing him in the senior high: **1.** greater leadership opportunities are provided in the middle school; **2.** greater participation is provided in school activities; **3.** greater usage of library and other facilities is provided; **4.** teachers and counselors in the junior high or middle school take more interest in the ninth grade students than do senior high teachers and counselors; **5.** a greater number of electives are offered ninth graders when they are enrolled in a junior high or middle school; and **6.** ninth graders have a more positive attitude toward school when enrolled in the junior high or middle school.

Curtis(8) and this writer(9) in different studies found evidence that leadership opportunities is an important consideration. The administrator respondents in Curtis' study believed eighth graders were unable to assume the needed leadership role in the middle school and ninth graders were held down in the senior high rather than being provided with needed leadership experiences. This writer found that ninth graders in the junior high school reported over twice as many offices held as ninth graders in a six-year junior-senior high school. Teachers and parents both believed greater leadership opportunities were provided these youngsters in the separate junior high school. Lack of opportunities for the ninth grader to participate in activities when in the senior high school is supported with similar evidence. Apparently, the attitude of senior high teachers and administrators in many senior high schools is one of "Just wait, your opportunity will come when you enter the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades."

Bragg(10) found that ninth graders in the separate junior high school had greater usage of the library and had greater opportunity to take elective courses than did their counterparts in the senior high school. Other investigators have reported similar findings.

This writer(11) and Bragg(12) reported that ninth graders believe their teachers in the junior high school were more interested in their welfare and concerned about their problems than was reported by ninth graders in the senior high school setting. This factor may be one reason this writer found that ninth grade students in the separate junior high school had a more positive attitude toward school than did ninth graders attending the six-year junior senior high school. In a stratified sample of 619 students in one middle school (grades 6-8) and three junior high schools (grades 7-9), Wood (13) found that students were more negative toward their peers than in the junior high schools. The question raised here is: Does the ninth grader bring an important positive influence to the junior high school or middle school organization rather than the negative influence which often appears to be attributed to him?

In closing, it is only fair to say that the argument continues with little real evidence to declare one type of organization superior to another in terms of benefits to ninth graders. Conant stated "There is clearly no overwhelming evidence to indicate where grade 9 belongs."(14) Although that statement was made prior to the current thrust toward the middle school, it still applies today. It is important that the ninth grader not be caught in the middle. Investigators should continue to search for answers, but in the meantime the best advice to be taken is this: Wherever the ninth grade is placed, these students must be provided with quality educational programs which serve their own special needs.

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An Interview with Illinois State Superintendent Joseph Cronin

Gerald Glaub

Joseph M. Cronin became Illinois' first appointed Superintendent of Education in January, 1975. His first action was to tour the state, visiting schools and examining the progress and problems of Illinois education.

Cronin came to Illinois from Massachusetts, where he was Secretary of Education in the Governor's cabinet. He had previously served as a public school teacher and administrator and as associate dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Among his numerous writings is a 1972 book entitled, **The Control of Urban Schools**, a dispassionate look at the history of school governance in 14 of the nation's largest cities. The book describes the continuing struggle among professional educators, politicians, and reform groups. It has been criticized in some circles for the pessimistic outlook it paints for big city school boards. However, the book also betrays Cronin's sympathy for citizen control, particularly in communities where the school establishment becomes aloof from the people it supposedly serves.

In his short tenure to date, the new State Superintendent has shown a willingness to both criticize local districts and to stand up as their advocate.

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In the following interview State Superintendent Cronin responded to some questions put before him by the editor of **Illinois School Board Journal.**

Editor: You have recently visited schools all over Illinois. What are your impressions of what you saw?

Superintendent Cronin: A number of things struck me right away. Probably the first thing was the wide diversity among Illinois schools. On the one hand, it is safe to say that the best schools in Illinois rank with the best in the world. And I'm not talking only about the educational programs on the North Shore of Lake Michigan. I also saw examples of superb education in Mt. Vernon, Quincy, the Quad Cities, and other communities scattered across the state. However, on the other hand, I believe the worst schools in Illinois also rank with the worst in the nation. There are some situations that are just intolerable. Imagine 1,000 school buildings still in use that do not meet minimum standards of life and safety. Citizens in those communities should be livid with anger. I'm amazed that they tolerate such conditions, particularly when you consider that this state is among the wealthiest geographic units in the world.

Editor: Have you noted any characteristics that seem peculiar to Illinois? I mean ways in which education in this state is different from education in other states.

Cronin: One aspect that struck me was the surprising popularity of dual districts. Most states think in terms of community school districts that encompass kindergarten through grade 12. In Illinois about one-half of the communities are served by separate elementary and secondary districts. This amazes me, especially in view of the fact that the state's 1970 Constitution removes any logical reason there might have been for maintaining separate districts.

Editor: What do you see as the impact of the dual district structure as opposed to single units?

Cronin: Most notably, the existence of different kinds of school districts makes it extremely difficult to develop an equitable state aid formula. A formula that is fair to one type of district is likely to contain inequities for other types. So we find ourselves moving toward a formula that contains special provisions for different district structures.

Historically, it appears that the various options available in district structure have made it easier to isolate pockets of wealth and pockets of poverty. This may help explain why some school districts are extremely wealthy, spending upwards of $2,500 per child, and

why some districts are extremely poor. I saw both kinds of districts when I was visiting around the state, and the discrepancy is beyond belief.

Editor: It's pretty clear that you are concerned about variations in school expenditures. Do you have any plans or any thoughts about how these variations might be leveled out?

Cronin: First of all, I do not want expenditures reduced in the so-called wealthy districts. What's called for is a leveling upward of expenditures in the poorer districts. As I said, I have seen some wonderful educational programs during the past few months. It would make no sense to cut them back. Our aim should be to bring expenditures in the poorer districts up to at least 90 percent of the expenditures in the wealthy districts.

However, there are some small but very poor districts in Illinois that have absolutely nothing going for them. I favor some financial incentives which would encourage these districts to consolidate into larger units. This might be a flat grant program or formula add-on. The aim would be to provide planning assistance and to absorb the additional administrative costs that these districts would incur.

Editor: You apparently don't support the idea that every district should spend exactly the same amount per child. Is that correct?

Cronin: Correct. My first priority is to get all districts above a **minimum** expenditure. We have got to reach those districts that have low assessed valuations, low tax rates, and low state aid. These are communities where the people seem to have given up on everything—including education. The State must ensure that every child receives a good education, even in districts where the community is poor or doesn't make an effort.

I should also point out that, above a certain level of spending money isn't the only thing that matters. Obviously, money can buy small class sizes, modern facilities, and all manner of special equipment and supplies. You'll almost always see excellent education in communities that are able and willing to spend at that level. But much of what is really outstanding in Illinois education wasn't purchased with additional funding. Look at the Valley View district in Romeoville. Here is a blue-collar community that supports its school to the hilt—22 referendum wins in a row. Not only has that district introduced a year-round program, they are operating a special education center that is unexcelled anywhere in the nation. The alternative high school program at Quincy is another program that Illinois can be proud of. I could name any number of efforts like these across the state. And all of them are the result of aggressive educational leadership—not great wealth or particularly high expenditures. However, none of them would be possible without a certain **minimum** of available money.

Editor: Care to hazard a guess as to what the minimum expenditure level is that makes aggressive education possible?

Cronin: Back in 1973, the Illinois General Assembly said the minimum figure was $1,260 per pupil. But we have to look at what inflation is doing and at what the leading school districts are spending. I believe we should be at $1,500 per pupil right now. In two more years, that figure will probably be $1,800.

Editor: What are the chances of getting the Legislature and the Governor to adopt these higher levels of expenditure?

Cronin: I suspect that they will want to be assured that all school districts are at or near the $1,260 level before they entertain proposals to increase the level. Again, my first priority would be to raise the level of school districts that are now spending substantially less than the so-called minimum of $1,260.

Editor: What other problems have you seen in Illinois so far that deserve high priority?

Cronin: Literacy—or illiteracy—has to be a major concern. There are 2.8 million adults in Illinois who have never finished high school. Right now, the State is issuing some 24,000 high school equivalency certificates each year to individuals who have passed GED examinations. At this rate, it will take 100 years to reach 2.8 million. That pace is a bit too leisurely. If the upward spiral in public aid costs is ever to be checked, we have to multiply our efforts to serve late adolescents and young adults. I think that a State-Federal partnership should receive a top priority.

Editor: What about declining birth rates and school enrollments? Do you view this problem as one that should rank as a State concern or priority?

Cronin: Yes, indeed. Declining enrollment presents a serious management problem and is an area where the State can provide some badly needed assistance to local districts. As you probably know, it is predicted that Illinois will lose more than 300,000 pupils by 1984. Some counties will continue to grow, such as DuPage and Will. However, some counties will lose up to one-half of their student populations. One school district expects to lose 70 percent. On paper, reduced enrollment might seem to be a good thing. In some respects, I'm sure it is. But what happens to all those classrooms and buildings that are no longer needed? One role the Illinois Office of Education can play is to help find public service uses for those buildings.

By the same token, the declining enrollment places severe financial penalities on the school district. That's just the nature of the way the state aid formula presently works. Thus, another role that the State should play is to look at the formula and devise a way to cushion the economic impact of declining enrollments. We have a task force at work this summer examining these very problems. Hopefully, we will be able to offer technical assistance based on whatever recommendations this task force develops.

Editor: What priorities do you believe the State Board of Education will pursue during the next year or two?

Cronin: The State Board feels that the Office of Education should provide more leadership and more services to local districts and be less of a regulatory agency. So the Office is already taking some steps in the direction of better service. We are reorganizing with more field offices and trying to find ways to cut the red tape confronting a school district that wants assistance. We should be offering districts a choice of expert consultants in such areas as business management and curricu-

lum. We also should be developing more pilot programs to test and demonstrate the benefits of various ways of doing things. For example, we should be able to show a school district how to work with other local agencies to increase community services without wasteful duplication.

Editor: How do you see the Board and Office taking a more aggressive leadership role?

Cronin: We have to begin by listening in order to get as many viewpoints as possible. This would include surveys, hearings, committee involvement, and the like. More than that, however, we have to lead by providing services and information. We have to educate. This would include a variety of communications media—publications and films, for example. Finally, leadership means we have to be in the forefront of the education community in such ways as expanding the advanced training opportunities for teachers and in promoting constructive legislation.

What it amounts to is the difference between telling people what they must do as opposed to showing them why and how they should do it.

Editor: You recently established an office for affirmative action in employment. Does this have ramifications for school districts?

Cronin: The state Board of Education is extremely interested in seeing school districts expand opportunities for women in leadership positions. There are only 88 women serving as school superintendents in the entire nation. One-half of them are in Illinois, but that's still a tiny percentage when you consider that the majority of teachers are women. There is obviously some slippage between the classroom and the front office. A few school districts already have started affirmative action programs. This means that they consciously go out and look for qualified women to fill administrative vacancies. It does not mean, however, that they establish quotas. I have no doubt that either the State or Federal governments, possibly both, will soon require such programs in all districts. We started our own internal program because I feel that the Office of Education should do it first. We should practice what we preach.

Editor: One final question, Superintendent Cronin. You are on record as supporting the right of teachers to engage in collective bargaining with school boards. I believe the sentiment of the State Board parallels that. How do you feel about teacher organizations bargaining on so-called management rights or public rights?

Cronin: It's true, I feel that Illinois needs legislation regulating something as important as collective bargaining in education. We are confronted with a powerful challenge to lay control, and I think the present structure of the State Board of Education keeps laymen in charge of policy making—at least at the State level. The problem is that teacher organizations are demanding management rights in addition to union rights. I accept the idea of granting the right to organize and bargain—those are union rights. But it does not follow that they should also be granted rights of management. Both the State of Board and I are greatly concerned about this. There were a number of bills introduced in the legislature this year that put teachers and their organizations on boards and into roles that must be reserved to the public. We opposed those bills strenuously.

Editor: Is there anything you wish to add before we conclude this interview?

Cronin: Yes, there is. For one thing, I want to say how impressed I am with the quality of individuals serving on school boards and with the aggressive leadership that most of them are getting from their superintendents. This makes me optimistic about the future of education in Illinois. There are many problems facing our schools; we've discussed some of them today. I have no doubt that they will be solved if people at all levels of government will just work together. I intend to take the initiative in establishing a healthier working relationship and the State Board of Education is also strongly committed to this direction.

Pupil Punishment and Due Process

Koy M. Floyd and Stephen B. Thomas

To the educator and to the courts, student discipline represents an enigmatic problem.(1) Parents, students and educators have impugned the legal right of school authorities to maintain a learning environment through the use of various disciplinary actions. The courts do not appear uniform in defining the "appropriateness" or "reasonableness" of a punishment nor have they provided viable standards for determining the degree to which procedural due process must be provided. Only crude generalizations may be drawn from case law, for no specific regulations, constitutional or statutory, appear prevalent. The division of this writing will allow for a review of two of the most common types of punishments administered by school authorities: (1) suspension and expulsion, and (2) corporal punishment.

Suspension and Expulsion

Suspension generally connotes a temporary banishment for a short period, while expulsion connotes a more permanent separation.(2) The length of time of the suspension or expulsion will determine the appropriate level of judicial scrutiny. Punishments having a serious effect on a student's future will be examined more carefully by the courts.

Cases concerning suspension are generally less controversial than those for expulsion due to the severity of the action. In many states the teacher, in his relationship to the student, stands **in loco parentis** (in place of the parent) and may provide "reasonable" punishment, including student suspension. The court in **State v. Burton** propounded that if the presence of a student is detrimental to the efficient operation of the school, it is essential that the teacher have the authority to suspend.(3) Generally, a suspension will be upheld by the courts if it is shown that the student's presence was harmful to others or if a reasonable rule of the teacher, school, or school district was violated.(4) Suspensions, however, are typically handled by the principal. In numerous states it has been held that a principal has the inherent authority to suspend unless deprived of that authority by the board of education.(5)

A plethora of student discipline cases has been ruled in favor of plaintiffs against school authorities due to inadequate due process procedures. However, the Second Circuit Court of Appeals has ruled that a formal hearing is not required "where facts are not in dispute,"(6) A three-judge federal district court and the Fifth Circuit Court have also ruled that a hearing "after the fact" may be appropriate if a hearing prior to a suspension would disrupt the educational process.(7) The courts seldom require a hearing for short suspensions or other minor penalties, while many require only a parental conference to fulfill the requirements for due process.(8) A United States District Court, concerning this issue, upheld the suspension of a student for ten days without a hearing and concluded:

> If the temporary suspension of a high school student could not be accomplished without first preparing specification of charges, giving notice of hearing, and holding a hearing, or any combination of these procedures, the discipline and ordered conduct of the educational program and the moral atmosphere required by good educational standards, would be difficult to maintain.(9)

However, hearings are generally required prior to expulsion, a lengthy suspension, or a suspension that would prevent a student from obtaining credit for a particular term.(10) The authority to expel generally rests with the school board.

Statutory regulations have been provided in many states establishing the causes for expulsion and the procedures to be followed prior

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to expulsion. Limitations may also be placed upon the length or duration of time a student may be expelled.(11) Where such statutes exist, it is imperative that school authorities meet each specific criterion in the expulsion of a student. States not possessing such statutes are in a more precarious position, for the courts are provided with fewer statutory guidelines and have to rely upon case law to a greater degree.

While each individual case must be evaluated upon its own merits, one may still generalize that a punishment must be in proportion to the gravity of the offense. In the case of **Naranuo v. Board** concerning the expulsion of a senior boy for an altercation at a track meet, the court ruled that "continued willful disobedience or open and persistent defiance of proper authority" could not be shown by the one fighting incident. The court further concluded that the punishment was excessive when considering the type of offense committed and stated that to expel a student for a "school boy fight" was "like using a sledge hammer to kill a gnat."(12)

Although the courts are not uniform in their requirements for procedural due process, most dictate that "fundamental fairness" must be given, while both plaintiff and defendent should be provided an opportunity to present their arguments.(13) A recent three-judge federal court unanimously agreed that expulsion or suspension without "minimal" due process was violative of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States for it denied students an education, an important right, without due process of law! The court concerning "minimal due process" purported:

> ...If school administrators follow procedures which result in a fair factual determination made after notice and an opportunity to defend against the charges of misconduct, then no matter how informal the procedure, the student has been accorded the minimum requirements of the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States... School administrators are free to adopt regulations providing for fair suspension procedures which are consonant with the educational goals of their schools and reflective of the characteristics of their school and locality...(14)

The United States Supreme Court in January, 1975, similarly ruled that "pupils have an 'entitlement' to schooling that cannot be taken away even temporarily (suspension), without due process of law, while more serious actions (expulsion) might be governed by 'more formal procedures' including the right to counsel."(15)

In attempting to provide a greater degree to structure for due process proceedings, representatives from the American Association of University Professors, U. S. National Student Association, Association of American Colleges, National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, and National Association of Women Deans and Counselors comprised a joint committee to draft a "Joint Statement of Rights and Freedoms of Students." The following procedures were recommended to satisfy the "hearing" requirements of procedural due process:

1. hearing committee should include faculty members and/or students,
2. student should be informed, in writing, of the reason for the proposed disciplinary action,
3. student should have right to be assisted in his defense by an adviser,
4. burden of proof should rest upon the officials bringing the charge,
5. student should be given an opportunity to testify and to present evidence and witnesses,
6. matters upon which the decision may be based must be introduced into evidence at the proceeding,
7. in absence of a transcript, there should be both a digest and a verbatim record, such as tape recording, of the hearing, and,
8. decision of the hearing committee should be final subject only to the students' right of appeal to president of institution or governing board.(16)

The aforementioned requirements for procedural due process are merely suggestions and are not required in all states. The final determination will rest with the discretion of the various state legislatures and courts. The United States Supreme Court, concerning this issue, has indicated that due process is not a technical conception with a fixed content, unrelated to time, place, and circumstances. It is a delicate process of adjustment inescapably involving the exercise of judgment by those whom the Constitution entrusted the unfolding of its process.(17)

Until a viable standard is provided by government or by the courts, decisions concerning suspension/expulsion and "due process" will continue to be handled by grossly subjective measures.

Corporal Punishment

Corporal punishment has been defined as "chastisement inflicted on the body in order to cause physical pain or suffering usually with the professed purpose of modifying behavior."(18) In forty-eight states, an educator possesses the legal right to administer **reasonable** chastisement in the performance of his duties. Concerning this issue, an Alabama court concluded:

> In determining the reasonableness of a punishment or the extent or malice, proper matters of consideration are the instrument used and the nature of the offense committed by the child, the age and physical condition of the child, and other attendant circumstances.(19)

Community attitude and existing social mores may be included within the legal reference to "other attendant circumstances."(20) The final determination of "reasonableness" will be left to the discretion of the courts in their evaluation of each unique case.

Excessive force was demonstrated, in the case of **Calmay v. Williamson**(21) where a student and principal were involved in an altercation resulting in the principal striking the pupil's hand with a strap and pushing him to the floor while placing a knee upon his abdomen to restrain his movement. The court ruled that excessive force was used considering the results of the incident and the weight differential of the principal and student (one hundred ninety pounds and eighty-nine pounds, respectively).

In a similar case a student attempted to re-enter a class activity after being instructed by the teacher not to participate. An altercation resulted with the teacher lifting the pupil from the ground to provide physical discipline. Upon being released, the pupil fell to the ground breaking an arm. The teacher claimed his actions were in self defense although he weighed over twice as much as the student and stood over a foot taller. The court again ruled in favor of plaintiff and concluded that the teacher's actions were excessive.(22) It should be noted, however, that there is a presumption of correctness of the teacher's actions which must be refuted by plaintiff student or parent.(23) The majority of corporal punishment cases have been decided in favor of the defendant teacher.

As discussed earlier, the educator, since the turn of the century, has commonly been held "in loco parentis" to his student constituency. Since its inception, both the legality and social reality of this concept have been subjected to adjudication. Challenging the "in loco parentis" norm, in **Kent v. United States,** the U. S. Supreme Court noted that:

> ...There may be grounds for concern that the child receives the worst of both worlds; that he gets neither the protection accorded to adults nor the solicitous care and regenerative treatment postulated for children.(24)

Supporting **Kent**, the U. S. Supreme Court, in **Tinker v. Des Moines**, made clear that students enjoy the same general constitutional rights as do other U. S. citizens, stating:

> In our system, state-operated schools may not be enclaves of totalitarianism. School officials do not possess absolute authority over their students. Students in school as well as out of school are "persons" under our Constitution. They are possessed of fundamental rights which the state must respect, just as they themselves must respect their obligations to the state...(25)

A recent Federal District Court has reaffirmed the contention that students are "persons" under the law with guaranteed fundamental rights. Due process was required prior to corporal punishment although the courts again refused to outline specific qualities for due process.(26) Recent decisions overwhelmingly require a degree of due process and "fundamental fairness" to preserve the rights of the individual, whether requiring an actual trial or merely a parental conference.

Summary

While education in the U. S. has historically been a state function administered locally, federal involvement, i.e., the court system, has dramatically increased. Federal Courts have not hesitated to intervene when school policies and procedures jeopardize Federal constitutional privileges and/or rights of the citizenry. The issues of suspension, expulsion, and corporal punishments have taken on a more global profile as due process emerges as the key discussion point in student discipline cases. To this date, the courts have generally upheld a local board's authority to administer reasonable measures of suspension, expulsion, and corporal punishment, as long as the process emulates acceptable due process norms. The informed educator holds a responsibility to develop a awareness of legal issues involving school personnel and pupil rights if he is to maintain a learning environment reflecting "fundamental fairness."

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Government Usurps Local Control of Education

William H. Hayes

During the past 17 years since Russia launched a space satellite before the United States, there has been an increasing involvement in public education by the federal government. 'How successful has that involvement been? Has it helped? Should we continue the trend toward more federal involvement or discontinue it entirely and return all education to local control? Do we honestly believe the federal government can solve the problems of our society by financing and running the schools?

The following is a plea to take a hard look at where we are headed in education and an invitation to join an organization which has as its purpose to keep education under local control of the people.

First, to respond to the questions. No, we do not as a people believe federal government financing and running of our schools will solve society's problems! We do believe that taxes are too high, that we can affect local taxation and that we "cannot" affect state or federal taxation. We are turning education over to big government because of those contradictory beliefs.

We vote NO to school building referenda and education tax rate referenda as a general objection to the local tax load and these are the only ones over which we have direct control. We accept state and federal tax increases passively—convinced that big government controls us rather than we controlling it.

While changing from an agricultural to an industrial economy we transferred our taxation from real estate to income. The hooker is that the level of government which collects and distributes monies is not content to be a collector-distributor. The elected and appointed officials at both state and federal levels have decided that certain conditions must be met by all local school districts in order to qualify for state or federal money.

They have assumed power equal to the money handled, and we let them because we believe we cannot affect state or federal government. We even talk about 'our' local money as if it is ours, but state and federal money as if it is not ours.

What is wrong with us? We do not believe government is our servant. We do not believe we can cause state and federal officials to enact and administer school laws which use their collection facilities but trust local boards of education to spend the money wisely. We do not believe we have power to control state or federal government.

An additional question is, what is wrong with them?

The answer is in two parts, first, the state and federal officials do not trust local boards and administrators. Therefore, they must enact laws or write guidelines which keep us honest.

Second, they have definite concepts of education, educational administration, curriculum content, etc. which they are convinced will improve education. Since they cannot trust us to implement those concepts of our own volition, because we may choose to think for ourselves, they enact laws and write guidelines which force us to implement their concepts. Then they set up a policing system to assure themselves that we follow their guidelines. This develops and expensive administrative superstructure.

What has the trend toward heavier emphasis on state and federal funding of education produced?

Following is one example:

Little Malta High School was required by the state of Illinois to conduct a health-safety survey, to assess a real estate tax of 4 cents per $100 assessed valuation, and to use the revenue from that tax to improve health and safety standards in the building. One item was $11,000 for equipment to replace and circulate air because the windows were too small to meet state specifications.

Then in 1974 the nation faced an energy crisis. The health-safety

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code requirement was revised and the $11,000 expenditure requirement dropped. The health of the children was important until we faced a fuel shortage. Then suddenly their health became unimportant.

The critical point of this example is that the local board of education was required for non-education reasons to tax the people and for non-educational reasons the requirement was reversed. For that amount of money the local board could have carpeted and purchased new pupil furniture for seven classrooms! In this case architects and engineers had more control over local education than did the local elected school board!

Each state or federal education law other than general funding has eroded a portion of local board decision-making powers. Whether a person agrees with a particular purpose or not, one must agree that the decision-making power is being further removed from the people.

The frustration of local Boards of Education is the fickle inconsistency of big brother. The decisions Governor Walker made in August for funding special education programs is a case in point when reviewed in relation to other state laws. Illinois state law guarantees a job for the next year to every teacher who is teaching in a public school in this state 60 days prior to the last day of the school year. State reimbursement for special education programs is received by a local district in October of the year following the end of the fiscal year of the program. Governor Walker has issued directives to fund special education programs this year at 81% of full funding. Now, putting these three isolated actions by the state together produces the following result.

School boards and special education cooperatives established programs in March of 1974 for the 1974-75 school year believing the state would keep good faith in its committment. In March of 1975 they established programs for 1975-76. Now through mismanagement of its own money the state has gone back on its word. What will school boards decide this coming March? Will they maintain programs dependent on state funding? Will they trust the state after being deceived previously? The effect on 1976-77 special education programs could be disastrous!

At the same time Governor Walker has broken faith, eleven key special education persons throughout the state have been employed at higher salaries by newly funded Federal Title I projects. Isn't it strange that one big brother gives with the left hand while the other big brother takes away with the right hand? It almost makes little brother think neither one has any interest other than self-serving their own bureaucracies.

An organization already exists for the sole purpose of promoting the concept of local control of education. It is the Illinois Association For Local Control of Schools. The organization's basic assumption is that the best government possible is that government closest to the people. This is especially true of education. The converse of this assumption is that a few leaders must decide what is best for the people.

The Illinois Association For Local Control of Schools does not oppose consolidation of schools. It opposes mandatory consolidation of schools. The Illinois Association For Local Control of Schools does not oppose the Illinois School Construction Bond Act. It opposes guidelines inconsistent with the law and administrative duplication or usurpation of local activity. The Illinois Association For Local Control of Schools does not oppose legislative curricular requirements. It opposes additional requirements without additional funding.

We are being led like a herd of cattle toward the final slaughter of local control of education. We must take the bull by the horns and return the right to make important decisions to the locally elected board of education! If mistakes are to be made let someone close to the people make those mistakes, then we at least have someone to talk to in an effort to make corrections.

The Crisis in Illinois Pension Funding

David C. Shapiro

An issue which is beginning to alarm more and more people, not only in Illinois but around the country, is the funding, or perhaps more appropriately the method, of financing public employee pensions. This issue has become especially controversial in Illinois because of the position Governor Walker has taken toward several legislative proposals to increase the funding posture of the State supported pension systems, one of which of course is the State Universities Retirement System.

In fiscal 1975, and again for fiscal 1976, the Governor budgeted a State, or employer, contribution equal to the current benefit payouts. He contends this amount, and I quote from his fiscal '75 budget, "Provides sufficient funds for embarking on a long-term funding plan." This financing method is commonly referred to as the "payout" method.

On the other side of the issue are a number of legislators, such as myself, and a great many concerned employees who, on the advice of pension experts, believe the Governor's payout method is not sufficient. There have been a number of alternatives proposed in the legislature, but I want to concentrate on the one proposed by the Pension Laws Commission following a lengthy study, undertaken, by the way, at the Governor's request. It is generally referred to as the "accrual" method.

Why should anyone other than a few pension experts be concerned about this issue. The Governor is, after all, providing enough to cover benefit payments and he states the funds are in no danger of going bankrupt. In fact, there is no immediate danger of bankruptcy or payless paydays. So what's the problem?

I said at the beginning that this is a nationwide issue; and, indeed other states and cities and even the federal government are in far worse shape today than is Illinois.

Take social security for example. Although it is not really a pension system, it is similarly structured, administrated by government, and supported by tax dollars. Again, in his fiscal '75 budget, the Governor stated, "The unfunded liability of the social security system is over $1 trillion. Yet no one has suggested that...elderly citizens are in danger of losing their pensions." And he reaffirmed this statement as recently as January of this year at one of his accountability sessions.

Evidently the Governor has not been paying attention to news reports lately, because in fact a lot of responsible people are suggesting that there may not be enough money available in a few years to pay social security benefits. Congress recently raised payroll tax rates but, despite this, benefit payouts now exceed revenues for the first time since social security started; and at the present rate of payment, the social security trust fund will be exhausted by early 1980 unless even more money is pumped in. This money will have to come from the social security tax which is already higher than the income tax for a great many Americans.

But social security isn't the only plan in trouble. New York City is nearly bankrupt, and one of the biggest contributing factors is its $750 million a year pension bill—more than it spends on police protection. New York State is no better off with pension costs amounting to 22½% of the total state payroll.

In Los Angeles, about ⅓ of all local property taxes go into fire and police pensions, and the Connecticut State Employees Retirement System all but went broke in 1970-71.

In comparison to these systems, Illinois is in fair shape, but only in comparison. By any other standards we are not in good shape at all. At the end of fiscal year 1974, the total unfunded accrued liability for all public employee systems stood at $5.7 billion, up nearly $2.6 billion over 1970—only 4 years

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earlier. The six state supported systems had an unfunded liability of nearly $3.5 billion, and the State Teachers alone had an unfunded liability of $1.7 billion.

The Governor is quick to point out that these funds also have substantial assets. In fiscal 1974, for example, the 6 state supported systems had total assets of $2.4 billion and the teachers alone had about $1.1 billion. These are indeed substantial amounts by anyone's standards. The Governor, in fact, has stated, and again I quote, "The present retirement fund assets, combined with present earnings and employee contributions, are enough to insure all benefit payments past the year 1990, even if the state stopped all its contributions."

In fact, yearly benefit payments have been growing at the rate of nearly 20% per year and are estimated to be over 7 times greater by the year 1988. This means that the State Teachers alone will be making yearly benefit payments of over $750 million by that time. If the state stopped making contributions, the Teachers System would be bankrupt long before then.

Benefits payments are already more than employee contributions and even at a 10% annual growth in salaries, which is probably unrealistic, benefit payments would exceed employee contributions and interest income combined within 4 years. Within another 6 years at most the fund would be completely bankrupt.

Even more significant, however, is the fact that the accounts of active teachers, contributions which can be withdrawn if they leave teaching, combined with the value of pensions currently in force for retired teachers, not future pensions but existing pensions, these two items alone already exceed existing assets by nearly $600 million. This isn't some future liability or possible liability. This is a real debt that exists right now and is growing every year. In fact, the existing assets are not even enough to cover the value of pensions payable to retired teachers only, not counting contributions.

I think one of the major obstacles to a proper understanding of this problem is the nature of pensions themselves. They are first of all a deferred debt, and because payment sometimes is not due for 20 years or more some people think there is not any debt at all. Each year an employee works, however, he builds up pension credit which will be cashed in when he retires. With the vesting provisions we have today, he can even quit after working 8 or 10 years and still collect a pension when he reaches retirement age.

Another important factor exists when a system is new or expanding. Under such circumstances active employees far outnumber retirees and, therefore, employee contributions alone are enough to both pay benefits and build up reserves. This can give the pension fund a false appearance of being solvent. As the fund matures, however, the number of retirees approaches and frequently even surpasses the number of active employees. If adequate reserves have not been set aside by this point the pension fund begins running into serious trouble.

This characteristic is especially prevalent in Illinois. Here the number of public employees greatly increased in the 1950's and '60's to meet the demands created by the post-World War II "Baby Boom." The ratio of employees to retirees during this period was large and the "substantial" pension assets cited by the Governor are largely attributable to this factor. Now the effects of the "Baby Boom" have subsided and the number of public employees has either leveled off or in some cases even declined. Meanwhile, all the employees hired in the '50's are now approaching retirement age, and this condition will continue through the 1980's and into the 1990's. Employee contributions will no longer be able to carry the load they were never supposed to carry in the first place. These factors, combined with today's heavy inflation will place a tremendous strain on the pension funds' resources in the years ahead. You will recall the $750 million in annual benefit payments just for teachers alone which I cited earlier. The total yearly benefit payout for all state supported pensions will be nearly $2 billion by 1988.

How are these benefits to be paid? There are only three sources available to provide the necessary money. One is employee contributions—withholdings from employee paychecks; another is employer contributions—tax dollars provided by you and the millions of other taxpayers in this state; and the third is interest.

Now everyone, including the Governor, recognizes that the more interest that is earned on investments, the less that has to be provided by the employee and/or the taxpayer. But you have to have assets to invest in order to earn interest. So we return to our original question, namely, what is the best way to fund pensions?

Under the Governor's suggestion, the state would match benefit payments as they come due, years after they originally accrued. This method commits the state to yearly pension contributions amounting to billions of dollars by the 1990's. So long as the state is able to come up with these amounts, benefits will be paid; but what happens if the demands placed upon state revenues for other programs are too great? Either benefits will not be paid or taxes will have to be significantly increased.

The proposal of the Pension Laws Commission, on the other hand, is that the State gradually increases its contribution each year until an amount equal to the value of pension credits of active employees accruing each year is reached; then maintaining this level of contribution each year thereafter. This level is commonly referred to as normal cost. What this basically means is that pension costs are paid as they accrue rather than when they come due.

These pension costs are cheaper if paid when they accrue because they have time to earn interest. If they are not paid until they come due they have no such opportunity. The cost of the Commission plan last year would have been $18 million more than the Governor had budgeted. The legislature appropriated this amount but the Governor vetoed it. This year the same plan would have cost $28 million more in General Revenue than the Governor had budgeted; but if this plan were followed, 20 years from now the state would be able to save over half-billion dollars a year. I consider this a rather significant amount of savings; savings which can go toward other important programs or which the taxpayer will have for his own use.

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Competency Education: The Promise and the Perils

Robert C. Creamer

A story is often told of the airline pilot who interrupted his passengers to announce that he had some good news and some bad news. The good news was that they were in a jet stream and were making excellent time, the bad news was that they were lost. Today, many teacher education programs are lost - they are not moving their students toward an identified goal.

As annual Gallup polls have repeatedly demonstrated, the public still retains a remarkable, if naive, faith in the present quality of American schools. Moreover, the citizenry has not been visibly responsive to the endless barrage of articles and books pointing up the alleged deficiencies of our schools.

Addressing the 1973 annual meeting of the Education Commission of the States, Governor Dale Bumpers of Arkansas, the keynote speaker, called for a complete overhauling of teacher education and leveled the charge that the most urgent need in our schools was not for more money but for better personnel. When a political organization such as the Education Commisssion of the States becomes agitated over an issue, philosopical differences are likely to be replaced by action programs.

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Traditionally, certification has been based on an assumption that successful completion of certain academic and professional courses is adequate evidence that a person is prepared to teach. This assumption is open to question.

In the current milieu competency based teacher education, CBTE, has emerged as a tentative response to the demand for more accountability in teacher education. Theoretically, the CBTE guarantees of success lies in the fact that a prospective teacher does not exit from a competency based preparation program until he is able to demonstrate that he has mastered all its stated objectives at an acceptable level. This approach might well satisfy Governor Bumpers or his collegues.

Political leaders as well as some educators question whether competency based teacher education will reach its potential or fail as so many other ideas have done before. For now, the question is unanswered. Can this be the promise of sound, accountable education?

In order to review the promise of CBTE let us consider the basic elements of competency based education.

Five elements are now generally accepted as being essential to competency based programs:

(1) Teacher competencies to be demonstrated are specified in behavioral terms and made public.

(2) Assessment criteria are competency based, specify mastery levels, and are made public.

(3) Assessment requires performance as prime evidence, takes student knowledge into account.

(4) Student's progress depends upon demonstrated competency and, therefore, is self paced.

(5) The instructional program facilitates development and evaluation of specific competencies.

The perils to the CBTE concept centers around these arguments:

What is "good teaching"? How are competencies to be written? By whom?

Mandating one form of teacher education, as has been done in several states, is a violation of the principle of academic freedom and inquiry in another area.

Liberal Arts professors will be excluded from an effective voice in the training of future teachers.

"Effective teaching", instead of fostering independence and discernment might degenerate into the uncritical acceptance of authoritarian norms.

Performance measures are not presently available for what may be the more important teaching competencies. If attention is concentrated on only those behaviors, skills, and the like which are easily measurable, insufficient attention may be given to more important learning activities in the

cognitive and affective domains.

Probably the most persistent and pervasive problem facing CBTE is charges by both critics and supporters that the selected competencies have no validity. Competency validity basically means acceptable evidence exists that possession of a competency or set of competencies "makes a difference". Teachers with a given set of competencies bring about the intended performance results of specific teaching functions. Certainly, the number of sets of competency specifications being written seems inexhaustable. Each new CBTE specifications being written seems inexhaustable. Each new CBTE program appears to have generated its own set of competencies. Some competencies are stated in general terminology, whereas others are quite explicit. Most programs have some means for program modification, but few, if any, are tied directly to empirical evidence. Both CBTE advocates and critics agree that validated research is the most defensible basis for the future of CBTE. Critics hold that no CBTE effort should be established on an operational basis until validated research has been completed. Advocates of CBTE note the need for operating CBTE programs in order to research and validate competencies. Herein lies the initial battleground between advocates and foes of CBTE.

The task of validating teacher competencies is extremely complex. After it has been determined what person, group, or consortia determines what is "good teaching" and how it is best demonstrated, the task of writing measurable competencies begins. As seems to be the case, all too often this first process of determining what competencies comprise a "good teacher" is being delegated via political directive. Texas, New York, Washington, and Oregon as well as other states have placed the selection of teacher competencies in the hands of consortia of teacher training faculty. Since validity of teacher competencies begins with those writing the competencies to be demonstrated, therefore, validity should begin with classroom teachers, students, and principals. Teacher education programs would do well to move toward establishing operational consortia of practitioners as well as university teacher educators to derive the criteria or competencies of the teacher training process.

As teacher preparation programs become more field based and more oriented toward the problems and needs of schools, the establishment of measurable competencies will become more of an acceptable process. University based teacher educators need to move into the world of the "real teaching situation" and work closely with the students, principals, and teacher practitioners and establish goals and teacher training procedures. Only by diagnosing the "real life competencies" of teachers can we implement competencies for teacher trainees.

The problem of validity is further compounded since many researchers believe that validating competencies is beyond the state of the art. Specifically, how does one validate the learning activities in the cognitive and affective domains? Just because it is difficult to validate competencies should not be reason in itself for abandoning education based upon competencies. Certainly, it is difficult to demonstrate empirical evidence or correlation of behavior with perfect academic achievement. Given the human variable it is difficult to obtain evidence that enthusiasm, wit, and clarity ensure competent teachng, but surely one recognizes, for instance, that enthusiasm in teaching is infectious and so is the lack of it. Any attempt to define in terms of competencies what makes one teacher a success where others may fail is obviously better than to do nothing at all toward defining "good teaching acts".

In the final analysis, the important result of teaching is what happens to the person involved in the process - and this evolves largely out of the teaching act components. The development of humane, empathetic, and interesting teachers should take precedence over all else.

The Twelfth Year: Collegiate or Secondary Education?

Victor B. Lawhead

In assessing the changes affecting colleges and universities in the current decade, Clark Kerr has identified "the competition for the 12th year student" as deserving greater attention by educators in both secondary and higher education.(1) On the one hand, the higher institutions in the face of dwindling enrollments are likely to seek more aggressively additional enrollees from this student group; and the secondary schools, in turn, are not likely to abdicate readily their traditional claim to the twelfth year of universal education. How to accommodate these conflicting tendencies to the advantage of the individual student and to a national system of education deserves serious analysis of the problem as an initial effort toward its solution.

Toward Increased Competition for the Twelfth-Year Student

The present competition between schools and colleges for the twelfth-year student has its roots in several developments at both educational levels. Successive changes in the school curriculum over the past two decades have contributed in large measure to the ambiguous role of the twelfth grade in the total ladder of formal schooling. Massive efforts in the post-sputnik era to force greater specialization of studies farther down into the elementary schools have had their impact on the secondary curriculum. One aspect of this change can be seen in the pervasive development of middle schools organized more on disciplinary lines than the traditional upper elementary school. Furthermore, a consequent downward shift of advanced studies into the high school, seen particularly in mathematics, has introduced the high school student to many courses which formerly were part of the college curriculum. During the past two decades many college-bound students have enrolled in summer sessions for those particular studies which would place them in a better competitive situation for college entrance. Cumulatively, these practices brought many seniors to their final year with more credits than the minimum required for a diploma. Unfortunately, to varying degrees and in particular situations the twelfth year came to be considered a "goof off" year. Under these circumstances the holding power of the school rested chiefly in the appeal provided by the extra-curriculum and particularly by the athletic and social structures which could still lay claim to student interest and participation.

An additional development in recent years is the diminished concern for reporting to colleges and universities of the student's achievement in the seventh and eighth semesters. In the past, college admissions were made tentatively for the senior high school student, and official admission was made only after receipt of the complete high school records. This practice doubled the correspondence and reporting required of an applicant's high school. Admissions officers assert that individual departments and colleges make relatively little use of these additional records; consequently, they are questioning their continued use. Apparently most institutions are willing to admit students on the basis of entrance examination scores and a transcript of the secondary school records covering only Grades Nine, Ten, and Eleven.

One of the earliest programs to articulate college and high school programs was the Advanced Placement Program whereby the more able student took college level courses while in high school. Success in these courses not only assured advanced placement in college sequences but often was the basis for granting the student comparable college credits. This program served the primary purpose of accelerating students' total educational programs.

An allied practice, related more to competitive recruitment than to

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the opportunity for acceleration, was the granting of college credit in escrow. Under this procedure high school students attended summer sessions and in some cases academic-year programs which carried credit if the student subsequently matriculated at the sponsoring college. Viewed originally as a rather crass recruitment device by many admissions officers, this practice has gained greater prominence and respectability in the recent period of dwindling college enrollments.

The introduction of CLEP (College Level Examination Program) blurred even more the distinct roles of high school and college in crediting knowledge, skills, and understandings developed by students prior to admission to college. Designed originally to serve the more mature student who may have built proficiencies in certain studies through life experience or informal educational endeavors, the CLEP examination scores ultimatley became the basis for widespread crediting for the most recent high school graduate. It is not uncommon in many institutions to identify students who have been granted credit on the basis of the CLEP General Examination for a maximum of ten courses distributed equally among the humanities, English Composition, social science, natural science, and mathematics. More recently the development and use of CLEP Subject Examinations have expanded this aspect of crediting to wider dimensions.

Recently the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching listed twelve characteristics of those institutions most likely to retain their current share of higher education enrollments.(2) Two characteristics bear close relationship to the problem under discussion. First, the Commission maintains that an institution which attracts all ages of students rather than those 18-21 is more likely to experience a favorable enrollment pattern; and, second, an urban rather than a rural location is seen also as a favorable characteristic. In the latter case, proximity to the concentrations of potential students of all ages is the obvious advantage. However, the specific potential of dual enrollments in both the high school and an adjacent college, is seen as a further stimulus for the latter group of institutions to recruit aggressively among the twelfth-year secondary students.

As competition among colleges and universities increases over attraction of new students, educators anticipate more aggressive efforts to solicit commitments from high school students through the various avenues described earlier. To protect the integrity of both the secondary school and the college and to serve the educational needs of the student optimally, the following proposals are offered.

Toward Better Articulation Between School and College

A reexamination of the first year of college work has been long overdue. Curricular requirements suggest that entering students to a large degree are still considered to be a relatively homogeneous group of individuals even though most of the evidence suggests otherwise. Uniformity of patterns in general education should give way to a variety of programs reflecting the diversity of students in respect to academic preparation, specificity of purpose, and general maturational levels. Present practices of acceleration through examination and crediting procedures may serve well certain students provided curricular adjustments are made once the student is in college. For others, however, academic acceleration often serves only to intensify the problem of emotional and social development. In short the nature of the first year of college studies should reflect all aspects of human development and this time might be used advantageously for educational experiences which complement areas of precocious growth.

A second avenue of reform might be taken in high schools by considering a wider range of elective subjects for seniors. One notices that the fields of science and mathematics are likely to be the ones where collegiate level studies have been pre-empted by the secondary school. Discrete studies in the social and behavioral sciences, such as sociology, anthropology, and psychology, are less likely to be available for election. Similarly, developments in the humanities suggest that the senior year of high school might regain some of its lost significance if students could elect courses in art history, philosophy, archaeology, and the like.

Cooperative programs between colleges and high schools offer still another possibility for working with the twelfth-year student. Growth of community colleges and the consolidation of public school districts have enhanced the likelihood for two levels of institutions to exist in close proximity. Furthermore, there has been a long history of cooperation between high schools and colleges in those situations where laboratory schools served teacher education programs. Currently at Burris School, a part of Teachers College of Ball State University, students pursue a dual curriculum, one being the "common curriculum" concerned with survival competencies and the second being a "challenge curriculum" characterized by wide special-interest offerings. A practice followed for many years and likely to be extended in the future is that of encouraging students with special interests and abilities to look to university offerings for meeting particular educational needs as part of their "challenge" curriculum.

The problem of competition for the twelfth-year student would probably be solved if both colleges and secondary schools adopted less rigid views of who ought to be served by the respective institutions. No doubt many students with highly developed cognitive skills should be encouraged to participate in collegiate studies at an earlier age. At the same time colleges and universities need to recognize a range of growth potentials and offer courses and curricula open to undergraduates who may not have completed formal secondary education. Continuing education for full credit is still closed to many students who do not hold the high school diploma. Competency-based programs in many innovative institutions of higher education are tending to ameliorate this condition.

Finally, the questionable practice of granting college credit in escrow primarily as a recruiting device should be abandoned since it clearly serves the interests of the recruiting institution more than those of the students. Outright granting of credit applicable at any accredited institution would add a degree of flexibility to the student

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Illinois and Arkansas Students View Issues in Education

Roy L. Bragg, Vernon Wills, and Warren Franzen

One hundred five students at the University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas and 436 students at Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois were recently polled regarding their attitudes toward some aspects of the public schools. The study was based upon a national survey conducted by George Gallup, Gallup International, Princeton, New Jersey.

Sample Characteristics

College Students

The students surveyed were of junior and senior standing and were enrolled in professional education courses for prospective secondary teachers. In most instances they were enrolled in their first or second college level professional course. The samples were approximately evenly divided between the sexes. The subjects were, on the average, either twenty or twenty-one years of age.

The majority of the students polled at Northern Illinois University were from the twenty-one northern counties of Illinois, including Cook County and the greater Chicago area. On the other hand, the major share of the University of Arkansas students were natives of Arkansas, their backgrounds reflecting more of a small town-rural environment than their Illinois counterparts in the study.

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National sample

Using sophisticated sampling techniques, 1,592 adults were polled in a nation-wide survey by the Gallup organization. This sample was regarded as a microcosm of the United States as a whole.

Summary of Findings

Five major areas of the national survey are examined in this article: Student Power, Financial Support, Tax Aid for Private and Parochial Schools, Sex Education in the Schools, and Year-Around Schools.

An examination of the data revealed that the prospective secondary teachers at Northern Illinois University and the University of Arkansas were in close agreement in their attitudes toward all issues examined in this article, except in the area of using tax funds for aiding parochial and private schools. Aside from the issue of aid to non-public schools, a significant difference in attitude toward the other issues was discernable between adults and college students.

Student Power

Perhaps the most striking example of a generation gap was revealed by the responses to questions in the area of student power regarding whether students should have more say about what goes on within the school on matters such as curriculum, teachers, school rules, and student dress.

A majority of the adults (53%) felt that students should not have more influence in determining curriculum. On the other hand, overwhelming approval was given to additional involvement in curriculum matters by Illinois (84%) and Arkansas (89%) students.

On the issue of giving students more say in matters relating to teachers, 72% of the adults disapproved of the proposal. The college students gave their approval (61% and 67%) to this proposition.

Additional student input into the determination of school rules was rejected by 58% of the adults. On the other hand, strong support was voiced by both Illinois and Arkansas students (89% and 88%) for more student participation in setting school rules.

The same pattern was found to the question of giving more say to students in the area of student dress. A majority of the adults (57%) said that students should not be given additional decision

making authority in this area. Approval was voiced by the college students (89% and 86%) for students having an increased role in matters pertaining to student dress.

Financial Support

A majority of the Illinois and Arkansas students (61% and 60%) responded that they would vote to raise taxes if the public schools said they needed much more money. An opposite viewpoint was voiced by the adults, 56% indicated that they would vote against raising taxes for this purpose.

Tax Aid for Parochial and Private Schools

The mixed results to the proposal that some government tax money be used to help parochial schools showed why this is a controversial issue. Using tax money for this purpose was approved by the adults (48% to 44%) and the Illinois students (53% to 40%), but the Arkansas students rejected the proposition by a 46-4l percentage margin.

The respondents were also divided over the idea of a voucher plan whereby the government allots a certain amount of money for each child's education, the parents deciding the school they wish to have their child attend. Opposition to this plan was indicated by the adults (46% to 43%) and by the Arkansas students (45% to 41%). On the other hand, the Illinois students approved of this proposal 54% to 34%.

Sex Education in the Schools

Approval was given by all three groups to schools giving courses in sex education, the college students being much more emphatic in their support of this suggestion. Two-third of the adults supported this proposition while 97% of the students at both institutions favored the inclusion of sex education in the curriculum. Only slightly less approval was recorded by the adults (56%), Illinois students (93%), and the Arkansas students (95%) even if the sex education courses discussed birth control.

Year-Around Schools

The adults and college students recorded opposing viewpoints to the question of whether they favored keeping the schools open the year around in order to utilize the school buildings to the full extent, parents choosing which three of the four quarters their children would attend. The Illinois and Arkansas students approved (60% and 58%) the idea of year-around usage of the school plants. Rejection of this idea was indicated (49% to 42%) by the adults.

Conclusions

1. There appeared to be a strong similarity in the attitudes expressed toward the issues included in this study by the students at Northern Illinois University and the University of Arkansas. This may be significant as the two groups were drawn from two highly different geographical areas.

2. The responses to the issues lends support to the suggestion that a generation gap exists between adults and college students. A clear difference of opinion was recorded on all questions except the one dealing with giving tax aid to parochial and private schools.

3. The evidence gathered in this study may well indicate something about what the professional career teacher may demand of our public schools. This could well lead to increased friction between professional education associations and the public over issues such as those included in this article. One can only speculate about how the opinions of these prospective teachers may change once they become members of the teaching profession.

Student Power

Table I.
Should high school students have more say about what goes on within the school on matters such as curriculum?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Yes	38	84	89
No	53	12	9
No opinion	9	4	2
	100	100	100
teachers? Yes	22	61	67
No	72	33	31
No opinion	6	6	2
	100	100	100
school rules? Yes	36	89	88
No	58	7	9
No opinion	6	4	3
	100	100	100
student dress? Yes	37	89	86
No	57	7	12
No opinion	6	4	3
	100	100	100

Financial Support

Table II.
Suppose the local public schools said they needed much more money. As you feel at this time, would you vote to raise taxes for this purpose, or would you vote against raising taxes for this purpose?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
For	37	61	60
Against	56	23	16
Don't know/no answer	7	16	24
	100	100	100

Tax Aid for Private and Parochial Schools

Table III.
It has been proposed that some government tax money be used to help parochial schools make ends meet. How do you feel about this? Do you favor or oppose giving some government tax money to help parochial schools?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Favor	48	53	41
Oppose	44	40	46
No opinion	8	7	13
	100	100	100

Table IV.
In some nations, the government allots a certain amount of money for each child for his education. The parents can then send the child to any public, parochial, or private school they choose. Would you like to see such an idea adopted in this country?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Favor	43	54	41
Oppose	46	34	45
No opinion	11	12	14
	100	100	100

Sex Education in the Schools

Table V.
Do you approve or disapprove of schools giving courses in sex education?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Approve	65	97	97
Disapprove	28	2	2
No opinion	7	1	1
	100	100	100

Table VI.
Would you approve or disapprove if these courses discussed birth control?

Percentages	National Total Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Approve	56	93	95
Disapprove	35	3	3
No opinion	9	2	2
	100	100	100

Year-Around Schools

Table VII.
To utilize school buildings to the full extent, would you favor keeping the schools open the year around? Parents could choose which three of the four quarters of the year their children would attend. Do you approve or disapprove of this idea?

Percentages	National Totals Adults	Northern Illinois University Education Students	University of Arkansas Education Students
Approve	42	60	58
Disapprove	49	32	39
No opinion	9	8	3
	100	100	100

Still Shots of a School in Process: 4-1-4 Calendar and the Interim Program

Jerome A. Wray

Most high school faculties are aware of a number of experiments being carried on in U. S. high schools. Faculty members and administrators read of programs that were introduced and later dropped. They know of various model programs that were begun, but then were apparently stalled for one reason or another. At times one even hears one or another major "innovator" disparage partial efforts at improvement, be they minicourses, team teaching, flexible scheduling, or whatever. The only way is TOTAL CHANGE say some "innovators." Unfortunately few faculties and administrators feel competent and confident to handle TOTAL CHANGE.

Thus a majority of administrators, teachers, and schools are hesitant to attempt any significant modification of the traditional program. This paper is for those who cannot see themselves working in the area of TOTAL CHANGE. What is presented is a workable alternative for the ordinary traditionally oriented high school.

Background

Three years ago St. Bede Academy a small (480 students with a faculty equivalent of 29.9 full-time teachers) traditional high school in north central Illinois began discussions toward the development of its Curriculum Direction. (Curriculum Direction is our term for long range plan.) Being a school community which values strong tradition, the faculty and administrators were (and are) reluctant to accept the need for TOTAL CHANGE. At the same time we wish to provide the students with a workable educational program which meets their present needs and will meet their future needs.

After eighteen months of discussion the Curriculum Committee, which is composed of department heads, principal, guidance director, librarian, and two representatives from the Student Government, proposed and the faculty approved a Curriculum Direction having seven characteristics, i.e., Human Development/Christian Formation, Breadth Curriculum, Performance Curriculum, Coherent Program, Teacher Advisor Role, Budgeting, and Public Relations. All proposed modifications in the school program are judged in reference to this Curriculum Direction, the stated Philosophy, and the Objective of the Academy.

A number of activities have been initiated within the last two years with the view to moving the Curriculum Direction from a statement on paper to a program in practice. One of these activities was the attempt to implement a Breadth Curriculum. (Simply stated a Breadth Curriculum is a set of school activities that exposes the students and faculty members to a wider range of knowledge and skills than those normally covered in high school.) It is the intention of the ST. Bede Academy faculty that our graduates will have a broader background than that of previous graduates; this background should enable them to make better choices when entering college or when selecting initial employment.

With strong ties to the past and with minds open to the future the faculty, a committee of parents, and the Board of Directors approved the proposal of the Curriculum Committee that the 4-1-4 calendar be implemented during the 1973-74 school year. The second 4-1-4 calendar is now in process, and the third 4-1-4 calendar has been approved for the 1975-76 school year. (The 4-1-4 calendar consists of a 4 month first semester, a 1 month Interim program, and a 4 month second semester.)

At St. Bede the educational program of the first semester and the second semester remains the traditional college preparatory program. The time requirement for the Carnegie Unit is fulfilled. The first semester is 80 or 81 days in length, the second semester is 81

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or 82 days with the typical class meeting daily for two mods (50 minutes). The total time in class is therefore in excess of the 7200 minutes required for the Carnegie Unit.

With the traditional academic program guaranteed during the 4 month first semester and 4 month second semester the faculty feels free to experiment during the 1 month January Interim. And experiment they do.

Objectives and Activities

The two main objectives of the January Interim program are:

1. The students will be exposed to a wider variety of knowledge and skills than those normally covered in high school.

2. The students will experience a variety of occupationally oriented activities.

The first objective of the Interim embodies the definition of Breadth Curriculum, while the second objective of the Interim is one of the thirteen objectives of the school. A non-scientific survey of the senior class prior to the first Interim indicated that they felt that St. Bede fell short of achieving the occupationally oriented objective. Career days and business courses generally reach only a small minority of the student body.

The activities of the Interim are designed to implement the two main objectives. The major activities are:

1. Career Orientation—These are of two types. First, senior and junior students obtain jobs in the local community during the Interim, e.g., lab technician in hospital, veterinarian's assistant, bank clerk, farm worker, receptionist for dentist, assistant to an undertaker, assistant to automotive mechanic. Second, local business and professional leaders organize and conduct courses in their specialties, e.g., law, banking, photography, retail automobile dealership, insurance industry, real estate, fast food service.

2. Assembly Program—This series of assemblies is designed to carry through the idea of Breadth, e.g., a rock concert, a movie on the paintings of Rembrandt, a tennis exhibition, a movie and lecture on prison life, a faculty-student volleyball game, a gymnastic exhibititon. Three assemblies are held each week.

3. On-Campus Courses—These courses are taught by members of the regular faculty, businessmen and women, parents, alumni, and students. In order to guarantee Breadth, members of the faculty are asked to only offer courses that are not part of the regular curriculum. Parents, alumni, and students offer courses in areas of special interest. In all more than 100 courses are offered on-campus each Interim. A sample of these courses is: Introduction to the Old Testament, Problems in Peace Studies, The Comedy of James Thurber, Stained Glass, The Orient, Learning About Death, The Sea, How to Play Bridge, Athletic Training, Japanese Flower Arranging, Introduction to Karate, Opera.

4. Trips to Foreign Countries—During the Interim groups of students accompanied by members of the faculty have gone to Mexico, Great Britain, France and Germany.

These four categories of activities are chosen to give the students experiences that will lead to the accomplishment of the Interim's two main objectives. These activities are the means for moving from educational theory to educational practice.

Now comes the real test. Will IT work? Each Interim has gotten off to a slow start. For the first few days the program and its outcome seem questionable. About midway through the first week the program moves into high gear. In general, after the first two or three days there are few significant problems. The theory proves WORKABLE in practice. Better yet, it's workable and inexpensive for the school. Each of the two completed Interim programs cost a little over $600 of the school's budget. Few significant modifications in a school's program can be accomplished for so little cash outlay.

Evaluation of the Program

At the completion of the January Interim program an evaluation questionnaire is distributed to all students, business participants, regular faculty members, and a random sample of parents. The evaluation questionnaire focuses on the purposes of the program, student interest, student cooperation, school discipline, and the overall success or failure of the program.

In general the evaluation of the 1975 Interim is more favorable than the 1974 evaluation. One hundred twenty-one (88%) of this year's respondents judged the program a success, 1 (1%) judged it to have failed, and 16 (12%) made no judgment. In 1974 on a similar question 146 (78%) judged the program a success, 3 (2%) judged it a failure, and 37 (20%) made no judgment.

When asked if the Interim exposed the students to a wider range of knowledge and skills than does the typical high school curriculum, 123 respondents (90%) judged that it did, 1 (1%) judged that it did not, and 13 (9%) made no judgment. For the previous year's program 172 (91%) judged it to have provided Breadth, 5 respondents (3%) said it did not, and 11 (6%) made no judgment.

Were the students generally cooperative in the classroom? A total of 96 faculty and business participants (96%) said yes, 3 (3%) said they were not cooperative, 1 (1%) made no judgment. Last year 132 (90%) said the students were cooperative, 4 (3%) said they were not cooperative, and 11 (7%) made no judgment. Regarding discipline, 92 participants (91%) judged that there were not significant discipline problems, 6 (6%) judged that there were significant discipline problems, and 3 (3%) made no judgment. In 1974 when asked about discipline 126 (84%) said there were no significant problems, 6 (4%) judged there were significant problems, and 18 (12%) made no judgment.

The student when asked to rate the program rated as follows: Excellent—135, Good—243, Average—39, Poor—5, Rotten—2. Four hundred twenty-two students favor having an Interim during the coming school year, 3 do not favor a 1976 Interim. In addition, students also rated each class they took on a 5 step scale from very good to very poor.

Do you favor having an Interim during the coming school year? Parents and faculty members responded as follows: 56 (93% responded YES, 1 (2%) responded NO, and 3 (5%) made no judgment. For the previous year 62 (88%) responded YES, 3 (4%) responded NO, and 5 (7%) made no judgment.

As can be seen from the above summary the overall evaluation of the Interim on-campus program

was positive. The evaluation of the off-campus employment program was overwhelmingly positive. This evaluation was gathered in the form of written essay reports by the students and by the employers. In addition to favorable judgments a number of the students received unexpected pay for their Interim employment.

The foreign trips also received a favorable judgment. Depleted bank accounts and an occasional case of diarrhea seem the only areas of discomfort.

Conclusion

The foregoing presents in skeletal form the rationale, planning, implementation, and evaluation of the 1 month Interim of a 4-1-4 academic calendar. These are pictures (still shots) of a traditional high school in process. These are individual "frames" that attempt to capture the "present" as the school moves toward its Curriculum Direction.

In summary, the 4-1-4 high school calendar proved to be a workable alternative for a traditional high school; it provided a means of blending the old and the new. It helped bring one school to a threshold.

"Leaving the old, both worlds at once they view
That stand upon the threshold of the new."

Edmund Waller
On the Divine Poems

Shapiro
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This is the basic difference between the two plans. These pension costs will have to be paid, the only question is when they will be paid. They may be paid now at relatively little additional cost, or they can be paid later at very great additional cost. This year was another attempt to implement the Commission Plan, but the attempt failed largely because of the fiscal crisis in which the State now finds itself. But if an additional $28 million could not be found this year, how will the State find an additional $500 million or more 20 years from now, especially if another fiscal crisis should occur? The State must become responsible and start financing pension systems on a sound basis. Perhaps this alone might prevent a future fiscal crisis from occuring.

Lawhead
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whose twelfth year may need to encompass both secondary and collegiate studies.

In summary, the solution to the problem of articulation appears to lie in the conditions which prompted the present competition for the twelfth-year student. Comprehensive changes in curricular offerings at both levels, recognition of the range of differences among students, greater flexibility of admission processes and, where possible, cooperative educational programs would shift the present competitive scene to one where schools and colleges could serve maximally both the student and their respective institutional purposes.

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