

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 075 470

TM 002 548

AUTHOR Goolsby, Thomas M., Jr., Comp.
TITLE Reports on Some Salient Topics and/or Issues in Educational Psychology, Measurement and Research as Presented by Doctoral Students. A Seminar.
INSTITUTION Georgia Univ., Athens. Dept. of Educational Psychology.
PUB DATE 72
NOTE 116p.; Papers presented at Doctoral Seminar, University of Georgia, Fall 1971
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.65 HC-\$6.58
DESCRIPTORS Behavior Change; Educational Accountability; Educational Research; Ethics; *Graduate Study; *Literature Reviews; School Integration; *Seminars

ABSTRACT

Papers are presented that resulted from a doctoral seminar in the Department of Educational Psychology, Measurement and Research at the University of Georgia. Integration-desegregation, ethics, behavior modification, and accountability are the general areas treated. The papers are: (1) "Segregation--Alias: 'Special Education'" by Margaret C. Wesner; (2) "APA Ethics, a Help or Hindrance?" by Peter C. Gram; (3) "The Ethical Issues of Privacy, Confidentiality and Privileged Communication" by Diane T. Nunnally; (4) "Techniques to Improve Classroom Control and Instruction" by Kyle R. Carter; (5) "Behavior Modification: An Issue for the Teacher?"; by LaRetta M. Garland; (6) "Beyond Freedom and Dignity" by George W. Rogers; (7) "Freedom as a Result of Control?" by R. Hal Shigley; (8) "A Brief Overview of Research on Teacher Effectiveness and the Relevancy of Educational Psychology" by Chad D. Ellett; (9) "Institutional Design: An Administrative Approach" by Judd A. Katz; (10) "The School Psychologist - His Role in Effecting Educational Outcomes" by John J. Vance; and (11) "Accountability in Education! Why?" by J. Leon Dalton. (For related documents, see TM 002 549-559.)
(KM)

Reports on Some Salient Topics and/or Issues in Educational Psychology,
Measurement and Research as Presented by Doctoral Students--A Seminar

Papers by:

Margaret C. Weshner

Peter C. Gram

Diane T. Nunnally

Kyle B. Carter

LaRetta M. Garland

George W. Rogers

R. Hal Shigley

Chad D. Ellett

Judd A. Katz

John J. Vance

J. Leon Dalton

University of Georgia

Seminar Organized and Directed by

Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr.

University of Georgia

ED 075470

002 548

TM

Preface

The papers presented here are ones resulting from a Doctoral Seminar in the Department of Educational Psychology, Measurement and Research designed to have as its main focus professionalization of doctoral candidates. As the director of the seminar for the Fall Quarter, 1971, I invested much time in consultation with colleagues and students about alternatives for the seminar. The issues presented in these papers are a part of the total choices offered or agreed upon by professors and students.

The papers as written represent the stage of development of various students at that time. A rewriting at a later time will probably reflect differences in content, context, and other important elements for certain of the authors.

It seems that the adequate dissemination of certain doctoral seminar reports could be of substantial assistance to students and professors in planning for future seminars in many institutions.

The general areas treated in these papers are:

- 1) Integration-Desegregation
- 2) Ethics
- 3) Behavior Modification
- 4) Accountability

Following each paper is a very limited number of selected references. The limit on the number of references was intentional so that one is not inundated with source material. Some may view this as a limita-

tion, but it is viewed as an asset for the "unseasoned," the experienced and members of other disciplines desiring to use these papers or become initially acquainted with the topics treated.

Thomas M. Goolsby, Jr.

Athens, Georgia, 1972

INTRODUCTION

Frederick E. Woodall

University of Georgia

The papers presented here are in five sections with the intent to review some current topics in educational psychology and raise questions concerning the investigation and implementation of the findings. The main concern of each writer seems to have been to enhance the educational environments in public education towards more effective and efficient learning.

One nation-wide focus in education at this time is the total integration of the public schools. What is happening in some schools concerning integration is directly treated in an article entitled "Segregation-- Alias Special Education." Are the students in Special Education classes getting what they need? Are the students in Special Education there because of a need or are they there for expediency? Do the schools utilize the Special Education programs effectively? These are a few of the questions Weshner asks in her review of this very vital public school program.

After reading Weshner's paper, the reader may well ask about the ethical standards in public education. Following the Weshner paper, the first of two articles is a review of the recent publication of ethical standards by the American Psychological Association. Two basic questions are raised by Gram concerning this professional statement of ethics 1) are they justifiable and 2) will they help or hinder? While Gram is more concerned with research and therapeutic ethics, the second article by Nunnally brings the ethical question to the public schools. Nunnally questions the ethics of the cumulative records kept by all public schools. It is Nunnally's contention that such private inroads into an individual's life should not

be open so readily to persons other than those few professionals who would be working confidentially with the student. Further examination yielding standards of reporting the confidentiality are needed as well as a concise statement concerning the availability of such records.

The next group of papers includes articles on classroom techniques and teacher motivation that may prove to be the best facilitators of learning. The first paper by Carter explains that the teacher is ultimately responsible for the behavior in the classroom. When the teacher assumes this responsibility there should be a good model of instructions to follow that would predict satisfactory outcome. Carter opens the section of behavior modification indicating that direct implementation of behavior techniques in shaping behavior are badly needed, i.e., eliminating inappropriate behavior with reinforcement of "good" behavior and thereby changing the amount of learning by active participation by the students.

Going a step further into behavior modification Garland presents the second article as an overview of the direct method of shaping. This paper moves more into the area of direct manipulation of the classroom environment in order to make the educative process "more realistic, identifiable, measurable, and predictable."

The next two papers present some explanations of behavior modification theory. The first paper by Shigley is an update of "Skinnerian Theory" with some discussion of Beyond Freedom and Dignity by B.F. Skinner. In the second paper, Rogers reviews Beyond Freedom and Dignity with some individual interpretations of the material. This paper brings the reader a theoretical orientation and asks the question of "Why" the educational process will not or cannot implement such a system.

The last series of articles is concerned basically with the accountability of education. One of the writers asks who is accountable, for what, and to whom.

Each paper in this section is an indictment of the educational system as a whole and the professional educator as an individual.

In the first paper Katz proposes that the main problem in determining the accountability in education lies in the ineffective institutional design, the administrators of education. Far too much energy of personnel is wasted because the school administration has not seen fit to deal directly with the problems of effective education. As Katz so effectively points out, teachers are what the administration makes them and students suffer and gain accordingly.

Teacher effectiveness may well depend on the results obtained through research in Educational Psychology according to Ellett's paper. The educative process needs more efficient research in learning and teaching to benefit the teacher and the student. To put it bluntly, educational research is failing to obtain the basic answers to what is effective educational procedure and how to measure teacher competency.

Vance realistically discusses the expectations and job performance exemplified in the role of school psychologist. According to Vance the schools expect the school psychologist to be expert in about eleven areas while he is expected to perform on a subservient level of administration which then disregards his preparation. Vance concludes that the first problem educators must face is role definition and job description matching competency expectations with level of task and subsequent respect.

A logical step from Vance's paper would be the area of how people respect the "professional educator." In the final article presented, Dalton strikes out at the public for demanding such high standards of excellence and paying such little respect for this great competency in such a difficult field.

While the whole field of education must be held accountable for the success of each individual student, the public must be held accountable for the success of the field of education. As Dalton expresses it, accountability will professionalize education but who is accountable for the support of the professional educator. Education will move ahead in the desire to become more and more competent as professionals but someone, someday is going to have to pay the piper.

Table of Contents

	Page*
Segregation--Alias: "Special Education" by Margaret C. Weshner	1
APA Ethics, A Help or Hinderance? Peter C. Cram	9
The Ethical Issues of Privacy, Confidentiality and Privileged Communication Diane T. Nunnally	22
Techniques to Improve Classroom Control and Instruction Kyle R. Carter	33
Behavior Modification: An Issue for the Teacher? LaRetta M. Garland	39
Beyond Freedom and Dignity George W. Rogers	46
Freedom As A Result of Control? R. Hal Shigley	53
A Brief Overview of Research on Teacher Effectiveness and the Relevancy of Educational Psychology Chad D. Ellett	58
Institutional Design: An Administrative Approach Jude A. Katz	71
The School Psychologist - His Role in Effecting Educational Outcomes John J. Vance	93
Accountability in Education! Why? J. Léon Dalton	101

*Refers to number at the bottom of pages.

ED 075471

Segregation -- Alias: "Special Education"

Margaret C. Weshner

University of Georgia

On May 17, 1954, in handing down a decision in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, the Supreme Court in the United States un-
animously concluded that "in the field of public education the doc-
trine of 'separate but equal' has no place." In the middle of the
twentieth century, almost twenty years ago, the Court concluded that
"separate education facilities are inherently unequal."

Although for over a decade the Supreme Court had been invalidat-
ing state laws which were racially discriminatory, the school decision
shocked the South. By the middle of 1956 only some 350 school districts
out of 6300 in the South were desegregated. The years that followed
brought riots, sit-ins, school closings and token integration through-
out the South.

Simultaneously with the antisegregation movement in the South,
Northern Blacks campaigned against segregated public schools in cities
like New York and Chicago. Although unrecognized in law, school segre-
gation in the North often existed in fact because of residential pat-
terns. Blacks demanded, and with some success, that their children be
accepted in white schools outside their local districts, where schools
were often crowded and run-down.

For the past few years, particularly 1970 and 1971, school offi-
cials have found themselves faced with the problem of accomplishing
total integration on a percentage basis of all public schools. Because
of an administrative failure to make or implement any long-range plans,

6
F
C
S
4
9

unsatisfactory solutions such as busing of students to schools far away from their homes and assigning teachers to distant schools to achieve racial balance have served to arouse ill-will and solved nothing.

In compliance with the law, and under threat of a withdrawal of federal funds, most school districts in the country have accomplished a de facto segregation under the guise of integration. Not only do students (mainly those in the upper grades) choose to segregate themselves in the lunchroom, on the playground, in the halls and at school-related functions, but school personnel have managed to create a much subtler and far more damaging type of segregation within the educational institutions. We have renamed the old 'separate but equal' doctrine; we now call it 'equal but special' and using the almighty I.Q. as our weapon, we herd thousands upon thousands of children into classes for the "retarded" or the "emotionally disturbed." And this type of segregation is not limited to Blacks. Any child from a low status background is eligible - all we need is a psychological evaluation, and these children can be labeled, pigeonholed and forgotten as educators and legislators pat themselves on the back for the fine educational services we are providing for our nation's school children.

Let us look at a few examples. California is heralded throughout the nation as a leader in education, yet the first racial analysis of California's 65,000 "mentally retarded" school children disclosed in January, 1970, that 2.14 per cent of all the Spanish surnamed children, and 3.26 of all the Black children have been placed into classes for the educable mentally retarded, while only .71 per cent of all white children are so classified. Pupils with Spanish surnames make up 15.22 per cent of the general school population, but represent 28.34 per cent

of the enrollment in classes for the retarded. Black children constitute 8.85 per cent of the total public school enrollment in California, but make up 25.5 per cent of the enrollment in EMR-classes.

Angry Chicano parents finally brought a law suit against the California school systems, charging that students were trapped in classes for the retarded because they were given culturally unfair intelligence tests in English instead of Spanish. When the children were retested in their own language, more than half were found to have been misplaced. A resultant judicial decree mandates that a study of home environment, conferences with parents, use of nonverbal as well as verbal tests, and placement decision by a broad school committee be included in future decisions about special class placement.

A similar suit was filed against the Boston school system charging that through a faulty method of testing and classification, large numbers of poor but normally intelligent children have been placed in classes for the mentally retarded.

Shocking disproportions of Spanish children have also been reported in schools in Texas, Colorado, and New York. In fact, as of 1968, approximately 80 per cent of the children who were in classes for the mentally retarded throughout the country were from nonmiddle class environments, including Blacks, American Indians, Mexicans, Puerto Rican Americans and others from low status backgrounds.

This exclusion of minority children has served two purposes. Disturbing children can be removed from the regular classroom, thus facilitating the task of the classroom teacher, and federal and state monies can be obtained for the school system, usually on the basis of amount/child. Thus the children must suffer irreparable damage for the con-

venience of the institutions that purport to help them.

The entire process of labeling and pigeonholing children would be bad enough if it were limited to the 2 per cent of any given segment of the population that are supposedly mentally retarded. But to "special education" as a cover for segregation creates an intolerable situation.

The author of this paper advocates alleviation of this problem by adopting a threefold program:

- 1) Abolishment of the use of all current measures of psychological functioning
- 2) Abolishment of all forms of ability grouping in the public schools
- 3) Assessment through observation of children in the natural environment (the classroom) and restructuring of that environment to bring about desired behavioral changes.

Abolishment of the Use of All Current Measures of Psychological Functioning

The author contends that these measures should no longer be used in educational institutions for the following reasons:

- 1. "Standardized" tests are not standardized. A tester is trained to go beyond the data in making interpretations and evaluations. How can we say that these subjective interpretations are accurate? The tests were "standardized" to a large extent on middle class subjects; therefore cultural biases play a tremendous role in test outcomes. Such factors as administrator bias and an array of external variables also make it impossible for the testing situation to be identical for all persons at all times.
- 2. Psychological measures, particularly projective tests of personality are neither valid nor reliable. Does a child really draw or eliminate a body part because he is fixated? Is the failure to correctly reproduce a geometric shape a true indication of brain damage?



3. A quick perusal of the WISC or the Binet will clearly indicate that they are outdated.
4. Psychological evaluations are administered under optimal conditions, thus do not yield a true picture of "current functioning." (See Bersoff, 1971).
5. The child is an involuntary participant in the testing situation. He has no choice in the matter; yet decisions are made about him on the basis of his responses.
6. Labeling which is damaging to the child frequently results from psychological evaluation.
7. Intelligence is not measurable at a point. A score can fluctuate as much as ten points in either direction. How then, can we say that a child with an I.Q. score of 69 is "retarded" and a child with a score of 71 is not?

Abolishment of All Forms of Ability Grouping in the Schools

The author agrees with Glasser (1969) that all children benefit when they are in heterogeneous classrooms. Of course, this means that the classroom teacher will truly have to individualize instruction, but are not all children individuals? Many teachers who have been using the same lesson plans for the past twenty years will be reluctant to spend the time and effort to use innovative methods in their teaching; but perhaps those who are unwilling to expend the energy would be better suited for another type of work. Fortunately, there is no teacher shortage in this country.

Furthermore, the author contends that the notion that slower children are 'better off' in special classes is a myth. The efficacy of programs for the mentally retarded is questionable at best. In fact, the literature is full of studies that indicate that children in special classes actually demonstrate less academic achievement and poorer self-concept than similar children who remain in regular classrooms (Sparks and Blackman, 1965; Bennett, 1963; Cassidy and Stanton, 1959; Thurstone, 1960; Johnson, 1962; Carroll, 1967; Itkin, 1967; and Meyrowitz, 1962).

Assessment Through Observation of Children in the Natural Environment (the Classroom) and Restructuring of That Environment to Bring About Desired Behavioral Changes

In our society, we believe in autonomous man (Skinner, 1971), that there is a personality struggle within us of a psychodynamic nature, and that behavior is superficial. Consider, for a moment, Skinner's position that we should be concerned with behavior and not homunculi. If we eliminate the idea that the child has internal controls, then we can no longer blame the child and exonerate ourselves if the child fails. That is not a very comfortable position, admittedly, but the fact is that WE are the ones doing the teaching; therefore WE are the ones applying the contingencies. It would be helpful to take a look at our educational institutions and the contingencies set up by those institutions.

If any type of assessment is to be useful, it would be appropriate that the information gleaned from that assessment lead to some change in behavior (Peterson, 1968). As suggested earlier, current measures of intellectual functioning provide information about behavior elicited under optimal conditions rather than in the natural environment. We therefore make unwarranted assumptions about how the child 'should' perform in the classroom on the basis of how he performs in an unnatural situation.

It would be more useful to observe behavior as the child actually performs in the classroom. We could then restructure the environment accordingly and gain almost immediate feedback as to the efficacy of the applied contingencies. Using this technique, we would truly be able to obtain information about "current functioning" and eliminate invidious comparisons which only serve to provide us with labels.

The author is aware that these changes may seem radical to some, ridiculous to others. But the fact remains that the system we now have is not working. This is an age of revolution, and that revolution is not limited to the streets of our country's larger cities. It is being fought quietly, in the public schools and in the universities, using the weapons of new insights, new teaching methods, and new curricula. I urge you to gather your forces of reason and join the revolution, while it can still be fought calmly, while it can still be won for the betterment of all concerned.

7

References

- Bennett, A. A comparative study of the progress of subnormal pupils in the grades and in special classes. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.
- Bersoff, D. N. The "current functioning" myth: An overlooked fallacy in psychological assessment. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology (In Press).
- Brinton, C. A. A history of civilization. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1963.
- Carroll, A. W. The effects of segregated and partially integrated school programs on self-concept and academic achievement of educable mental retardates. Exceptional Children, 1967, 34, 93-99.
- Cassidy, V. M. and Stanton, J. E. An investigation of factors involved in the educational placement of mentally retarded children: A study of differences between children in special and regular classes in Ohio. Cooperative Research Project No. 1043. Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1959.
- Dunn, L. M. Special education for the mildly retarded--is much of it justifiable? Exceptional Children, 1968, 35, 5-21.
- Glasser, W. Schools without failure. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.
- Itkin, W. Implications of mental retardation research for the operations and training of school psychologists. Mental Retardation, 1967, 5, 15-18.
- Johnson, G. O. Special education for mentally handicapped -- a paradox. Exceptional Children, 1962, 34, 453-57.
- Meyrowitz, J. H. Self-derogation in young retardates and special class placement. Child Development, 1962, 33, 443-451.
- Peterson, D. The clinical study of social behavior. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1968.
- Skinner, B. F. Beyond freedom and dignity. Psychology Today, 1971, 5, 73, 37-76.
- Sparks, H. L. and Blackman, L. S. What is special about education revisited: the mentally retarded. From keynote address, Education Section, annual meeting of AAMD, Denver, May 1967, p. 2.
- Stevens, W. K. Boston suit charges harm from faulty I.Q. testing of students. The New York Times, September 15, 1970.

The Way We Go To School: The Exclusion of Children in Boston. (A report by the Task Force on Children Out of School), Beacon Press, Boston 02108, 1971.

Thurstone, T. G. An Evaluation of Educating Mentally Handicapped Children in Special Classes and in Regular Grades. Cooperative Research Project Report No. OE-SAE-6452. Washington: U.S. Office of Education, 1959.

Tremblay, P. The changing concept of intelligence and its effect on special class organization. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1969, 2, 520-523.

Trippe, M. See the cat? See the cradle? Exceptional Children in Regular Classrooms. Minnesota; U.S. Office of Education, 1970.

Selected References

Bersoff, D. The "current functioning" myth: An overlooked fallacy in psychological assessment. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology (In Press).

Glasser, W. Schools without failure. New York: Harper and Row, 1969.

Peterson, D. The clinical study of social behavior. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1968.

The Way We Go To School: The Exclusion of Children in Boston. (A report by the Task Force on Children Out of School), Beacon Press, Boston 02108, 1971.

APA Ethics, A Help or Hinderance

Peter C. Gram

University of Georgia

The American Psychological Association (APA) was founded in 1892, and has grown to a total membership of more than 30,000 persons associated with its 27 divisions. It has two primary functions, the first of which is to stimulate communication among its membership, through the publication of journals and the provision of a forum for discussion in the form of annual conventions. The second purpose, though somewhat less known, is just as important. The APA provides for a self-conscious and periodic examination of its members. Associated with this end is the approval of training programs by the APA in order to guarantee certain standards of education for aspiring psychologists. Even more directly, the APA has established its own governing body to mediate in ethical problems concerning its membership. This discussion will concentrate on this last aspect of the APA.

The Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct (CSPEC) is the body empowered to deal with ethical matters within the APA. The responsibility and functions of the Committee are to "receive and investigate complaints of unethical conduct of fellows, members, associates and affiliates. . . settle accounts privately. . . report on the types of cases investigated. . . recommend action on ethical cases investigated. . . and to formulate rules or principles of ethics for adoption by the Association." The power of the Committee includes jurisdiction over APA members, and as such decides on membership. Its disciplinary actions include disbarment from APA member-

ED 075472

T 002 550

ship or a reprimand and or a probationary period. It may only recommend a course of action, though the final decision of the Board of Directors is strongly influenced by their recommendations.

One of the more common cases which has appeared before the Board is the case of Dr. Joyce Brothers, who was disbarred from the APA for unethical practices, specifically conducting therapy by means of correspondence. From this example it can be seen that the APA does not have the complete control over the profession as does the American Medical Association, or the American Bar Association, organizations which provided the pattern for the APA.

In accordance with its functions the APA has adopted a code of ethics which is intended to govern the behavior of its members. The first code was adopted on September 4, 1952, and there have been minor revisions in 1958 and 1963. It dealt generally with three main concerns: the psychologist himself, the psychologist and his relationship to others, and the psychologist and his instruments. The areas finally covered included: public responsibility, client relationships, teaching, research, writing and publication, and professional relationships.

A digression is in order to describe an important influence on the development of the APA ethical code. In 1965 two congressional subcommittees held hearings on matters associated with the practice of psychology. The first was the Senate Subcommittee on Constitutional Rights of the Committee on the Judiciary which investigated the government's use of psychological testing as a prerequisite of employment. It is this writer's opinion that the hearings, and the restriction they placed on the use of psychological testing as a means for aiding selection, could have been avoided if testing had not been abused in the first place.

Even more ominous, the House Special Subcommittee on Invasion of Privacy of the Committee on Government Operations questioned the use of questions about sex life, family situations, religion, personal habits, childhood and other similar matters in personality testing of Government employees. It is more ominous because the recommendations of the Committee, restricting the methods and questionnaires psychologists could use in research and even suggesting Federal intervention in some cases, indicated that the APA had ~~been~~ lax in maintaining its ethical standards in a manner congruent with the public Zeitgeist. If the APA was not going to lead the way for its membership, then that leadership was left in the hands of others, who might not be as sympathetic with the inadequacies of psychological testing and research.

Contiguous with these developments, a suggestion came from members of the law profession concerning privacy and behavioral research. Succinctly, the article stated that the privacy of belief or opinion is a concept which is relatively young, beginning only a few hundred years ago. The arguments of Ruebhausen and Brim are as follows:

1. Individuals have the right to be left alone.
2. Individuals have the right to share and communicate, a process necessary for the growth and development of all individuals.
3. There may be a social consensus of what is private, but this may be transient.
4. Privacy is invaded by:
 - a. self-descriptions in interviews, questionnaires and personality tests
 - b. direct observations of individual behavior
 - c. use of secondary data (other persons as informants)

- 5. The concept of individual consent to a possible invasion of privacy is complex.
 - a. voluntary consent is absolutely necessary (as established by the Nuremberg trials)
 - b. research may be destroyed in some cases if complete consent is obtained
 - c. it is often questionable whether consent is voluntary or coerced.

- 6. All research data must be maintained in confidentiality
 - a. this implies the integrity of the research must be included in any ethics statement
 - b. to date only 18 States (including Georgia) have statutes according research data privileged status.

Their recommendations for an ethical code are governed by the following seven principles:

- 1. There should be a recognition, and an affirmation, of the claim to private personality.
- 2. There should be a positive commitment to respect private personality in the conduct of research.
- 3. To the fullest extent possible, without prejudicing the validity of the research, the informed, and voluntary, consent of the respondents should be obtained.
- 4. If consent is impossible without invalidating the research, then before the research is undertaken, the responsible officials of the institutions financing, administering, and sponsoring the research should be satisfied that the social good in the proposed research outweighs the social value of the claim to privacy under the specific conditions of the proposed invasion. These officials in turn are responsible, and must be responsive, to the views of the larger community in which science and research must work.
- 5. The identification of the individual respondent should be divorced as fully and as effectively as possible from the data furnished. Anonymity of the respondent to a behavioral research study, so far as possible, should be sought actively in the design and execution of the study as a fundamental characteristic of good research.
- 6. The research data should be safeguarded in every feasible and reasonable way, and the identification of individual respondents with any portion of the data should be destroyed as soon as possible, consistent with the research objectives.



7. The research data obtained for one purpose should not thereafter be used for another without the consent of the individual involved or a clear and responsible assessment that the public interest in the newly proposed use of the data transcends any inherent privacy transgression.

These events, then, have led to the September, 1968 call by the APA'S Committee on Ethical Standards in Psychological Research for an upcoming survey of its members to re-examine the basic APA code "in the light of recent experience." The draft currently up for consideration and comments acknowledges that the researcher has a scientific obligation to contribute to the body of scientific knowledge for the benefit of mankind. Also, in dealing with human subjects, the main concern of the investigator is the invasion of their privacy. These two predispositions conflict to create most of the ethical problems encountered in psychological research, for experimental control, while necessary for scientific methodology, may not always be physically or psychologically practical. In order to meet this dilemma, the Committee members have suggested a risk/benefit model for the analysis of ethical matters. This is simply the weighing of the magnitude of the possible benefit of the research in question to society in contrast to the cost of probable harm the experimental procedure may inflict on the individual subject. The Committee states that, in general, the psychologist's initial obligation is to conduct worthy research, and then when the risk to the subject or benefits to society are in doubt, the subject's welfare is given priority.

The draft includes a number of specific principles concerning six basic areas of concern for behavioral research. These are:

1. The use of human subjects
2. The effects of physical stress

3. The use of drugs
4. The effects of psychological stress
5. The use of deception in experiments
6. Invasion of privacy

Specific examples of the draft's proposed principles are to be found in the Appendix.

This radical change in the coverage and explicitness of the code of ethics has drawn criticism from a number of psychologists. Included in this number are the psychologists and sociologists of the University of Wisconsin. Excerpts from their responses to the draft follow:

As social psychological researchers, we find ourselves agreeing with some aspects of the proposed Ethical Standards for Psychological Research while demurring at others.

We concur with three aspects of the committee's approach. First, there is a need to protect human research subjects from physical and psychological harm. As the (extreme) examples in your proposal attest some scientists have misused their freedom in performing research, or have failed to assess the potential for harm. Such researchers do not characterize our profession as a whole, and we must exercise control where unethical practices occur repeatedly.

Secondly, your committee has done an admirable job in identifying the multitude of ways in which research subjects may be harmed.

Third, and most important, your committee's explicit use of the cost-benefit paradigm for evaluating research practices, while not (to our minds) a very satisfactory model, at least recognizes the complexity of the moral problem.

Our subsequent remarks should be interpreted within this context. We have several broad criticisms of the proposed Ethical Standards, as follows:

1. If read literally, your proposed standards would prescribe most of the work in experimental social psychology.

- 2. We believe that a document stating general principles would be greatly preferable to the present proposal.
- 3. No matter what form the principles take, there will be a continuing need to interpret and apply them. You propose Ethics Advisory Groups as the appropriate mechanism, but we foresee two problems here. One is the composition of these groups. We believe their members must be research scientists, since only such persons can evaluate research practices in valid and justifiable terms. . . Our second objection is that Ethics Advisory Groups will constitute another bureaucratic hurdle, further lengthening the research process.
- 4. We deplore the general tenor of the proposed document. The overwhelming focus on what researchers cannot do, supported with principles of undesirable practices, implies that the committee fundamentally distrusts the average researcher. . . The proposed principles excessively restrict the researcher's freedom, give the subjects too much (political) control over the release and inspection of scientific data, and provide the Ethics Advisory Groups with excessive power over the choice of research topics. . . Ultimately, you must rely on the researcher's ability in applying ethical principles to his work. In the last analysis, our profession is only as good as its individual members.

Whether this draft is adopted by the APA, it is of vital concern for any individual conducting psychological research to be aware of the limitations it places on him, as well as its principles for ethical conduct.



REFERENCES

Webb, W. B. The profession of psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962.

Casebook on ethical standards of psychologists. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association, 1967.

Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct, Rules and procedures. American Psychologist, 1968, 23(5), 362-366.

Ethical issues in psychological research - forthcoming survey of APA members: a letter to the membership. American Psychologist, 1968, 23(9), 689-690.

Ruebhausen, O. M., & Brim, O. G., Jr. Privacy and behavioral research. Columbia Law Review, November, 1965, reprinted in American Psychologist, 1966, 21(5), 423-437.

APA Monitor, Summer, 1971, 9-28.

American Psychologist, 1965, 20(11).

APPENDIX
Principles

Principles 1.11

It is the responsibility of the individual investigator to make a considered judgment with respect to the ethical acceptability of unacceptability of each study he undertakes. He may not abdicate this responsibility on the grounds of current practice or the judgment of others.

Principle 1.2

When a psychologist plans to conduct research involving potential risks and costs to human subjects he should seek the advice of an ethics advisory group in deciding whether to proceed.

Principle 1.3

The investigator has the obligation to exclude from his sample of subjects potential participants who might experience enduring psychological stress or find themselves in physical danger as a result of the procedures to be employed.

Principle 1.411

It is unethical to involve a person in research without his prior knowledge and informed consent.

Principle 1.412

In recruiting subjects for research, the investigator must give potential subjects an honest description of his study without misrepresenting the purposes, procedures, benefits or sponsorship of the research.

Principle 1.413

It is unethical to withhold from the research subject information about the purposes, procedures, and sponsorship of the research even when this deception appears necessary to avoid vitiating the research results.

Principle 1.421.

The subject must be informed in advance of all aspects of the research that bear directly on his own experience in it, including (a) any treatment that he is to receive, (b) any data that will be collected from him, and (c) the magnitude of the investment that is being asked of him such as the time involved, etc.

Principle 1.422

The subject must be informed even of those aspects of the research which do not pertain directly to his own experiences in it, if there is a reasonable suspicion that such information might affect the individual's willingness to participate. These additional aspects include among other things, the treatments of subjects in other conditions of the research, the purpose of the research; the uses to be made of the data, the sponsor of the research and his motivation, whether the research results might reflect on the individual himself or his cathected groups, the steps that have been taken to assure the confidentiality of his responses, etc.

Principle 1.423

The subject must be informed in advance of the basis for his selection for the research and of his performance on measures used in subject selection. If in the experimenter's judgment, with the advice of an ethics advisory group (see Principle 1.2) this information threatens the subject's welfare, it must be withheld from him.

Principle 1.5111

Students should not be required to participate in research as a condition for entering a course or for obtaining grade points or avoiding loss of them, or as an alternative to another onerous task, where that participation requirement is to any extent in the service of research.

Principle 1.5112

Instructors should not recruit subjects for their own research from students in their own class, even on a completely voluntary basis, because of the danger that students will feel pressured to participate at the request of their own instructors.

Principle 1.512

The person's need for another service such as educational counseling, employment, housing, etc., should not be used to require him to participate in research as a condition for obtaining that service; requests for his voluntary participation are permissible only if done in a way that leaves him assured that his refusal to participate will not jeopardize his obtaining the service.

Principle 1.513

Pressure to participate should not be put on subjects by arousing anxieties regarding their personal competence or by the use of undue social influence or moral appeals.

Principle 1.5141

Appeals to a subject's self-interest may be used to induce participation in research only when he is made aware of any uncertainty as to the actual value to him of the incentive offered.

Principle 1.521

Care should be taken that the subject receive an explicit statement of his right to refuse research participation and that he is in a context and state of mind where he can appreciate this opportunity, and has sufficient time to come to a decision.

Principle 1.522

Where there is reason to doubt that a subject's mental competence is sufficient for him to appreciate what he is being asked to do or his option to refuse to participate in research, special effort must be made to make these points clear to him; and, in addition, informed and free consent should also be obtained from a person whose primary interest is in the subject's welfare. (See identical Principle 1.532, below).

Principle 1.524

The investigator must recognize the subject's right to drop out of the research at any time. Efforts to prevent this through legitimate reassurances and clarification of misunderstandings must avoid those types of coercion reviewed in Sub-section 1.51.

Principle 1.531

Where the principal investigator's assistants, rather than he, are in contact with the subject during recruitment or conduct of the research, then these assistants incur responsibility to assure that the subject is participating in the research with full information and free of coercion, as outlined in the principles dealing with these topics. In addition, the principal investigator regains his responsibility for seeing that his assistants carry out these principles.

Principle 1.61

Both the subject and the experimenter should be satisfied that the benefits to the subject justify the risks and costs he incurs in participating in the research. To assure that this is the case, the subject must be fully informed of those benefits and costs, competent to judge them, and must accept the arrangement free of duress.

Principle 1.62

The research investigator has an ethical obligation to carry out his agreement with the subject in every respect. He must try to anticipate difficulties in carrying out the agreement and make provision for surmounting them, regardless of inconveniences involved. He retains full responsibility for the observance of the agreement even when an assistant conducts the research and is obligated to suitably instruct and supervise the assistant in this matter.

Principle 1.71

At the completion of the experiment, the investigator has an obligation to remove any misconceptions acquired by the subject, whether these misconceptions were deliberately instilled in him or developed as an accidental by-product of the procedure.

Principle 1.73

The experimenter must be prepared not only to take whatever immediate steps are necessary to remove any damage done to the subject by his procedures but also to maintain his relationships to the subject until he is certain, beyond all reasonable doubt, that this has been accomplished. Following studies that seem to have the potential to produce harm to the subject, the experimenter must initiate appropriate follow-up procedures to make certain that no previously undetected damage has occurred.

Principle 1.80

The investigator is ethically obligated to keep the subject's data in confidence. This includes keeping it in confidence from the subject's relatives and friends regardless of the subject's reasons for desiring that this be done.

Principle 1.81

An investigator should not supply a research subject's data to employers, school representatives and similar officials unless (a) there is no reason to believe the subject would object, and (b) there is no reason to believe the data could be used to the subject's disadvantage.

A. When the investigator is in doubt as to how the subject would feel about the disclosure, he must seek his informed and coercion-free consent to it.

B. When the research is commissioned or supported by organizations which might later request the subject's data, the investigator should make explicit in advance of the study the nature of the data to be held in confidence.

Principle 1.821

An investigator should not supply a research subject's data to other professional associates unless (a) there is no reason to believe the subject would object and (b) there is no reason to believe the data could be used to the subject's disadvantage.

Information about individual subjects' identify should be removed without delay from all records, or not collected in the first place where a permanent record is not needed, even where this removal is inconvenient or tedious. Where identifiability must be retained, as a longitudinal study, the material should be coded and the code key stored where it is accessible to as few people as possible.

Principle 1.85

When a psychologist collects information which has any appreciable likelihood of being demanded by the courts, he should make the legal situation clear to the respondent in advance, including the vulnerability of the data, any possible harm its revelation in court might do to the subject, the steps taken to safeguard the information against such revelation, and the extent of the investigator's willingness to subject himself to legal sanction to protect the data.

Principle 1.86

Before contributing information concerning individuals to a data bank, the psychologist should assure himself that safeguards exist which protect the confidentiality of the information and the anonymity of the individual.

Principle 1.88

Where the psychologist wishes to publish data that will reveal information about certain characteristics of the subject's valued groups, which revelation the subject might find seriously offensive, then the psychologist has an obligation to obtain the subject's free and informed consent for the publication.

Principle 1.89

When the investigator discovers information which leads him to feel that there is an appreciable danger of serious harm to the subject or to another that could be averted by revealing this information, he should make appropriate disclosure even if in so doing he violates his pledge to keep data confidential and goes against the wishes of the research subject.

F

The Ethical Issues of
Privacy, Confidentiality and Privileged Communication

Diane T. Munnelly

University of Georgia

With the advent of sophisticated methods in education and the focus upon the individual child, which child development and educational psychology has emphasized, schools are keeping more extensive records with more and more specific data. These pupil records contain, in addition to a pupil attendance and achievement record, standardized test scores, personality data, information on family background and current status, health data, teacher and counselor observations, anecdotal records, and so on. These records, containing information drawn from many sources--teachers, counselors, nurses, specialist teachers, etc.-- and including material at various technical levels, are utilized by many different people within the school, for different purposes. The professionals involved must be concerned with the establishment of clear and definitive philosophies for the collecting, recording and transmitting of data concerning children. School psychologists and guidance counselors have felt the most immediate impact of recent incidents involving the confidentiality of school records in reference to psychological reports and I.Q. scores. If it is truly felt, as is so often argued in regard to the question of showing these records to parents, that harm might befall some children, educators must become concerned so as to resolve these issues of confidentiality, privacy, and privileged communication.

ED 075473

TM 002 551

ERIC

For the psychologist to be able to work effectively with individuals, there are times that he must receive information in strict confidence. When this is requested of him by a client, the psychologist is ethically obliged to protect this confidence. There are times, however, when the psychologist cannot accept an offer of confidential information. The topics of privileged communications, confidentiality, and privacy are especially relevant to psychologists as those issues affect many various aspects of their work.

Shah (Fall, 1969, p. 5) defines the concepts of confidentiality, privileged communication, and privacy in the following manner:

Confidentiality relates to matters of professional ethics. Confidentiality protects the client from unauthorized disclosures of any sort by the professional without the informed consent of the client. The ethical codes of professional organizations aim to safeguard the client's right to confidentiality and provide various sanctions for violations.

Privileged communication refers to the legal right which exists by statute and which protects the client from having his confidences revealed publicly from the witness stand during the legal proceedings without his permission. Where the privilege exists, the client is protected from the private information used as testimony in judicial proceedings. Through judicial interpretation of such statutes or by explicit statutory language, such protection may also extend to legislative and administrative proceedings. . .

Privacy . . . has yet to fully developed in regard to precise legal boundaries. In essence, the concept of privacy recognizes the freedom of the individual to pick and choose for himself the time, circumstances, and particularly the extent to which he wishes to share with or withhold from others his attitudes, beliefs, behavior and opinions.

Principle 6 of the American Psychological Association's "Ethical Standards of Psychologists" states the following about confidentiality:

Safeguarding information about an individual that has been obtained by the psychologist in the course of his teaching, practice, or investigation is a primary obligation of the psychologist. Such information is not communicated to others unless certain important conditions are met.

Violation of the client's professional confidences outside of the courtroom can result in the following reprisals:

- (1) disciplinary action and professional sanctions by the American Psychological Association in accordance with the "Ethical Standards of Psychologists;"
- (2) disciplinary action by the state licensing authority in relation to the psychologist's certificate or license;
- (3) legal action if damage to the client results;
- (4) legal action if breach of confidentiality is construed as defamatory statement (Shah, 1970, p. 160).

Failure of the psychologist to exercise proper care in maintaining his records so that there is no reasonable chance of their getting lost, stolen, or falling into the hands of unauthorized persons can result in civil action against him if the accidental disclosure caused the client harm and damage (Shah, 1970, p.160). Principle of the "Ethical Standards of Psychologists" on confidentiality states: "The psychologist makes provisions for the maintenance of confidentiality in the preservation and ultimate disposition of confidential records."

Miller (1971, pp.101-102) urges a re-evaluation of the current testing practices in light of the possibility of computer technology creating a monster to gather and analyze large amounts of psychological data which can be retained in machine-readable form for later use. He is fearful of the consequences of an "alliance among computer technology, psychological evaluation and electronic surveillance activities" and the possibility of a Central Personality Bureau" with services as "vendors of psychological data or test profiles" analogous to the services of credit bureaus. Because of this technological possibility and the "questionable reliability of personality testing," Miller suggests the development of effective procedures for safeguarding test data, which

is presented in manila folders or in computer data.

The Russell Sage Foundation (1969, pp.20-22) suggest that school systems give careful consideration to the periodic elimination of data which they categorize as "B", which includes standardized I.Q. and aptitude test scores, interest inventory results, health data, family background information, teacher or counselor ratings and observations, and verified reports of serious or recurrent behavior patterns. These records should be destroyed or else retained only under conditions of anonymity and security for research purposes at points of transition, such as from elementary to junior high school or when the student leaves school. Data classified as "C" and including legal or clinical findings including certain personality tests and unevaluated reports of teachers, counselors, and others which are needed in ongoing investigations and disciplinary or counseling actions should be reviewed at least once a year and destroyed as soon as their usefulness is terminated. Such materials may be transferred to Category "B" upon the fulfilling of two conditions:

- (1) the continuing usefulness of the data is clearly strated;
- (2) the validity of the information is verified.

Parents should be notified of the continuing existence of such data and given the opportunity to challenge the decision to maintain such information.

In response to the question of who owns the records, Shah(1970, p. 161) states that the client legally has the right to obtain the test responses and test protocols, such as the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale blank or the Rorschach protocol; and interview statements. The psychologist owns the pertinent notes, comments, and analyses that he has made regarding the test data or therapy protocol. The psycholo-

gist can withhold technical information such as test profiles and analyses from persons not qualified to interpret such data. The basis for withholding technical information lies in the fact that they are not the client's communications to psychologists, but are technical analyses and inferences made from the psychologist's professional training on the client's communications.

Even where protected by privileged communication laws, the psychologist is obliged to disclose test information and records to a child's parents or to the school authorities who serve in loco parentis. Parents acting on behalf of a minor child, in fact, represent the child and cannot be considered third parties; consequently, privileged communication does not refer to them. Thorne (1961, p. 211) does not feel that the theoretical distinction of the child as an extension of the parent so that the parent is in effect the client relates to the real crux of the matter. The important aspect is the protection of the private and confidential nature of communications concerning any client whether of age or a minor. "Such private and confidential information should be protected and communicated only to other professionals who are committed ethically to use it properly. Just because a person happens biologically to be a parent is no guarantee that he will use confidential information wisely, and in fact great damage might be done by the indiscriminate dissemination of information to the small group of parents who are so unhealthy themselves as to be traumatic influences in the situation."

The Van Allen Vs. McCleary case in the Queens County Supreme Court of New York upheld Van Allen's right to inspect his child's school record. The sequence of court rulings and decisions following in recent years entitling parents to inspect the records of their child maintained by school authorities is considered a threat of possible misuse and mis-

interpretation of
counselors. A po
will water down
that they might b
of reports will b
child's permanent
staff who work wi
about a child tha
and not generally
sidered a part of
ectly available t
tation and consul
1963, Ch. 16).

Privileged c
dential relations
privilege will va
the individual sh
the offices of a
legal or governme
legal provisions
of records to sch

In regard to
(1970, p.16) spea
mena, but also th
and institutions
protection of and
the results may e

of psychological reports of school psychologists and possible effect of this threat is that psychologists reports and be noncommittal when there is suspicion be wrongly used. These nonconsequential formalities be of help to no one. Trachtman recommends that the nt record that is available to all members of the school with him also be available to parents. Information hat is confidential, temporary, or technical in nature, ly available to all staff members, is not to be con- of the school record. Such information, while not dir- to parents, should be used as the basis for interpre- ultation with parents by qualified personnel (Trachtman,

ommunication refers to the protection of the confi- nship between client and professional. As the status of vary with the profession, the state and even the setting, should take the trouble to define his own status through a local or state professional association or through mental channels. Very few states have clear definitive s granting privileged communication and the confidentiality chool psychologists.

to the use of tests for experimental research, Tillery eaks of the "right of the scientist to study human pheno- the responsibility to seek the cooperation of individuals s in a manner which respects the right of privacy and the nonymity." The demands on the investigator are high; but enhance the quality and value of social research.

Hoch (1967, p.18) in describing the efforts of the University of Michigan to come to grips with the complex ethical issue of invasion of privacy that faces us in carrying out research involving human subjects, says, "one might approach the problem of scientists' rights and responsibilities in the manner of scientists. What is viewed in the press as a miscarriage of science (namely, the 'abuse' of human subjects) could be viewed in the profession as a problem for research in its own right."

Brim (1967, p.31) in talking about tester manipulation of subjects in experimental research in the behavioral sciences, specifically states, "The fact is that we must be subject to the democratic process in the same way as our Congressmen and Cabinet members." Accordingly, researchers can only act within the bounds given them by the consent of the governed (subjects).

Regardless of the purposes of the testing, the protection of privacy involves two concepts: relevance and informed consent. The information the examinee is asked to reveal must be relevant to the stated purposes of the testing. As to the concept of informed consent, the examinee should be thoroughly informed about the purpose of testing, the kinds of data sought, and the use that will be made of his scores (Anastasi, 1968, Ch. 18).

The criticism of invasion of privacy has been aimed at personality tests which are used in nonclinical settings such as in schools, in employment, and in civil and military government service. Not because of the question of whether the school has the right to give such tests, for students reveal themselves in many ways, but because the schools

do not have sufficient
ity testing of studen
mend the routine pers
psychologists, with p
tests in the study of
is consistent with cl
tests in government a
should have some voic
use personality tests
such tests more blind

Like the problem
presents a number of
confidentiality of te
aspect of the confide
act in good faith to
dents who are in his
Ethical Standards of
of test records be sa
information, there ar
third party must have
tion and should recei
Second, test informat
sent of the examinee

A criticism asse
and the culturally di
maximum performance i
free" test, there are

sonnel trained in the handling of personal-sults, Lyman (1971, Ch. 11) does not recom-ty testing of students. However, school training, should be allowed to use such vidual children. This kind of application l use. On the question of using personality ivate employment, he states that employers the selection of their employees and might timately. However, many it is certain, use an wisely.

rivacy, the communication of test results ex problems. One problem pertains to the cords. Voltz (1964) describes the legal relationship as requiring the counselor to ve and protect the best interests of the stu-e. Professional ethics, as set up in the ologists, require that the confidentiality rded. Relative to who is entitled to test conditions which must be met. First, the gitimate and genuine need for the informa-ly that information which is pertinent. hould be released only with the prior con-tasi, 1968, Ch. 21).

hat tests are unfair to Blacks, minorities, ntaged. This is true to some extent of all

While there is no such thing as a "culture tests on which items are less "culturally

loaded" than others. One difficulty in eliminating culturally biased items is that the cultural differentials that impair an individual's test performance are likely to handicap him in schoolwork, job performance, or any other activity we are trying to predict. Tests should reveal cultural deprivation so appropriate remedial steps can be taken. There has been some research indicating that a given test may predict differently for different socio-economic groups. The most frequent misuse regarding tests with minority group members stem from misinterpretation of scores. It is essential that we investigate the why of low scores obtained by culturally deprived persons (Lyman, 1971, Ch. 11).

Psychological tests should be regarded as tools, with their effectiveness dependent upon the skills, knowledge, and integrity of the user. They are human tools designed for human purposes. In the hands of those who understand them, psychological tests can aid in educating children, treating patients, and solving social problems. Few would claim that all important characteristics can be assessed with present instruments. The fact that our concepts are not yet definitive nor our measures completely adequate does not mean that tests should be avoided. Tests, like all tools of man, can be misused. There are those who forget; or do not understand and feel that once the results of measurement of behavioral characteristics are reported, one's destiny is determined. The problem is one of education and restriction of the use of psychological measurements to those who understand tests and who will use them in a way that is beneficial rather than harmful to those concerned.

Gray (1963), p.370) cites Wiskoff's study of divided loyalties in which a sample of psychologists exhibited wide variation in interpretation of "clear and imminent danger" and consequently suggests that each psychological subspecialty instruct its students in issues involving divided loyalties. Ethical considerations should be pointed out and emphasized in graduate training as they carry over into actual practice. With the student made aware of his ethical responsibilities, he will be able to clarify his ethical position before conflicting situations arise. He must make his ethical decision before action must be taken. He should educate the school personnel he will work with as to the necessity of privileged communication and confidentiality for his effectiveness. If the school psychologist is to function in a truly professional manner, his judgment must be respected.

Bibliography

- American Psychological Association. Ethical standards of psychologists. In Fred D. Holt and Richard H. Kiclighter (Eds.) Psychological Services in the Schools. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1971.
- Anastasi, Anne. Psychological testing. (3rd ed.) London: The Macmillan Company, 1968.
- Brim, Orville G., Jr. Reaction to the papers. Journal of Educational Measurement, 1967, 4(1), 29-31.
- Ebel, Robert L. The social consequences of educational testing. Proceedings of Invitational Conference on Testing Problems, Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1961.
- Gray, Susan W. The psychologist in the schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1963.
- Hoch, Erasmus L. The privacy issue and a professional response at the departmental level. Journal of Educational Measurement, 1967, 4(1), 17-22.
- Lyman, Howard B. Test scores and what they mean. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1971.
- Miller, Arthur R. The assault on privacy. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan, 1971.
- Russell Sage Foundation. Guidelines for the collection, maintenance and dissemination of pupil records. Report of a conference on the ethical and legal aspects of school record-keeping, Sterling Forest, N.Y., May 25-28, 1969.
- Shah, Saleem A. Privileged communications, confidentiality, and privacy: Privileged communications. Professional Psychology, 1969, 1(1), 56-59.
- Shah, Saleem A. Privileged communications, confidentiality, and privacy: Confidentiality. Professional Psychology, 1970, 1(2), 159-164.
- Thorne, Frederick C. The privileged nature of psychological records. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1961, 17(2), 211-212.
- Trachtman, Gilbert M. The school psychologist and confidentiality of school records. In Monroe G. Gottsegen and Gloria B. Gottsegen (Eds.) Professional School Psychology. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1963.

TECHNIQUES TO IMPROVE CLASSROOM

CONTROL AND INSTRUCTION

Kyle R. Carter

University of Georgia

ED 075474

TM 002 552

As a school psychologist, my major interests lie in the improvement of the instructional setting so that teachers can perform their assigned responsibility: teaching. Teachers complain that they are unable to instruct as effectively as they would like because of discipline problems. What they do not realize is that they are usually the catalyst for behavior problems. Let me explain. Children initially come to school eagerly anticipating the new situation. Almost anything a teacher does with the child is both fun and stimulating. It takes very little on the teacher's part to encourage enthusiasm from children entering kindergarten or elementary school. In later grades, and in these initial exposures to instruction to a lesser extent, a strange metamorphosis takes place in many of the children. They begin to dislike school and learning ceases to be fun. What has happened?

Although the answer to this question is certainly complex, a general answer can be given to account for the change. The enthusiasm that once existed in the children has been extinguished by either the school setting (influenced greatly by the teacher) or the home environment. As a school psychologist, it is my job to insure that the school setting is as conducive to learning as possible, stimulating children to respond to instruction and discouraging misbehavior which serves to avoid instruction.

Many teachers do not realize the full implications of their actions and verbalizations. It is my responsibility to educate these

people on the impact that their behavior has on children. Some teachers have been exposed to the term contingency management which has been advocated as a disciplinary measure or a means of controlling behavior. Most teachers do not realize that the principles encompassed by this approach can be used to obtain better learning on the part of their students.

In order to shape behavior, one must have the subject emitting some behavior. In the case of the teacher shaping new behaviors (learning) in his children, learning behavior must occur and be reinforced. Studies have shown, to the chagrin of educators, that the amount of actual learning behavior emitted by students is relatively small when compared to the verbalizations of the teacher. While the teacher talks and demonstrates, students must sit passively and vicariously experience what is being taught. Many students find this type of teaching distasteful and may misbehave because they find that this "teaching" can be terminated by their behavior. However, teachers never look at misbehavior as a signal that they are not reaching the child. Instead, they administer some form of punishment and continue with their method.

Although ideally I believe that misbehavior can be eliminated through new instructional programs, no program will be so perfect that a child who has previously learned to dislike school will enter and not test the new situation. Therefore, a teacher must know what forms of control are at her disposal and how to use them.

This now leads us to two questions which are most pertinent to fostering and maintaining good classroom instruction: 1) What type of instructional techniques should be employed in the classroom?

2) What type of controlling methods are most effective in obtaining appropriate behavior? The last question will be dealt with first.

Punishment (application of an aversive stimulus after the behavior has been emitted) has been the traditional tool used by teachers to establish discipline. However, discipline still remains one of the most pressing problems in education today. This trend should be expected by the effects that punishment has on behavior change: inappropriate behavior is quickly removed, however it is not erased but is suppressed and occurs soon after the threat of the aversive stimulus is removed.

A better method to employ is extinction, commonly known as ignoring. This method promotes long lasting appropriate behavior. However, there are some drawbacks from this approach as well. For example, many responses may occur before the behavior is extinguished. Also, ignoring the behavior may be impossible as with destructive behavior.

When behavior cannot be ignored, two alternatives are available. The first is punishment. Since this merely suppresses the behavior, it is important to reinforce some appropriate behavior while the inappropriate behavior is suppressed. In this way appropriate behavior is shaped to displace the inappropriate behavior which is suppressed. This is the only proper and effective use of punishment.

The other alternative is called time-out. This procedure should be employed immediately at the onset of the misbehavior. The time-out procedure removes the child (physically) from the situation and places him in an environment which is free from all stimuli that would reinforce inappropriate behavior. The method is effective and is long lasting.

The most preferable form of controlling behavior is by reinforcing good behavior: "catch the child being good". This procedure recognizes and encourages good behavior instead of taking it for granted.

Now let us look at what instructional techniques should be used in the classroom. It is my opinion that children misbehave in order to escape an intolerable situation or to obtain the attention of the teacher or classmates. Regardless of the cause, the fact remains that the instructional setting is not as reinforcing to him as either the escape behavior or the disruption he causes in the class. Therefore, learning must be made to be more reinforcing than misbehaving is to some students.

It has been shown that students learn at different rates as well as by different techniques. However, the way a classroom is conducted presently, allows very little individuality. In addition, it has been shown that students' interest is maintained longer and students learn better by active participation in the learning experience. Once again, the classroom offers little active participation in the learning experience. Also, it has been shown that students receive very little reinforcement for good behavior or for academic achievement. It is no wonder then that the teacher finds discipline her number one problem. It is my contention that most behavior problems could be eliminated and instruction enhanced if the classroom was designed to mediate instruction with the student learning characteristics mentioned above.

Instruction should be made so that children are actively involved. Learning increases with the number of senses used in the

perception of new material. Usual classroom procedures employ at the most two senses sight and sound, and these vicariously: the student sits in his seat and watches the teacher write on the chalkboard and listens to the lecture. A much more effective method would utilize active participation. Students would do the writing and talking, and when the instruction concerns something concrete, students would inspect the object incorporating as many senses as possible. Students could help teach one another by discussing and questioning with one another. The teacher would serve as a guide through the learning experience deciding what is to be learned and by providing the materials and structure. The actual teaching should be left up to the student whenever possible. Using this technique children would be allowed to learn at their own rate and in their own way.

The teacher should serve as a motivator, not by threat but by encouragement and recognition of achievement. He should always be ready to reinforce the behaviors that are encouraged by active participation. A reinforcement schedule should be determined for each child since some children work effectively for long periods with occasional reinforcements. Others require more frequent rewards to maintain their behavior. Also, each individual child must be evaluated to find what reinforces his behavior the best. Children have different preferences and what is rewarding to one may not be reinforcing to another.

If instruction is designed to accommodate individual differences, in methods of learning (including rate of learning as well), active participation, and individualized reinforcement, children will learn more efficiently and will remain enthusiastic. As a consequence behavior problems will decrease and education will be

free to educate instead of deal with discipline problems.

REFERENCES

Bostow, D. D. and Bailey, J. B. Modification of severe disruptive and aggressive behavior using brief timeout and reinforcement procedures. Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 1969, 31-37.

Franks, C. M. and Susskind, D. J. Behavior modification with children: rationale and technique. Journal of School Psychology, 1968, 75-88.

Postlethwait, S. N., Novak, J., & Murry, H. T. Jr. The audio-tutorial approach to learning, through independent study and integrated experiences. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Co., 1969.

ED 075475

Behavior Modification: An Issue for the Teacher?

LaRetta M. Garland

University of Georgia

While one segment of science forged ahead in the physical and biological fields, man has continued to condone, support, and even revere the traditional philosophies and psychologies of human behavior. Whereas the physical and biological scientists have moved with a sense of direction from earlier concepts of animism, an "awesome reverence of the unknowable," and the "nature of living things" . . . to a precision which enabled exploration of outerspace, those professions concerned with human learning problems have tended to favor the formulation of extensive frameworks to preserve their pseudoscientific hypotheses of the origins of human behavior, deviant and prosocial.

Skinner has challenged those confronted with problems of man in the present to consider a technology of behavior based upon a science of behavior comparable to the science-technology of physics and biology. These fields moved to a study of cause and effect as it existed in nature, and could be reproduced in the laboratory. In diverse studies, replicated, the significance of natural selection in the environment was observed. Because of traditional theory and practice, a humanism which deified freedom and dignity (however necessary in earlier periods in the development of civilization) achieved a prominence which overshadowed considerations of the environmental influences of human behavior. A modicum of recognition was given to environmental stimulation, but its influences consisted mainly of references to the fact that man interacts with the environment, and the testing of significant hypotheses has been neglected (Skinner: 1964, 1966, 1971).

TM 002 553

Bandura and Skinner have reminded students of behavior that the traditional explanations of behavior and behavior change were dependent upon the models of causality espoused by the proponents. If animism, human nature, inner feelings, traits, conflicts, and complexes produced the behavior of man, acceptable and nonacceptable, then those have to be modified by time consuming and expensive depth psychologic (or psychiatric) methods designed to probe man's inner mental and emotional states. The personality will be the focus of the change agent, rather than the environmental contingencies which have been demonstrated in the science laboratory and in vivo as being both the producer and maintainer of human behavior with the exception of genetic influences (Bandura: 1969; Skinner: 1971).

If the basis for behavior development and change rests within the environment, an understanding and use of the methods of control by change agents in the culture have the potential for the production of prosocial behavior desired by the culture; as well as behavior deemed necessary for future positive increments in human welfare states. Teachers would be considered significant change agents in this schema.

Learned behavior has been demonstrated to be " . . . dependent upon the environment wherein certain kinds of events function as reinforcers, and when such an event follows a response, similar responses are more likely to occur" (Skinner: 1966). Skinner implies that this principle does not restrict modifiable behavior to that of a lower order of response. Reinforcers must be capable of reinforcing in a given situation; this requirement considers the variances between the species, groups, and individuals. The psychological processes of extinction, discrimination, generalization, and the performances/gen-

erated by different reinforcement schedules tend to be similar throughout laboratory experimentation (Skinner: 1966).

The fears often expressed that utilization of this learning theory information will produce "mechanical men" seem to be as weighty as those critics of genetic selection propose. The social environment and genetic endowment are so varied and offer so many possibilities for reinforcement, planned and unplanned, and for natural extinction, that the idea of the "common mold" should hold little threat. If one admits that man conforms under what is presently known as freedom, could he not conform with schedules of reinforcement designed to alleviate many of his social ills and to increase his well-being? Sidman reminds the critics of the concept of control that coercion is and has been the standard technique of control in this society, in fact, in much of the world. Punishment, or the threat of it, exercises control in law, education, diplomacy, child-rearing, interpersonal and international relationships. With this form of control, one has the component of anxiety in detrimental proportions. Sidman supports Skinner's view that behavior produced by coercive methods can be duplicated by positive control techniques which will reduce or eliminate anxieties, as well as reduce man's needs to utilize counter-control (Sidman: 1964).

Bandura identifies three regulatory systems through which both deviant and prosocial behaviors are acquired and maintained. These are:

1. response patterns under external stimulus control.

Both autonomic responsiveness and instrumental behavior can be regulated by environmental stimuli through association with contingencies of reinforce-

ment.

- 2. response feed-back processes in the form of reinforcing consequences. Behavior can be eliminated and reinstated by varying the immediate consequences.
- 3. central mediational processes which act as regulatory mechanisms. Guides in the form of rules and strategies derived from inputs of stimuli, and tentative hypotheses about the principles governing the incidence of rewards and punishments, are developed and tested on the basis of outcomes of actions.

According to Bandura, man is not internally impelled nor passively reactive to external stimulation in this framework. His psychological functioning involves a reciprocal interaction between the behavior and its controlling environment, i.e., the behavior exhibited partially determines the external contingencies, which, in turn, influence the behavior (Bandura: 1969). Sidman cites the development and use of programmed instruction in the educational process as an example of positive reinforcement; it is also an example which would express the schema of Bandura as described above (Sidman: 1964).

Schoenfield states that conditioning theory does not have an interest in a declaration "that man is partly free and partly controlled, or is entirely one or the other." It seeks to clarify the sense of these categories which may disappear when their sense is clear. He proposes that inquiry into the conditions of human living and thinking be explored. He explains that because man is a social creature, born into and lives his life in a social environment, that environment is the source, arena, and target for his behavior. The

subsequent interactions are of the same processes of behavior modification as in conditioning theory. He contends that "behavioral science chooses to believe that whether the two aspects of man's functioning (free versus controlled) are to be in opposition is for society to say by formulating its behavioral standards suitable and then raising individuals to meet them." When considering the question, Is man free? . . . Schoenfield explains that man has never been free of controls; controls in the social environment which sanction or disapprove of his behavior. He concludes that man's dignity comes from the sociality of his living; not from any mystery within the individual (Schoenfield: 1969).

Skinner attacked the problem of control by identification of several issues in the shift to acceptance of a psychology based on the hypothesis that behavior development occurs and is maintained in the environment with the exception of certain genetic aspects, therefore is modifiable therein. These issues are freedom, dignity, and values which ultimately raise questions of control. The traditionalist has viewed man as autonomous, therefore he possesses freedom because his behavior is "uncaused;" he is responsible for his action whether good or evil. If man is responsible for his behavior, he has dignity according to his exercise of control; and this control is in accordance with his own set of values. If the environment is examined as it shapes and maintains behavior; inner traits, feeling states, and the aspects of mind will not be held responsible for man's actions (Skinner: 1971). Accessible environmental conditions with their probability for prediction and positive direction will be the focus of those responsible for human behavior with this

scientific technology. In part, this answers and confounds the question of "Who controls?"

Of significance is the implication that man is both the controller and the controlled. Skinner denies the inconsistency of this because the designer of a new culture or component controls as well as responds as a product of the culture. The individual controls himself through his manipulation of the culture. Man has been exercising the ultimate forms of control as he altered his genetic states through selective breeding patterns, for example (Skinner: 1971).

It seems that the crucial issue of control arose with a new vigor at this period because of the demonstrated impact of scientific methods in the direction of behavior, and the pressing need for more predictable outcomes of learning in a progressively complex society. Limited time, personnel, and expensive outcomes of traditional methods of behavior control failed to meet the current problems of man. If the components of the environment which shape man in a random fashion can be utilized to modify him in a scientific fashion, the quality of life for the individual and for his society may be enhanced. Teachers and others utilizing learning theory will view the environment in new ways in the educative process, instead of casting blame or favor on the inner personality of the learner. The scientific approaches should make the choices for learning material more realistic, identifiable, measurable, and the outcomes of learning more measurable and predictable.

Major Resources

1. Bandura, Albert. Principles of Behavior Modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969, p. 677.
2. Schoenfield, W. N. "Humanism and the Science of Behavior." Conditional Reflex, 1969, 4, pp. 139-144.
3. Sidman, Murray. "Anxiety." Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, 1964, 108, pp. 478-481.
4. Skinner, B. F. Beyond Freedom and Dignity. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1971, p. 225.
5. Skinner, B. F. "Man." Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, 1964, 108, pp. 482-485.
6. Skinner, B. F. "The Phylogeny and Ontogeny of Behavior." Science, 1966, 153, pp. 1205-1213.

BEYOND FREEDOM AND DIGNITY

George W. Rogers

University of Georgia

I have not been able to disseminate in class as much information as I would have liked to regarding B. F. Skinner's new book, Beyond Freedom and Dignity, however, there does seem to be a general knowledge-ability among the class concerning Skinner's basic thinking and proposals. I would, however, like to further elaborate on this publication and hopefully clarify some of his points.

Skinner indicates that it is hard to imagine a world without quarreling; a world filled with people producing the food, shelter, and clothing they need, enjoying themselves, contributing to the enjoyment of others, consuming only a reasonable part of the world's resources, and adding little to pollution. A world no longer plagued with over-population, where people will find better ways to deal with their environment, and where they will come to know themselves and their environment comprehensively and accurately. But Skinner believes that all of this is possible, and that we have not yet seen what man can make of man.

Considering the serious world-wide difficulties, problems, and inconsistencies which affect all of us individually, nationally, and globally, Skinner's propositions sound quite refreshing, but when he explains that in order for us to reach this higher order living arrangement, we must destroy our pretensions concerning the freedom and dignity of man, then Skinner's propositions, to many people, sound threatening.

ED 075476

TM 002 354

Skinner believes, based upon his experimental findings, that each man and woman is a unique bundle of behaviors determined by his environment and that environmental conditioning shapes each of us. He explains that man must now take total control of his evolution by consciously designing his entire culture so that it will shape the behavior needed for survival. However, our pervasive belief in autonomous man, the idea that in each of us there is a mentalistic being -- an ego, personality, anima, spirit, character, soul, or mind -- that is somehow free, prevents this to transpire.

Professor Skinner indicates that our present approach to behavior is basically prescientific, that is, we attribute events to invisible forces. Behavior is thought of as being superficial to the real drama going on in the depths of the mind. Skinner states that we need a technology of behavior. We must stop wasting our time reading such people as Plato -- because this will not help us throw light on human behavior and will only foster our thinking concerning "Autonomous Man." We must stop attributing human behavior to indwelling agents and begin to develop a behavioral technology comparable in power and precision to physical and biological technology.

The major reason, he asserts, that we have not come to the realization of the importance of the environment is that environment has been thought of as a passive setting. It does not push or pull, rather, it selects. We can see what man does to his environment, however, it is harder to see what it does to him. When John Watson and Ivan P. Pavlov developed S-R thinking, it did not solve the problem of understanding behavior, so an inner man (S-O-R) was invented to convert a "S" into a "R". It is now clear that the environment also affects be-

havior after it occurs; in other words, behavior is shaped and maintained by its consequences.

Fields such as: medicine, psychotherapy, education, economics, religion, etc., foster the concept of "Autonomous Man" as an important figure, and consider that "Autonomous Man" is free and responsible for his behavior. Therefore, we may be justly blamed or punished when we behave badly, and, also, we may be given credit and admired for our achievements. Skinner states that, "as behavior is analyzed, the achievements for which a person himself should be given credit seems to approach zero. There is no point in commending a person for what he is going to do anyway." He further asserts that a scientific analysis shifts the credit as well as the blame to the environment, and man then becomes predictable.

The Literature of Freedom and Dignity

Skinner believes that most of us are living under the myth of "Freedom and Dignity" which has been generated and nurtured through our readings of freedom-oriented literature. This literature proclaims that all controls are wrong and that those who attempt to control or deprive us of dignity should be attacked or avoided. Philosophers insist that we should overthrow tyrants and question governments; the end result is a better condition -- freedom. Freedom and dignity literature wants us to generalize that those who want to manipulate behavior are evil men, bent on exploitation.

However, Skinner argues that when the control is not so obvious (and we are certainly under many controls), man does not protest, but when the control is obvious and effective, we protest -- exclaiming

4

"propaganda", "brainwashing." He claims that his approach would only change the probability of actions. Critics argue that by changing behavior, beliefs, preferences, perceptions, attitudes, and opinions also change, but Skinner says that he would not change perception or opinions.

In the prescientific view, which is nurtured by Freedom and Dignity literature, a person is responsible for his behavior, however, in the scientific, Skinnerian, viewpoint, a person's behavior is determined by a genetic endowment traceable to the evolutionary history of the species and by the environmental circumstances to which, as an individual, he has been exposed. Skinner asserts that a technology of behavior is available that would more successfully reduce the aversive consequences of behavior, immediate or deferred, and maximize the achievements of which the human organism is capable, but the defenders of freedom and dignity oppose its use.

Application of Behavioral Technology to the Culture

B. F. Skinner states basically that our culture is destroying itself, and he then questions "if we are the master species, why can't we develop the master culture." When the contingencies of survival change, a culture like a species, may need to change. Instead of maintaining our cultural practices, we must be thinking in terms of what is best for the culture. A culture that for any reason induces its members to work for its survival is more likely to survive. It is a matter of the good of the culture, not of the individual. Explicit design promotes that good by accelerating the evolutionary process, and since a science and a technology of behavior make for better design, they are important mutations in the evolution of a culture. The

direction or purpose of this evolution should be to bring people under the control of mor. of the consequences of their behavior.

By no means does Skinner believe that cultural permissiveness would be an ideal situation; he states that weak control only allows another form of control — ethics, religion, patriotism, or loyalty. Skinner indicates that a culture is a set of contingencies, and we must identify the behavior to be modified and redesign the contingencies. For him, designing a culture is like designing an experiment; we arrange contingencies and note effects. He further warns that we have the science and technology of behavior, which is in fact much more advanced than its critics realize, we need to save ourselves. He confidently remarks that life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness have little bearing on the survival of a culture.

Two arguments which are brought up against Skinner's thinking are: (1) who controls, and (2) will we have a standardized pattern for people. Professor Skinner indicates that effective counter control must be instigated; so, the controller should be a member of the group he controls. Also, he recognizes the need and/or importance of variety; so, contingencies will be modified in order that there might be planned diversification.

Finally, the author notes that we probably cannot now design a successful culture as a whole; however, a failure is not always a mistake; it may be simply the best one can do in the circumstances. But, Skinner warns that the real mistake is to stop trying.

Discussion

This book has proven to be, if not one of importance, at least one of controversy, seemingly threatening even the Vice-President of this country. Skinner should, I believe, be admired for his attempt

to point out our societal inadequacies and mispractices; it is a very noble gesture. No one can deny that Professor Skinner has been one of the "Greats" in the field of Psychology, and many of his experimentally supported principles are used daily in the form of behavior modification. However, after a perusal of his book, one begins to wonder if this man wishes to help a decaying society or secure an important place for himself in our history. Undoubtedly, behavior modification or the use of operant therapy techniques can be used effectively and should be a part of the psychological practitioner's repertoire of therapeutic techniques; however, should we redesign our culture with Skinnerian principles. The literature concerning behavior modification over the past ten years does not seem to depict this method as being representative of any panacean modality or to be of the high order or advancement of which Skinner writes. Skinner makes his claims with much too much finality, when in reality, such a final status does not exist.

Beyond Freedom and Dignity is a book, which makes one think, which makes one aware of many of our cultural inadequacies; for this, it is excellent. Perhaps some of Skinner's proposals should be tried; however, as a compass for our "societal sail into the future", its value, in total, needs to be closely scrutinized and questioned.

Three Relevant References

Franks, C. M. (Ed.) Behavior therapy/appraisal and status. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969.

Meacham, M. L. & Wiesen, A. E. Changing classroom behavior: a manual for precision teaching. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook company, 1969.

Ullmann, L. P. & Krasner, L. Case studies in behavior modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.

FREEDOM AS A RESULT OF CONTROL?

R. Hal Shigley

University of Georgia

It is imperative that there be a communication line between the psychological laboratory and the school classroom. The time has arrived when the public is no longer willing to foot the bill for research just for research's sake. There must start to be some practical application emerge from the volumes and volumes of laboratory research. Some of the results obtained from the operant conditioning literature has begun to fill this void. We are starting to discover and perfect the tools needed to help the first grade teacher with thirty screaming kids, or the special education teacher who must try to teach mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed children. It is not uncommon to find the teacher who reports that over half of her time and efforts are spent on discipline and behavior control problems. We must solve these problems before we can even consider such educational problems as curriculum development.

The classroom teacher should be not only familiar with, but proficient in the use of the operant conditioning principles of positive reinforcement and extinction. She should know that she is capable of increasing the frequency of desirable behavior in her children by rewarding them at the proper times and in the proper way (positive reinforcement). Undesirable or inappropriate behaviors may be eliminated (extinguished) by non-reinforcement in conjunction with the reinforcement of incompatible behaviors.

The following is a brief outline of one possible approach to modifying classroom behavior:

ED 075477

TM 002 55

- 1) The exact target problem should be specified in terms of observable and measurable behaviors.
- 2) The target behavior should be defined in terms of inappropriate behavior or behavioral deficit.
- 3) Baseline levels of the problem behavior should be measured.
- 4) Effective reinforcers should be determined.
- 5) Inappropriate behaviors should be ignored (placed on extinction) and behavior that is incompatible with the inappropriate behavior should be positively reinforced, (i.e. sitting in a desk quietly is incompatible with running around and screaming.)
- 6) Certain behaviors should be reinforced to take the place of behavioral deficits, (i.e., reading skills in place of non-reading.)
- 7) Care should be taken to begin with small increments of behavior to reinforce. Gradually, requirements should be increased before reinforcement is given, but only at a rate compatible with the child's performance. It is unrealistic to require that a child sit quietly in his seat for one hour in order to be reinforced if the baseline shows the average length of time in his seat is 5 minutes.
- 8) Extrinsic or "artificial" reinforcers should be phased out when conditions permit so that the child can learn to work for the types of rewards that will exist in his or her normal environment.

But what about the use of control on a larger scale?

Mr. A: "What would you do if you found yourself in possession of an effective science of behavior?"

Mr. B: "What would I do? I think I would dump your science

- of behavior in the ocean."
- Mr. A.: "And deny men all the help you could otherwise give them."
- Mr. B.: "And give them the freedom they would otherwise lose forever."
- Mr. A.: "How could you give them freedom?"
- Mr. B.: "By refusing to control them."
- Mr. A.: "But you would only leave the control in other hands."
- Mr. B.: "Whose?"
- Mr. A.: "The charlatan, the demagogue, the salesman, the ward-heeler, the bully, the cheat, the educator, the priest-- all who are now in possession of the techniques of behavioral engineering."

This dialogue from Walden Two could just as easily have been spoken today in Athens, Georgia, or wherever men are worried and threatened by the idea of control of human behavior, and other men are excited about the potential of mankind as a result of that control.

Any group of people could secure economic self-sufficiency with the help of modern technology, and the psychological problems of group living could be solved with available principles of behavior modification. Modern psychology has given us the knowledge and the skills for controlling human behavior. So, what is the problem? We've utilized the knowledge given to us from chemistry, physics, astronomy and mathematics. Why not psychology? Why not the science of human behavior? The reason is that we are afraid. We're afraid of being controlled; afraid of not being in command of our own destiny. The fact, whether we want to admit it or not, is that we are not now free from the control of others. We go to work at 8:00, we take one hour for lunch, we get two weeks per year for vacation, we stop at traffic lights or pay fines, we pay sales tax and income tax, we're drafted, ad infinitum. We must not kid ourselves into believing that we are free. Some kind of control of human behavior is inevitable. The greatest danger exists in continuing to pretend that human behavior is not controlled. Since we

are all products of environmental influences, we should be actively engaged in determining the nature of that environment.

But, don't we necessarily rob a person of his individuality and freedom by controlling his behavior? Well, let's see. If we modify a disturbed child's behavior so that he is sitting in his desk learning instead of running around hitting other children, he has admittedly lost a certain freedom. He has, however, gained a more important freedom by acquiring the ability to read, make wise decisions, and choose correct behaviors for himself in the future. If we arrange environmental contingencies so that the ghetto child now would rather go to school, play with newly acquired friends, and consider learning more important than being "tough", aren't we tampering with his freedom of choice? Yes, I suppose we are. But, won't we have excessive uniformity accompanying effective control? If that uniformity takes the form of excellence in all people, would it be bad?

A more efficient society that could be the result of control and planning, would mean better education, less wasted work, more meaningful leisure, in short better life. People would do what they wanted to do, not what they were forced to do. That's the source of tremendous power of positive reinforcement; there's no restraint and no revolt. By a careful cultural design, it would be possible to control not the final behavior, but the inclination to behave--the motives, desires, and wishes. Behavior would be determined, yet people would be free. It is not control that's lacking when one feels "free", but the objectionable control of force.

References

Reese, Ellen P. The Analysis of Human Operant Behavior. Iowa: Wm.

C. Brown Company Publishers, 1966.

Skinner, B. F. Walden Two. New York: Macmillan, 1948.

Skinner, B. F. Beyond Freedom and Dignity. New York: Knopf, 1971.

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH ON TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS
AND THE RELEVANCY OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Chad D. Ellett

University of Georgia

ED 075478

Teacher education has as its primary purpose the preparation of good teachers. This simple statement incorporates some of the most complex research problems in the field of education. Consider just one facet of the problem: How do you decide what criteria should be used to judge effective teaching? Considerable difficulties are inherent in attempts to evaluate teacher education by establishing some criteria for "good" teaching. As in most other areas of research, one of the major problems in teacher effectiveness has been the definition of a criterion. As Levin (1954) points out, this involves a value judgment: it is a question for which there is no answer to be found through research. The extensive research conducted in hopes of determining teacher effectiveness has not been very illuminating. The completed research of hundreds of teacher effectiveness studies has not altered the position that teacher effectiveness is related to personality in some way.

56

The desirability of an objective and reliable measure and predictor of teacher effectiveness hardly needs any elaboration within the field of educational research. Despite the mass of research conducted to date, there is hardly any conclusive evidence as to the nature and means of identifying teacher competence. Broadly speaking, the various types of teacher effectiveness and competence evaluations can be divided into the following categories: (Ackerman, 1954).

- T. 00
- 1) studies based on the expert opinion and consensus of judges as to the characteristics and prerequisites of competency and efficiency.

- 2) studies using school grades, practice teaching grades and ratings of student teaching as the criteria of teaching efficiency
- 3) studies using supervisory in-service ratings, self-ratings and ratings by fellow teachers as the criteria for teacher competence
- 4) studies using pupil opinion and reaction as the criteria of teacher effectiveness
- 5) studies using measured pupil change as the criteria of teacher competence

It is generally assumed that the ultimate criterion of teacher effectiveness is change in pupil behavior (Mitzel, 1960). Even where other criteria have been used it is agreed that they are only proximate measures of the ultimate goal of pupil change. Whatever the criterion used in traditional teacher effectiveness research, the determination of teacher effectiveness seeks to answer the basic question: "Do pupils behave differently from what they would have if the influence of a particular teacher had not been felt?" (Ackerman, 1954).

A brief description of the attempts made to determine the relationship between teacher behavior and pupil change discloses the traditional researcher's concern with a number of variables. The initial steps are usually directed toward a systematic control and measurement of teacher factors that are thought to condition pupil change. Past investigators have usually devoted their attention to teacher attributes such as intelligence, values, attitudes, interests, age, training and experience, social relationships, aptitudes, personality characteristics, etc. Measurement of pupil change is usually arrived at by the application of pre- and post-test procedures utilizing standardized achievement tests, aptitude tests, pupil questionnaire, tests of factual information, or some combination of these. Few attempts have been traditionally made

to measure pupil change in terms of attitudes, interests, and other affective educational objectives. The final step in the research process is usually a study of the relationship between teacher factors and pupil change using various correlational procedures. Where significant relationships are reported, they are of little value in helping one understand the exact nature of teacher effects on pupils. Perhaps a brief summary of some of the past research findings will serve to familiarize the reader with methodological considerations, the traditional teacher variables studied, and the conflicting results often obtained. In each study cited, the criterion of teacher effectiveness is some measure of pupil change.

I. Age of the teacher

- A. Rolfe (1954) found no significant relationship between the age of the teacher and pupil change as measured by the administration of achievement tests before and after instruction in a three week unit in citizenship.
- B. Brookover (1945) found that pupil gains in information, as measured by an achievement test in U.S. history, increased with the age of the teacher up to the age of thirty-eight. After this they decrease. The greatest gains were made by pupils whose teachers ranged in age from twenty-seven to thirty-eight.

II. Attitude of the teacher towards teachers and teaching

- A. Rostker (1945) reported that the teacher's attitude towards teachers and the teaching profession, as measured by the Yeager Scale for Measuring Attitudes Towards Teachers and the Teaching Profession, is significantly related to pupil change as measured by scores on achievement tests.
- B. La Duke (1945) reported no significant relationship between pupil change on tests of social studies information and teacher's scores on the Yeager Scale.
- C. Gotham (1945) found no relationship between short and long terms pupil changes and the teacher's attitudes towards his work as measured by a battery

4

of personality tests. (Bernreuter Personality Inventory, Rudisill Scale for the Measurement of the Personality of Elementary School Teachers, Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory)

III. Training of teachers

- A. Hall (1964) found that teachers prepared in a professional teacher education curriculum were rated as more effective by administrators and other teachers and brought about more significant gains in pupil achievement than teachers lacking standard teacher training experiences.
- B. Gabrielle and Deignan (1968) found that teachers ing a professional education sequence indicated poorer understanding of individual differences and behavioral principles, as measured by the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, when compared to a control sample of non-teachers and MTAI norms.
- C. Davis (1934) reported that students of teachers who had not had specialized training in the subjects which they taught scored higher on subject matter achievement tests than did students of teachers who had received such training.

Against the background of research results on teacher competence and effectiveness one begins to question what the traditional teacher-education curriculum had to offer the prospective teacher, and whether the teacher education curriculum provides the prospective teacher with knowledge that can result in significant pupil change. Most teacher preparation sequences are decidedly means-oriented. They attempt to provide the prospective teacher with suggestions regarding what he might do in the classroom. The futility of the approach becomes apparent when one stops to assess the basis upon which the process suggestions are usually selected. Having little empirical or theoretical grounding (as is indicated by past research), most "desirable" teacher behaviors are rarely, if ever, demonstrated to be related to the major task of the teacher, bringing about learning in pupils and rather simply reflect someone's intuition regarding how teachers should act.

Over the past ten years the adequacy and efficiency of teacher preparation have been questioned repeatedly by articulate critics both within and outside the profession. Vitriolic criticisms leveled at the content and relevance of conditional curricula preparing American elementary and secondary teachers have, for the most part, gone unheeded. Sarason's (1962) contention that teachers are ill-prepared for the complexity of their task in guiding and stimulating children's learning is a case in point. He maintains that teachers will tend to handle children in the classroom in much the same way as they were treated in the course of their professional training.

Recently, in certain teacher education circles, an attempt has been underway to recognize the basis upon which teachers are trained. This attempt is characterized by the position that, other things being equal, a competent teacher is one who is skilled in changing his students' behavior in pre-specified directions. On sets of identical objectives one might expect the competent teacher to produce learning, e.g., higher post-test performance, more reliably than an incompetent teacher. Validation of a performance test strategy, in which teachers seek to bring about particular operational changes in their students' learning is currently being sought (Popham, 1965). Underlying the assumption that effective teaching is demonstrated through pupil change is the inclusion in many teacher training programs of models for the preparation of educational objectives (Bloom, 1956; Mager, 1962; Gagne, 1965; Beck, 1970).

Exposure to the preparation of educational objectives is currently being included in most courses in educational psychology at the under-

graduate level. This inclusion seems consistent with the observed increasing emphasis in educational psychology texts on learning and motivation and decreasing emphasis on human growth and development and personality since 1954. Educational psychology has traditionally been viewed as an important course in the sequence of teacher preparation by educators and psychologists alike. However, in keeping with some critics of professional education courses (Bestor, 1955) -- no educator or psychologist has yet been able to prove that exposure to educational psychology leads to better teaching. One would be indeed hard pressed in surveying relevant research literature to find one iota of evidence to contradict this assertion. Even the more obvious aspects of what teacher training programs and educational psychology are believed to offer prospective teachers, e.g., understanding individual differences, application of certain principles of learning in changing pupil behavior, have failed to find research support (Gabrielle and Deignan, 1968). Investigations of the attitudes expressed by students and teachers toward courses in educational psychology indicate that they see educational psychology as an invaluable contribution to their professional training (Harris, Kiefert, Darby, 1969). However, this does not indicate that exposure to educational psychology as a part of teacher education, has any effect on teacher behavior.

Any justification for the inclusion of educational psychology in a teacher preparation curriculum obviously rests on two fundamental premises: 1) that the nature of classroom learning and the factors influencing it can be reliably identified, and 2) that such knowledge can be both systematized and transmitted effectively to prospective

teachers (Ausubel, 1968). Perhaps a third premise might be added, 3) that exposure to educational psychology has some effect on teacher behavior in the classroom. Research evidence to date has not adequately supported any of the above premises. Educators and psychologists' definitions of educational psychology and their opinions concerning what it has to offer prospective teachers varies widely (see Watson, 1960 and Colardarci, 1956). With no common rationale for including educational psychology in a sequence of teacher preparation courses, and no demonstration of its effectiveness on teacher behavior, accomplishment of educational objectives and effective employment of psychological principles, one begins to seriously question the basis for its inclusion in prospective teacher curricula.

Most psychologists and educators would agree that psychological principles and research findings, particularly those derived from learning theory, have an important place in education. This becomes apparent to anyone who browses through a random sample of educational psychology texts. This same view is not supported by public school teachers ratings of the practicality, validity, and applicability of research findings to the classroom (Rumstein, 1971). One would infer from the practicing teacher's frame of reference that traditional psychological principles cannot be directly applied to the classroom without losing some of their validity. It would seem that much intervening research of an applied nature is necessary before theoretical principles of learning can be transformed into principles of "teaching." Psychology as a science has been criticized by B. F. Skinner (1968) for creating and perpetuating a large discrepancy between subject matter traditionally taught in educational psychology and its applicability to teaching and effect on teacher behavior.

...The beginning teacher receives no professional preparation. He usually begins to teach as he himself has been taught, and if he improves, it is only in the light of his own unaided experience. High-school and grade-school teaching is taught primarily through apprenticeships, in which students receive the advice and counsel of experienced teachers. Certain trade skills and rules of thumb are passed along, but the young teacher's own experience is to be the major source of improvement. . . Any special knowledge of pedagogy as a basic science of teaching is felt to be unnecessary. . .

... Pedagogy is not a prestigious word. Its low estimate may be traced in part to the fact that under blandishments of statistical methods, which promised a new kind of rigor, educational psychologists spent half a century measuring the results of teaching while neglecting teaching itself. They compared different methods of teaching itself. They compared different methods of teaching in matched groups and could often say that one method was clearly better than another, but the methods they compared were usually not drawn from their own research or even their own theories, and their results seldom generated new methods. Psychological studies of learning were equally sterile -- concentrating on relatively unimportant details of a few typical learning situations such as the memory drum, the maze, the discrimination box, and verbal "problems." The learning and forgetting curves that emerged from these studies were never useful in the classroom and came to occupy a less and less important place in textbooks on educational psychology. Even today many distinguished learning theorists insist that their work has no practical relevance. . .

The argument presented above by Skinner seems essentially based on the historical failure of learning theory, as traditionally presented by educational psychologists, to provide a psychologically relevant basis for teaching practice. Disillusionment regarding the relevance and usefulness of learning theory for prospective teachers has been responsible for the recent emergence of "theories of teaching" that are independent of theories of learning. N. L. Gage cites the historical record in arguing that theories of learning have had very little applicability to and influence on educational practice, whether in educa-



tional psychology textbooks, in courses
or in everyday operations of classroom
than theories of learning are "inherent
instruction and should therefore be rep
For example, he states that:

. . .while theories of learning
an organism learns, theories
the ways in which a person
to learn. . .To satisfy the
education, theories of learning
their head" so as to yield
(Gage, 1964).

The undeniable shortcomings of learning
traditional educational psychology courses
herent" limitation in the applicability
al practices. The criticisms of educational
seemed to be motivated by the observation
school learning theory does not deal with
curs in the classroom. This situation
the failure of educational psychologists
plied research in actual classroom settings
tent of educational psychology courses,
etc., it appears that educational psychology
practice of extrapolating the theories
chology to explain the problems of classroom
limited way, this supplies the rational
terest in and evidence to support the
on teacher behavior. If educational psychology
tence as a requirement in the teacher's
have practical relevance for teachers in

to teaching methods,

He argues further
 relevant for problems of
 theories of teaching.

l with the ways
 ching deal with
 es an organism
 al demands of
 t be "stood on
 of teaching

ory, as presented in
 ot necessarily an "in-
 lng theory to education-
 chology offered to date
 ie prevailing brand of
 nd of learning that oc-
 tly the product of
 ict the necessary ap-
 en one surveys the con-
 literature in the field,
 ave succumbed to the
 igs of experimental psy-
 rning. Perhaps, in a
 lack of research in-
 educational psychology
 ls to justify its exis-
 curriculum if it is to
 ld and thus render the

teacher more effective in maximizing learning outcomes, if it is not to be replaced by courses in preparing instructional objectives and theories of teaching, it must begin to critically examine (through basic classroom research) some important issues. Among those deemed important by this and other critics are:

- 1) Why has classroom learning theory undergone a decline and reached the point where theories of teaching are preferred in accomplishing educational objectives?
- 2) What are the principle factors influencing school learning?
- 3) What principles of classroom learning exist that can be taught so as to have relevance for the teacher in accomplishing educational objectives?
- 4) Are the kinds of learning that take place in the classroom qualitatively different from those that take place in the laboratory, or can all learning be explained by the same basic principles?
- 5) Is educational psychology a field in its own right with its own basic theory, research problems, and methodology, or does it merely consist of the direct application of general psychological principles and methods to educational problems?
- 6) Should research workers in educational psychology follow a "basic science" or an applied approach?
- 7) Does educational psychology have anything to offer that is not implicit in common sense notions of teaching?
- 8) Does there exist a discrepancy between "professional" educational psychologists and classroom teachers concerning the importance of educational psychology and the practicality and validity of its content? If so, what can be done in designing the teacher education curriculum to reduce this discrepancy?
- 9) Does educational psychology have any lasting effect on teacher behavior?
- 10) What justification is there for advocating that educational psychology constitute part of the preparation of prospective teachers?

In the absence of valid answers to these basic questions by educational psychologists, it appears that teachers can only adopt two alternative patterns in searching for successful teaching practices and prin-

ciples of learning. They can either rely on traditional educational folklore and on the precepts and examples of their own teachers and colleagues, or they can attempt to discover effective teaching through trial and error. . . which is maybe what has always been done.

REFERENCES

- Ackerman, Walter I. "Teacher Competence and Pupil Change," *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 24, Jan.-Dec. 1954, pp. 273-289.
- Ausubel, David P. Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View. New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1968, p. 4.
- Beck, Louis L. "Evaluating an Integrative Approach to the Teaching-Learning Act: Basic Encounter, Behavioral Objectives and Interaction Analysis., Diss., Abst. Int., 1970, (Nov.), Vol. 31 (5-A) 2224.
- Bestor, Arthur. The Restoration of Learning. New York: Knopf, 1955.
- Bloom, Benjamin S. (ed.). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook I. Cognitive Domain. New York: McKay, 1956.
- Brookover, W. B. "The Relation of Social Factors to Teaching Ability," *Jr. of Exp. Education*, Vol. 13, 1945, pp. 191-205.
- Coladarci, Arthur P. "The Relevancy of Educational Psychology." *Educational Leadership*, 1956, 13. p. 489-492.
- Davis, H. M. "The Use of State High School Examinations as an Instrument in Judging the Work of Teachers," *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 611 (New York, Columbia University, 1934, p. 101.
- Gage, N. L. "Theories of Teaching." In *Theories of Learning and Instruction*, 63rd Yearbook, Nat. Soc. Stud. Educ., Part I. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1964, pp. 268-285.
- Gagne, Robert M. The conditions of learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.
- Gotham, R. E. "Personality and Teaching Efficiency," *Jr. of Exp. Educ.*, Vol. 14, 1945, pp. 157-165.

- Hall, Harry O. "Professional Preparation and Teacher Effectiveness,"
Jr. of Teacher Education. Vol. 15, No. 1, Mar., 1964, pp. 72-76.
- Harris, T. L., Kiefert, J. J., Darby, Merlin D. "Attitudes Expressed
by Students Toward a Beginning Course in Educational Psychology",
Jr. of Ed. Research. Vol. 62, No. 8, April, 1969, pp. 344-350.
- Levin, H. A. New Perspective on Teacher Competence Research. Harvard
Educational Review, 24, 1954, pp. 98-105.
- Mager, Robert F. Preparing Instructional Objectives. Palo Alto, Calif.
Fearon, 1962.
- Mitzel, H. E. Teacher Effectiveness. In C. W. Harris (ed.), Encyclo-
pedia of Educational Research, New York: MacMillan Co., 1960, pp.
1481-1485.
- Popham, James W. "Predicting Student Teachers' Instructional Behavior
From A Structured and an Unstructured Test of Professional Knowledge,"
Calif. Jr. of Educ. Res., XVI, No. 1, Jan., 1965.
- Rolfe, J. F. "The Measurement of Teaching Ability: Study No. 2," Jr.
of Exp. Educ., Vol. 14, 1945. pp. 52-74.
- Rostker, L. E. "The Measurement of Teaching Ability: Study No. 1," Jr.
of Exp. Educ., Vol. 14, 1945, pp. 6-51.
- Rumstein, Regina. "Teacher's Evaluation of Research Findings in Educa-
tional Psychology," Diss. Abst. Int., 1971 (Jan.), Vol. 31 (7-A)
3350-3351.
- Sarason, Seymour B., Davidson, K. S., Blatt, Burton. The Preparation of
Teachers: An Unstudied Problem In Education. New York: Wiley, 1962,
p. 69.
- Skinner, B. F. The Technology of Teaching. New York: Appleton-Century-
Crofts, 1968, pp. 94-95.
- Watson, Goodwin. What Psychology Can We Feel Sure About. Teachers College
Record, Vol. 61, No. 5, Feb, 1960, pp. 253-257.

Institutional Design: An Administrative Approach.

Judd A. Katz

University of Georgia

No matter what initial approach we profess as to the maintenance of behavior, especially the behavior that is developed in educational institutions, we must give credence to the fact that behavior is strongly influenced by the consequences that it generates or that follow a student's response; some even go so far as to say that behavior is a direct function of its consequences. One may be a die-hard Skinnerian and focus his complete attention on the external events of an institution or be completely humanistic and devote much time to searching out the inner caverns where the homunculus resides. In either case, research and data point out that great success lies in the manipulation of environmental contingencies. Efficient teaching is a function of the proper manipulation of events which pervade the classroom.

Educational research is steeped with proposals and critiques, but there is also an emergence of new topics which fall under the categories of classroom design, contingency contracting, and educational engineering which I would like to extensively examine, not only through the role of the school psychologist but through the role of the administrator as well. I for one take the position of the behavioral engineer and I cite two articles in the literature. The first is "The Normal Sources of Pathological Behavior" by Murray Sidman (1960), and the second is "Why Teachers Fail" by B. F. Skinner (1965). Sidman's data is extracted totally from laboratory events in the analysis of conditioned suppression which is the application of a noncontingent aversive schedule overlapping a contingent reinforcement schedule. Sidman noticed that a water

deprived organism would respond to water reinforcement for bar pressing but would stop when a noncontingent CS condition for shock was introduced. This is conditioned suppression. When the time for S^{R+} was reduced and CS for shock increased, the organism would respond during the CS shock interval and the discriminatory behavior would break down. Is this a pathological occurrence or something peculiar within the organism? Sidman says no. The reason the conditioned suppression responses break down is due to the temporal relationship between the periods of contingent reinforcement and noncontingent shock. In intersubject replication, it was found that all water-deprived subjects would receive 90% of the allowed reinforcement. This means that during periods of longer S^{R+} trials and short CS and shock, conditioned suppression would occur, but during periods of short S^{R+} trials and long CS and shock, conditioned suppression would not occur. Sidman could control the suppression trials by manipulating the external events, namely the schedule. Sidman stated, "This breakdown of the behavioral baseline is the kind of phenomenon that suggests pathology. . . (the behavior) was certainly bizarre, but we were able to show that even the most bizarre performances were under the control of orderly and manipulable factors. In no sense did they represent deviations from lawful behavior." As a proponent of Sidman, my concern is with the environmental structure in an educational setting.

Skinner's article, "Why Teachers Fail," parallels Sidman's approach of environmental manipulation. Skinner explains the failure of human learning under environmental circumstances which are not conducive to learning. Just as Sidman examines the short duration of reinforcement schedules that produced unexpected behavior, Skinner examines the sparseness of reinforcement and abundance of aversive stimulation that sur-

rounds the student in the classroom. The ongoing process of teaching is bypassed by the greater interest in the school plant, personnel and equipment, says Skinner. A good teacher is considered as one who knows his subject matter and is interested in it. Any special knowledge of pedagogy as a basic science of teaching is felt to be unnecessary. Human behavior is far too complex to be left to casual experience; the teacher needs help. In particular, he needs the kind of help offered by a scientific analysis of behavior. The help is available, as can be seen in the works of Terrace (1963), Premack (1959), Homme (1969), Wolf (1968) and Keller (1963).

Terrace's contribution was in errorless discrimination, the programming and presentation of stimuli so as not to confuse the subject. Premack uncovered the principle of reinforcing events that maintain behavior. This principle allows teachers to present free time or a pleasant task as a reinforcement as opposed to comestibles which have been criticized in classroom use. Homme capitalized on the Premack Principle and designed whole classroom regimen on reinforcing events. Wolf has extensively invaded the world of proper classroom "manners" by designing token cultures to shape proper attentive behavior, and Keller has permeated curriculum design by introducing the programmed, course, a system by which a student not only studies at his own rate, but is allowed access to lectures, demonstrations and experiments on the basis of previous success.

With all this great research going for us, where is the problem? The problem stems from the fact that those in the know are not always those in control. Elementary and secondary learning institutions become isolated from the mainstream of educational research. Goolsby

and Frary (1971) have indirectly shown that some institutions become so isolated that the teacher reading levels and mathematical abilities in specific elementary schools are just a few years above the student levels. Problems like these should not go undetected, but they do because the administration is not oriented toward pointing out breakdowns in learning procedure and is not receptive to new ideas. It is the administration that must be convinced before any improvement can be made in the school. Since the superintendent is in charge of the principals and indirectly in charge of the teachers, any educational design to be utilized must be approved and understood by the superintendent. Now the critical question is brought up. How much leeway would the school psychologist have with the present school administration? Even though the school psychologist may have some excellent ideas about educational design, the success or even the implementation of educational design depends on the support of the administrator. Halpin, in his book "Theory and Research in Administration" (1966) defines six administrative climates which exist in school systems. These climates were derived from Halpin's Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. The climates are labeled open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal and closed and they define the administrative conditions which make the working environment of a school. Halpin's point is that your work, your research, even your point of view are almost a direct function of the administrative point of view of proper management and education. Young personnel with bright ideas can become quickly blunted if they are part of the wrong administrative climate. Skinner's view was that administrators concern themselves with plant and money type problems,

and Hayes' (See Appendix I.) accumulation of pertinent school problems bears this out. Out of 66 items of major concern to school administrators, 80% are strictly system oriented and 20% are education oriented. Can you imagine being in a controlled climate, concerning yourself with mostly system problems when you would like to do educational and psychological research? Of course, not all climates are highly controlled but why leave it up to chance for school system placement. Is there a possibility of slowly converting the administrative hierarchy into a more educationally oriented structure. This is the problem I would like to investigate, my hypothesis being that, in order to have a full thrust ongoing educational program as defined by Skinner, Keller, et.al., the administration must be more educationally oriented or advisors in the form of school or educational psychologists must be able to advise the administration on a compatible level in the supervisory chain.

The same parallel can be made in U.S. industry. A corporation president has a staff of department heads. These directors are specialists in their fields of finance, sales, program planning and quality control (See Appendix II). I would like to draw the relationship between a school psychologist and a quality control director. Both positions (See Appendix III) concern themselves with the quality of production, one a business commodity, the other an educational service. Both job descriptions possess a high degree of overlap as defined by the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1965), but more than just a dictionary decree, both jobs should be devoted to the integrity of providing the public with the best service they can give. Since a parallel exists between job function, a parallel should also exist in administrative authority. The school psychologist, rather than being

on an administrative level with a teacher, should hold an advisory position ranging within the levels of curriculum advisor and assistant superintendent. As he sits now, the school psychologist is subordinate to the director of special services; the director of special services is parallel to a principal; the voice of educational design sits low on the totem pole. Sidman and Skinner try desperately to show us that behavior change and education are an environmental function. Goolsby shows the outcome when the environment is neglected; behavior of student and teacher as well deteriorates. Data on in-house research derived by a school psychologist is sparse because of the psychologist's position in the administrative chain. This is commensurate with a sergeant trying to direct command within a battalion; he just does not have the authority to do so. Knowledge of institutional design must reside in the minds of the school administrators in order that learning environments can be preserved. Quality control in education must be a function of higher level administration, after all, how many more county school systems exist that Goolsby has described? How many more can we afford?

References

Dictionary of Occupational Titles. U. S. Department of Labor, Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1965, Vol. 1.

Goolsby, T., & Frary, R. Use of an Individualized Reading Program Under Voluntary Complete Integration: Effects on Third Grade Pupils and Teachers. Center for Educational Improvement, University of Georgia, Sept., 1971 (p. 56).

*Halpin, A. Theory and Research in Administration. MacMillan Company, New York, 1966. (Chapter 4- The Organizational Climate of Schools.)

Howne, L. How to Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom. Research Press, 1969.

Keller, F. A personal course in psychology. Paper read at American Psychological Association, Philadelphia, Pa., August, 1963.

Premack, D. Toward empirical behavior laws: 1. Positive reinforcement. Psychological Review, 1959, 66, 219-233.

*Sidman, M. Normal sources of pathological behavior. Science, 1960, 132, 61-69.

*Skinner, B. Why teachers fail. Saturday Review, Oct. 16, 1965.

Terrace, H. Errorless transfer of a discrimination across two continua. Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, 1963, 6, 223-232.

Wolf, M., et. al. Behavior modification of children with learning disabilities using grades as tokens and allowances as backup reinforcers. Exceptional Children, 1968, 34, 745-752.

*Three key articles.

Appendix I

A Collection of Administrative Problems in the School System

Collected by Mr. Andrew Hayes

Doctoral Candidate, Ed. Administration, U. of C.

1. The Board of Education has approved a plan to add bathroom facilities to a school building. The board member appointed to the building committee has stated that he will delay it as long as possible. I have been told to proceed by the superintendent
2. We have children participating in Title I projects who are authorized to have dental work done. These are small children and parents work and cannot take them to the doctor. Someone must accompany them to the office. No funds are available to hire someone to take care of these children.
3. Property tax: This type of tax is a regressive tax, therefore, it is inequitable and not realistic. It is also extremely hard to administer fairly. This is a major problem since education, especially in Georgia, derives much of its income from this tax.
4. Lack of differentiated staffing in both assignments and salaries in education poses a major problem. Does not allow for rewards or incentives for competence and additional work in his area.
5. Student preparation in areas of reading, for example in earlier grades.
6. Joining teachers' organizations.
7. Relationships with non-teaching staff.
8. Orientation of new teachers.
9. The educational sequence does not include the necessities of life for survival. In relation to the above statement, I believe that no student should graduate from high school without knowing how to swim, change a tire, write a letter asking for a job, determine the foods that make up a balanced diet, how to fill out an income tax form and other necessities needed in our daily lives.
10. A large percentage of students have very little initiative too achieve Educational goals of students conflict with goals of teachers and parents. Communication between teacher-student and parent-student have changed and created conflicts in classrooms and homes.
11. One of our eleventh grade students has failed several subjects for two consecutive years. This student has been in our school system since the first grade, and his testing scores have been a little below average throughout his school career. His parents have become quite concerned and are insisting that the school do something to "see that my boy graduates."
12. One of our teachers complains constantly to a custodian about the way he cleans and maintains her classroom. This has lead to several personal clashes between them.
13. In my tenure as a teacher and administrator, I have noticed the lack of so-called concerned personnel who fill the ranks as teachers. This ranks as major problem since anyone with a college

education can apply and receive a teaching certificate. Some restrictions should be placed on the applicants, and they should be under close scrutiny for the first couple of years. Many conditions would improve if the teachers were a better organized and closer screened group.

14. Passing bond referendums - Because of the great need for new school plant buildings, it becomes imperative to pass bond referendums in order to finance their cost.
15. Providing vocational training for the mentally retarded who is lost when taught at the usual pace.
16. Schools that have a certain program designed around a key person instead of designing a program and then using special competencies of people to implement the program.
17. Few school administrators have the time or take the time to work with the student body to identify the educational objectives of the school system.
18. School finances to include the high cost of athletics.
19. Race relations
20. Student automobiles
21. A major problem for the seventies will be in obtaining adequate financing for quality education program.
22. It will be extremely difficult to meet the skilled training needs of the expanding American economy in the seventies.
23. The educational complex is going to have problems in developing relevant standards for the measurement of accomplishment in their systems.
24. Guidance personnel not interested or motivated in regard to counseling students to enroll in a vocational course, if and when a student is interested in vocational subject.
25. Why is it necessary for the State Department of Education to require a teacher to take the NTE and the score is used to determine salaries?
26. Due to the fact that many colored children and a portion of the white students have been socially promoted through elementary and junior high school poses a big problem to high school teachers around graduation time. Should we continue to do the same?
27. Inability to keep qualified maintenance personnel due to low pay. (No more money is available).

28. Lunchroom always over budget due to frequent menu changes by main office.
29. The birth rate in the U.S. is dropping sharply. The problem for people in the educational field will be determining what professional alternatives will be available in ten years.
30. Even when the instructional program is well planned in a school, some teachers are incompetent in relating the instructional process to children. The problem is determining what alternatives are available in dealing with these teachers, especially if they are tenured.
31. Teachers cannot keep up with innovations in education. How can adequate in-service programs be provided, and then how can teachers be encouraged to take advantage of these? How can time be provided during the school day for such professional activity?
32. There has been too much negative publicity and criticism of school programs. How can school personnel improve communications so that better public relations can exist in the community?
33. Integrating a vocational program with academic program in our secondary schools.
34. Is local support for public schools likely to continue at about the same rate and, if reduced, what may or may not be some of the consequences?
35. One problem that concerns secondary school people is the breakdown of the family unit. Many students encounter family problems and pressures thus decide to move to another area of the state or may move into an apartment with friends. This situation places school officials in a situation where they must deal with students having difficulty or causing trouble, and at the same time deal with parents who have no control over the students or knowledge of his activities.
36. In our society, subdivisions spring up quickly. The difficulty comes when a school program must appeal to several and sometimes hundreds of mini or fragmented communities.
37. Teacher salaries are low in some areas.
38. Lack of parent interest in the schools.
39. Friction between black and white teachers.
40. Teacher cooperation with the administration in their enforcement of school policy and rules. Ex. smoking, dress codes.
41. Sue hands in homework which she copied from Mary.

42. John uses a knife to cut up some of the desks in which he sits. He refuses to take restitution or fix damaged items.
43. How to prepare an adequate school budget.
44. How to better supervise and counsel with school staff.
45. To have non-college bound students prepared in fields of work to meet their individual job abilities, and needs. Not to be left out in terms of preparation for after high school if their not planning to go to college.
46. To help students establish relationships with faculty, counselors and deans so that they know to turn to when they need help or advice. Not to be faced with a problem, large or small, and not know a soul they feel they can turn to for help.
47. How to do away with the stigma that still pray on some minds that Area Technical Schools are just for the high school drop outs only?
48. Mental training of which the School endeavor to do is good for some prevailing here, but there is another type of training that should take place now also (SPIRITUAL) if man is to live in abundance here and here after. How can this tactfully be incorporated?
49. Educational background of students.
50. No provisions for instructors to keep current in their specialty areas.
51. Consideration for employment of a vocational-technical educator is based primarily on his experience. He is hired on a twelve month contract. After a few years of teaching he finds that he is getting behind in the latest technological advances made in his field. Industry provides short term (one or two weeks) training sessions for the purpose of training personnel in changes made in their latest products. The majority of these training sessions are free. Some companies will even pay expenses for these sessions. How can the classroom instructor best convince his supervisors of the need for staying up with the latest innovations, so that they will provide for the instructor to attend industry training sessions?
52. Inadequate staff for providing needed support for instructional staff.
53. With the stipulation that the black and white should be ratioed in each school according to the community's black to white ratio; The question, is this to be effectively done?
54. To give students some say as to the quality of instruction that they received from a given professor.
55. How to have better discipline in schools.
56. A school dance is held at the school symnasium. Bob comes to the dance intoxicated, and it is called to your attention.

57. Jack steals a camera from the audio visual room and sells it at a local shop. He is caught and confesses.
58. Interlocking the curriculum between academic and vocational subjects in math and English.
59. Lack of parent cooperation concerning most desirable education for the child.
60. Vandalism is an increasing problem that concerns school officials. Buildings are damaged supplies and equipment stolen and the cost to replace this loss dips deeper into the already insufficient school budget.
61. What is being done to make course work more relevant to degree being pursued.
62. The pupil-teacher ratio is too large, except possibly in schools with special federal funding. How can the average teacher meet the needs, especially of the disadvantaged child, in the areas of reading?
63. Rapid growth in technology is bringing about changes in every aspect of our lives. The problem for educators is determining what skills and values our adults of the future need to learn now in the elementary schools.
64. Inability to get school buses to school on time. Buses are privately owned and parents pay for the children riding.
65. Mr. Hayes, as of now, that's it.
66. Providing quality transportation for rural students on the limited funds of rural counties as an ever increasing number of city students move into rural areas.

Appendix II

A Selection of Major U. S. Business Organization Tables
Incorporating A Quality Control Division and Advisors

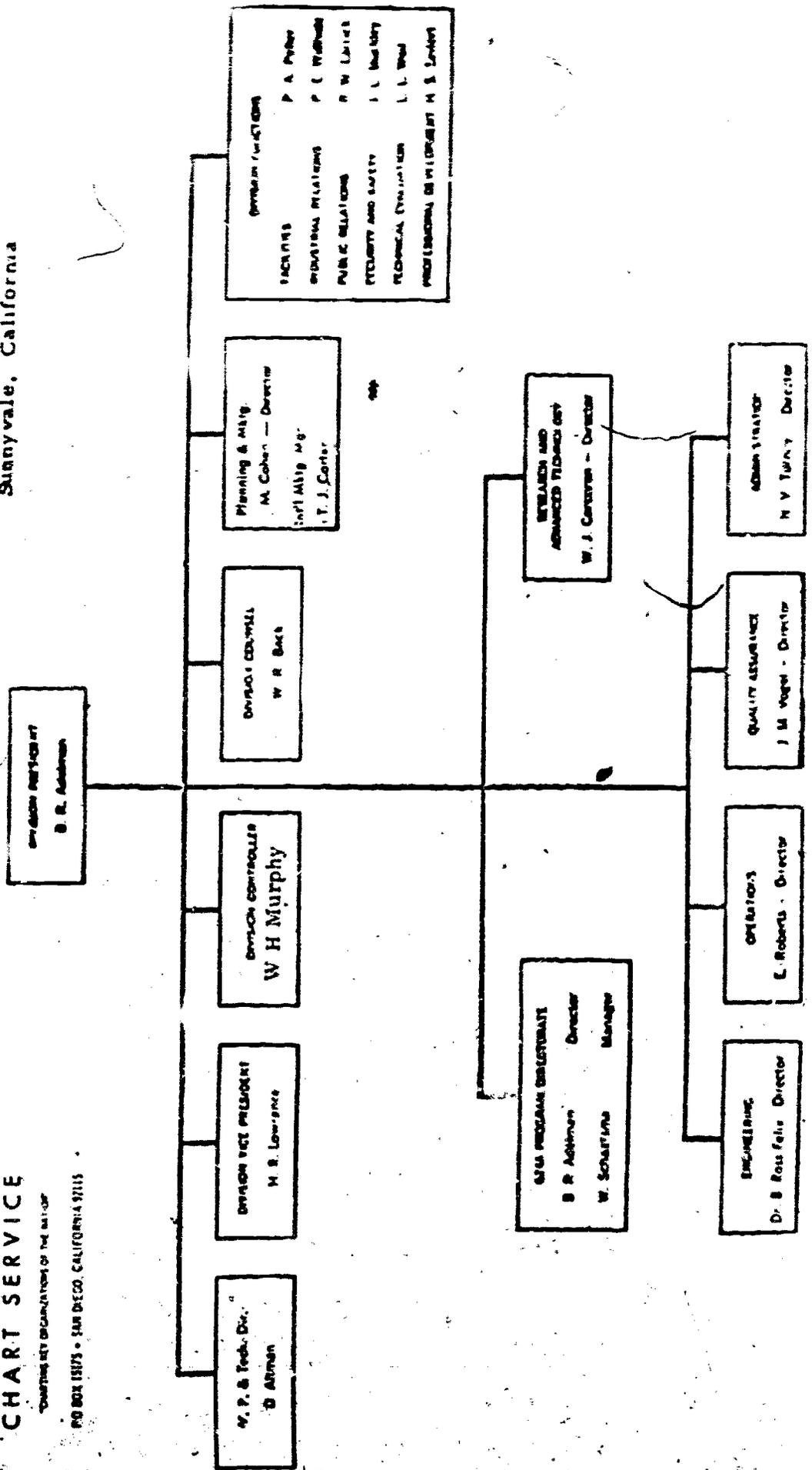
NOVEMBER - 1970

U. S. ORGANIZATION CHART SERVICE

CHARTING KEY ORGANIZATIONS OF THE AIR-CORP

PO BOX 13175 • SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92115

UNITED TECHNOLOGY CENTER
Division Of United Aircraft Corp.
P.O. Box 358
Sunnyvale, California



AUGUST - 1971

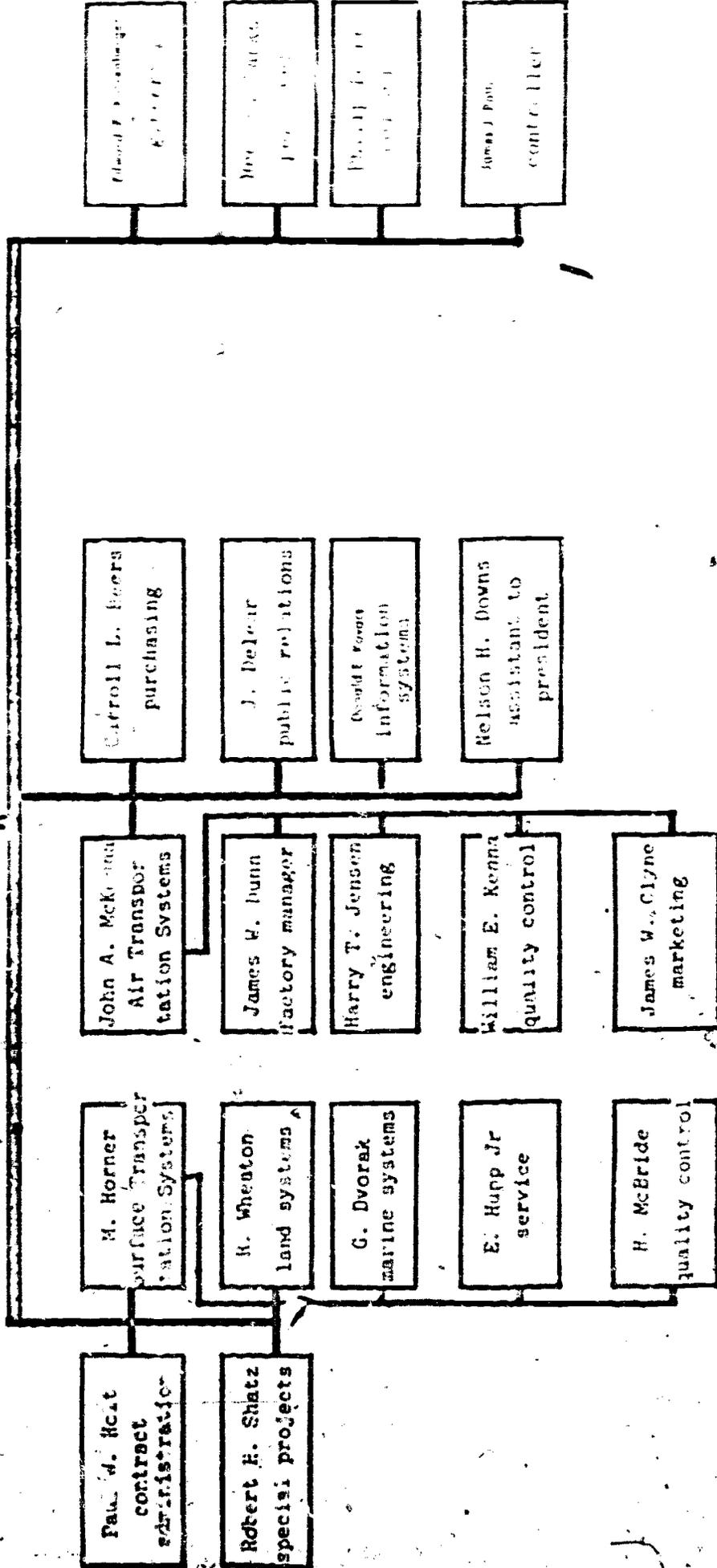
U. S. ORGANIZATION CHART SERVICE

2000011515 • JAN 6150 CALIFORNIA 91115

Sikorsky Aircraft DIVISION OF UNITED AIRCRAFT CORPORATION

STRATFORD, CONNECTICUT 06502

Wesley A. Kuhr
division president

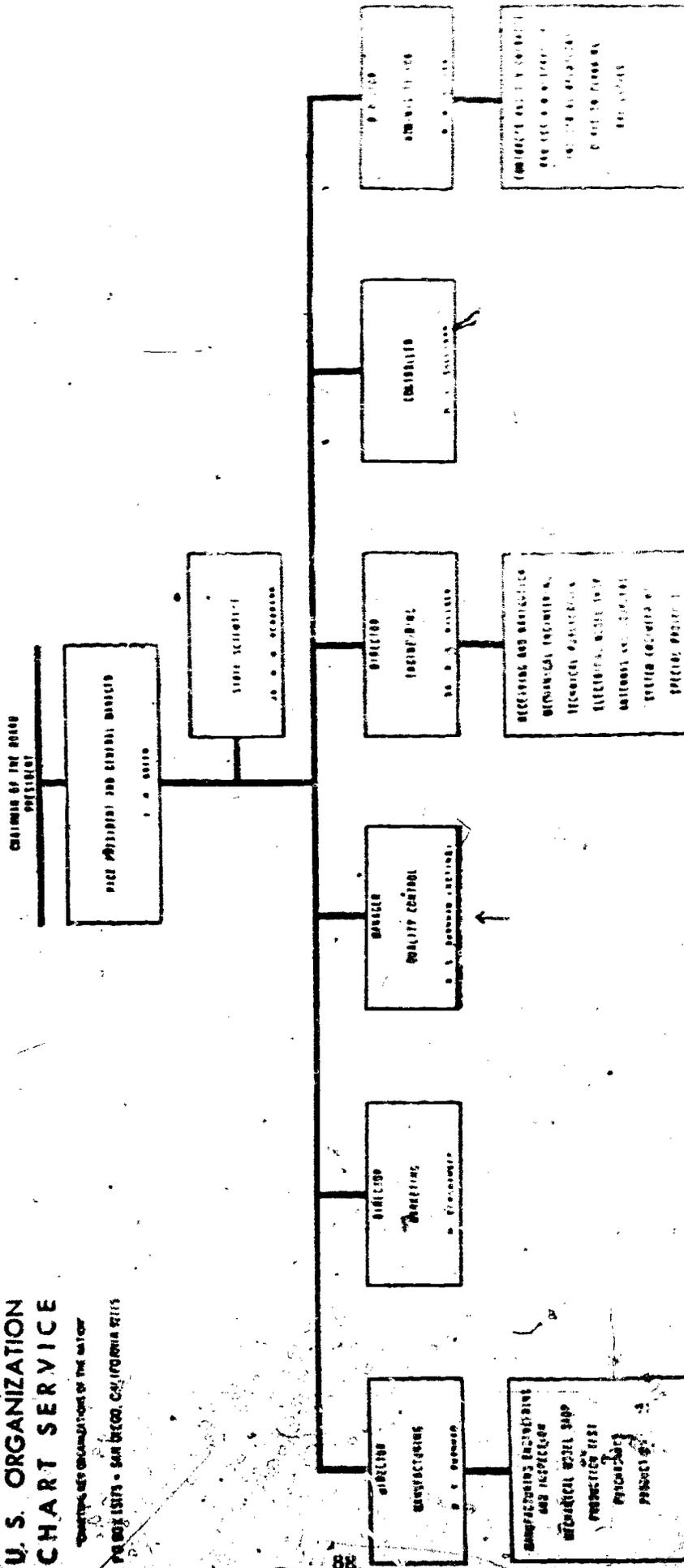


AUGUST - 1970
U. S. ORGANIZATION
CHART SERVICE

COMPANY SET ORGANIZATION OF THE MONTH
PO BOX 15173 - SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92115

RICHARD A. BURNS, ELECTRONIC SYSTEMS DIVISION
101 FOURTH AVE. WALTHAM MASS 01981

LTV ElectroSystems, Inc.



AUGUST - 1969

U. S. ORGANIZATION
CHART SERVICE

EMPLOYERS ORGANIZATION OF THE U.S.A.
PO BOX 15175 • SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92115

GENERAL DYNAMICS/CONVAIR
OVERALL ORGANIZATION
P. O. Box 1128
San Diego, California 92112

PRESIDENT
J. BOWERS

STAFF

ASSISTANT TO THE PRESIDENT
R. T. BLAIR

LEGAL
GENERAL COUNSEL
H. C. DOY

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS
DIRECTOR
M. V. WISDOM

CONTRACTS & COMMERCIAL SALES
VICE PRESIDENT
W. BLAKEY

Mgr. Oper. Lindbergh Field Plant
James M. Anderson
Mgr. Oper. Keating Mesa Plant
Don L. Fogus

LAUNCH VEHICLE
PROGRAMS
Vice President &
Program Director
K. E. Newton

FINANCE

CONTROLLER

E. MILLING

OPERATIONS

DIRECTOR

W. L. VANHORN

RESEARCH &
ENGINEERING

VICE PRESIDENT

E. R. PETERSON

RELIABILITY
CONTROL

DIRECTOR

L. J. MELROCK

Dir. Market Analysis & Planning
R. J. Lutz

GENERAL DYNAMICS
Electro Dynamic Division

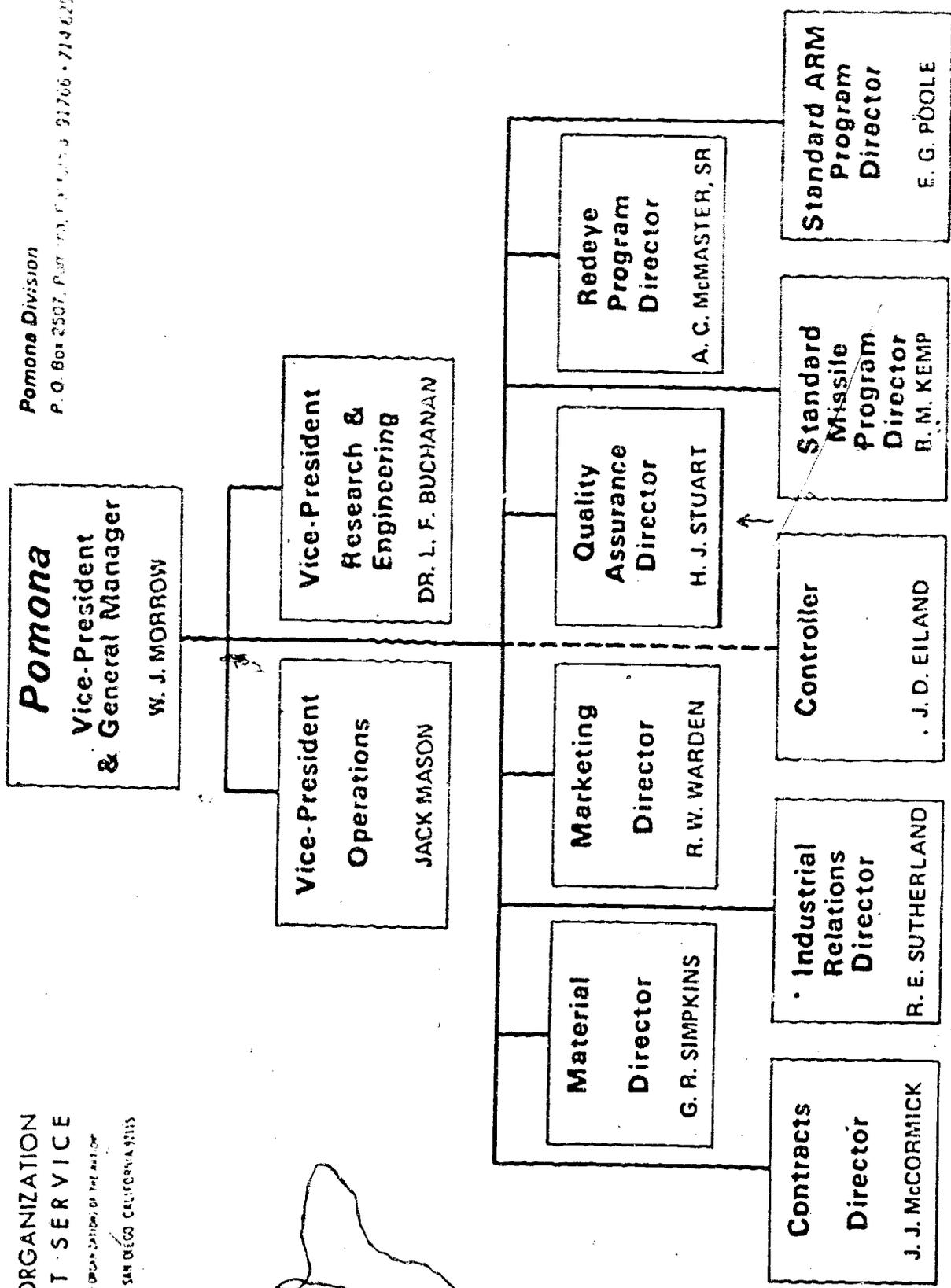
Pomona Division

P. O. Box 2507, Pomona, California 91766 • 714-829-5111

FEBRUARY - 1971

**U. S. ORGANIZATION
CHART SERVICE**

10000
PUBLISHED BY THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS
PO BOX 15115 • SAN DIEGO CALIFORNIA 92115



Appendix III

Job Description Defined by the

"Dictionary of Occupational Specialties"

PSYCHOLOGIST, SCHOOL (psychology & 190) 012100
Diagnoses needs of gifted, handicapped, and disturbed children within educational system or school and plans and carries out corrective programs to enable them to attain maximum achievement and adjustment. Conducts diagnostic study to identify child's needs, identifies, and prescribes, observing child in classroom and at play, studying school records, consulting with parents and school personnel, and administering and interpreting diagnostic findings. Plans special placement or other treatment programs. Observes pupils individually and in groups, using psychoanalysis, play therapy, and personal interviews to assist pupils in achieving personal, social, and emotional adjustment. Refers individuals to community agencies to secure medical, vocational, or social services for child or family. Participates in planning of remedial classes and testing programs designed to meet needs of students. Serves as consultant to school board, superintendent, administrative committees, and parent teacher groups in matters involving psychological aspects within educational system or school.

QUALITY-CONTROL ENGINEER (process & 190) 012110
Reliability engineer. Performs and carries out activities concerned with development, application and maintenance of quality standards for processing materials into partially finished or finished material or product. Develops and initiates methods and procedures for inspection, testing, and evaluation. Initiates sampling procedures, designs forms for recording, evaluating, and reporting quality and reliability data, and writes instructions on use of forms. Establishes programs to evaluate precision and accuracy of production and processing equipment and testing, measurement, and analytical facilities. Designs and implements methods and procedures for disposition and devises methods to assess cost and responsibility of discrepant material. Oversees workers engaged in measuring and testing product and tabulating quality and reliability data. Compiles and writes training material and conducts training sessions on quality control activities. May specialize in any of following areas of quality-control engineering: design, incoming material, process control, product evaluation, inventory control, product reliability, research and development, and administrative application. Usually required to have an engineering degree, such as chemical, mechanical, or electrical engineering which is related to technology of the product evaluated.

PSYCHOLOGIST, EDUCATIONAL (psychology & 190) 012100
Investigates principles of learning and teaching and develops psychological principles and techniques applicable to educational problems to foster intellectual, social, and emotional development of individuals. Conducts experiments to study importance of motivation in learning, implications of transfer of training in teaching, and nature and causes of individual differences in mental abilities to promote differentiated educational procedures to meet individual needs of students. Analyzes characteristics and adjustment needs of superior and inferior students and recommends educational program to promote maximum adjustment. Formulates achievement, diagnostic, and predictive tests to aid teachers in planning methods and content of instruction. Administers standardized tests to diagnose disabilities and difficulties among students and to develop special methods of remedial instruction. Investigates traits and attitudes of teachers to study conditions that contribute to or detract from optimal mental health of teachers. Studies effects of teachers' feelings and attitudes upon pupils, and characteristics of successful teachers. In aid school administrators in selection and adjustment of teachers. Collaborates with education specialists in developing curriculum content and methods of organizing and conducting classroom work. May specialize in educational measurement, school adjustment, school learning, or special education.

ED 075488

THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST -
HIS ROLE IN EFFECTING EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES

John J. Vance

University of Georgia

The position taken in this paper revolves around three factors: change as a permanent and energizing force in our society, the necessity to deal with and effect the flow of this change, and the role of the School Psychologist in this change as seen from a Field Theory position.

The central idea of the Field Theory position is that objects in a field take on their dynamic character as a result of their position in the field. Roles are therefore responsive to and dependent upon definitions of their setting. There is then a distinction between the enacted role and the expected role.

These concepts may in part explain myriad role conceptions and role conflict that face the School Psychologist. Each training institution has its definition of role, the school system has its definition and the School Psychologist has his self-definition.

The roles and functions as reviewed in the literature are frequently contradictory and boundless in scope. The later aspect is well illustrated by one writer's definition of the School Psychologist as "trained not only in Abnormal and Clinical Psychology but. . .expert in Child and Adolescent Development, differential psychology, measurement and evaluation, social psychology and group process, personality, learning, motivation, research and experimentation as well as educational methodology itself."

This author views the present role definition of the School Psychologist as reviewed in related literature pertaining to requirements of training institutions, position papers of School Psychologists, and surveys of on the job functions as consisting of two major orientations: pathology oriented and growth oriented, and four major role definitions: the Clinician, the Tester, the Academic Model, and the Educational Programmer. The Clinician adopts the medical model: individual diagnosis and treatment. He is pathology-oriented and therefore more interested in personality disorders and their remediation. The Tester functions as an evaluator to place children in special education classes. He is pathology oriented and limits his function to diagnosis. The Academic Model functions chiefly as a scientist and professional consultant rather than serving directly. He is the transmitter of psychological knowledge and skill found in research to the context of the school. He is a problem solver but solves the problems through consultative services rather than direct intervention. The Educational Programmer is a developmentalist. He is growth-oriented as opposed to pathology oriented. His main emphasis is in planning educational programs for children. The accent is on designing learning experiences appropriate to developmental levels. He disregards medical diagnosis and attends to educational handicaps. His position is usually high on the administrative hierarchy.

A brief review of the growth and evaluation of one particular psychological service located in Phoenix, Arizona may serve to illustrate both the divergent roles and role conflicts of School Psychologists. The Child Study and Consultation Service had its origin in 1952 in Phoenix, Arizona. It developed five main areas of function-

ing which are related to the role definitions presented previously.

The five areas are:

1. Child Study--essentially a clinical approach to learning difficulties for which intellectual and personality evaluations are needed.
2. Consultation--occurring in two major areas: (a) pupil oriented problems, similar to Child Study, but the pupil is not seen by the psychologists, (b) school-oriented problems related to grading, curriculum, instruction, etc.
3. In-Service Training--seminar type of teaching, application of psychological and mental health principles to the school setting.
4. Research--experimental psychology with a very practical approach to school problems.
5. Community Services--drawing upon sociological factors relating to broad needs of families and the functions of community services.

A questionnaire was developed to evaluate the effectiveness of each of these five areas. There was a five point scale from "most important" to "least important" and "most effective" to "least effective." A total of 560 questionnaires were distributed to 110 administrators, 300 teachers and 50 school nurses. The questionnaires were also completed by the Child Study staff.

Of those items composing the child study category, school personnel rated all items (except pupil and parent counseling) in the upper half of importance. All school personnel ranked the interpretation of diagnostic studies to parents as the single, most important function. Identification and assessment of the exceptional child was ranked second in importance. None of the raters ranked therapy or counseling of pupil or parent as an important function of the School Psychologist. Consultation services as an area of functioning was rated second in

importance by the Child Study psychologists, although teachers rated it fourth and administrators fifth. The functions included in the area of in-service training were ranked third by psychologists and teachers and second by administrators. The research role of the psychologist was rated fourth in importance by administrators and fifth by teachers.

This study was presented to illustrate that divergent roles are tolerated and maintained in the educational structure. The preference of role by administrators and teachers was that of diagnostic study of individuals. How effective will the school psychologist be in producing a total therapeutic environment by an endless repetition of putting out brush fires? This function reaches too few, too late, and has little impact on effecting educational outcomes.

The School Psychologist is relegated to his diagnostic role by the structure of the educational system. His most effective means of changing his role to have the farthest impact on the educational structure itself is to place himself in a position in the hierarchy of the administrative staff which has most control over the functions and operations of the educational system. The title he is assigned is of little importance as compared to the authority and decision making role he plays. His training in diagnosis, remediation and development of therapeutic educational programs will be implemented through changing the essential structure and processes of the educational system.

The School Psychologist is an agent of change regardless of which of the many roles conferred upon him by the educational structure he chooses to assume. The question is which role allows

for the most significant outcome of his contributions to the educational process. Perhaps functioning as an agent of change in any position which permits the establishment of a school environment in which growth and development of each child is nurtured and nourished is a necessary transitory role for the school psychologist.

At present he is locked in his role by the pattern and structure of the educational system. His role is prescribed by the outlooks and attitudes of administration and teachers. A change in the system brings changes in positions and roles and the changed interaction alters the way participants are feeling. "The general formula, as stated by Goodwin Watson in "Social Psychology", runs structure-process-attitude --S-P-A." Perhaps when the structure is changed the functions of the School Psychologist as Clinician, Consultant, Diagnostician, Educational Programmer will have greater efficacy.

The School Psychologist is concerned with change but his emphasis must be on directing planned change through the productive use of his psychological insights in the investment of his energies toward developing new and productive patterns in the educational structure. Concern only with pathology and relegated to the role of diagnostician alone wastes his energies on correcting pathologies and not contributing to the health of the systems as a whole.

A therapist can be concerned with the health of the total individual not just the diseased parts. The School Psychologist in a decision making role can attend to finding ways in which the subparts of the educational system can be related more effectively to the whole. When this has been accomplished, the health of the system will produce the energy and creative acts to maintain itself.

Change in our society is a reality. To effect planned directional change is often a slow and laborious task. The history of the violent demonstrations of the sixties may serve to show that social interactions that proceed from the attitudes of individuals sometimes effect the system but more often do not.

Institutions exist which perpetuate themselves as institutions and no longer serve the purposes for which they were intended. Bureaucracies produce bureaucrats who produce more bureaucracies.

The educational system and the total social system are so interrelated and interdependent that each is what the other has made it. Neither can point the finger of blame at the failure of the other.

Social agencies engaged in the "helping professions," Psychology, Medicine, Sociologically related fields, and Education each divide society into its pathological parts and each administers his special therapeutic treatment. If each treatment were as beneficial as claimed, there should not be a problem remaining in the country.

The conflict of ideologies of individual professionals is itself a contributor to the conflicts in society.

Categories, roles, classifications are necessary for communication and theoretical considerations but they have become accepted as reality not as the symbols they are. How does an individual divide himself into a psychological being, an educational being, etc. He is being. His health is neither mental nor physical. It's simply health.

The helping professions in protecting their individual identities have gone far afield from their original purpose--to help.

It has been the purpose of this paper to define a new role for the School Psychologist. It is in a way contradictory to define a role when the adoption of roles seems to stimulate the very problems they were designed to solve. Roles are fictitious and necessary frameworks which serve as guides for an individual to function. They are symbols of reality not reality itself and should be changed and eliminated when they no longer serve a purpose.

The School Psychologist is a changer and his position in the administrative structure determines the spread and effectiveness of his changing ability. But as he changes the structure and process in which he exists his role must change or it becomes a stale ideology.

REFERENCES

- Bias, Peter M. Bureaucracy in Modern Society. New York: Random House, 1959.
- Bolt, Fred D., and Kichlighter, Richard H. Psychological Services in the Schools, Readings in Preparation, Organization and Practice. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown Company, 1971.
- Menary, James F., Editor. School Psychological Services, In Theory and Practice. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967.
- Spalding, Willard B., Editor. The Dynamics of Planned Change. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1958.
- Watson and Goodwin. Social Psychology, Issues and Insights. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1966.
- Leton, A. Donald. "School Psychology: Its Purposes and Direction." Psychology in the Schools, (April, 1964), 187.
- McHugh, F. Ann. "Potential Contributions of the School Psychologist." Psychology in the Schools, (April, 1964).

ED 075481

ACCOUNTABILITY IN EDUCATION: WHY?

J. Leon Dalton

University of Georgia

One of the major points of opinion among advocates of accountability is that there is a loss of faith in our educational institutions. The acceptance of school programs that cannot be demonstrated to have proveable worth is no longer the rule. To substantiate this lack of faith in our educational institutions, exponents of accountability are pointing to decreased spending by local school boards, failure of school bond referendums to gain voter approval, and the reluctance of the general public to accept by testimony alone the notion that schools are doing a "good" job.

Some degree of credibility must be lent to these claims in support of a system of educational accountability. At the same time it is oversimplistic to say categorically, as most supporters of accountability do, that there is a loss of public trust in our educational institutions. If one is to argue from this reasoning for a system of accountability let him be equally fervent in recognizing a declining faith in all our institutions. So what's new?

Perhaps it would be more meaningful to ask what part of our educational structure the public has lost confidence in since an institution does not consist of a singular component. When we consider the idea of loss of faith do we assume the public has lost confidence in the actual physical structure of our institutions? Various research studies have shown this to make a difference in the manner and amount a student learns. Are we talking about administrators, teachers, support personnel, textbook publishers, or perhaps students? Then what

T 002 5589

about the more abstract features of an institution such as philosophy, goals, curriculum, and special programs? It seems reasonable to argue that proponents of educational accountability could not indict the whole system on such vague grounds without specifying exactly where there is a loss of faith in the system. If the total system is operating that poorly then perhaps it needs to be abandoned in favor of a more workable system. If accountability advocates have no other clear system to propose, then it seems risky to make such sweeping inferences on such thin evidence about the actual state of educational affairs. In short, the people who support accountability should be more certain about "what is" before they say "what ought to be."

Declining public trust in our educational institutions is usually postulated as an external reason for accountability. External in that pressures for a more quantifiable educational system comes from a demanding tax-paying citizenry. Internally there is a move by forces within the system (mostly college professors acting as consultants to government sponsored programs) to professionalize education through accountability.

The reasoning behind such a move is presumably to enforce a higher standard of academic rigor in education so that it might be in a more favorable position to be considered a profession. It is true that education is quite readily referred to by members in the field as a profession. However, acceptance of education as a profession by individuals outside the field seems to be widely questioned.

Furthermore, it is not likely that any system of accountability will lead to a professionalization of education through an explicit

set of principles and practices. A well defined set of practices has not been nor is it likely to be established in education as in medicine or law. Education is a much more ambiguous field than other professions because of its many borrowed terms and bastardized concepts. Another problem is that sheer numbers of individuals in the field, as opposed to a small number in other professions, make agreement on standard procedures and practices an impossible situation. At the same time the very heart of accountability is based on the control of a set of educational procedures. But education by the nature of its structure resists such control.

Then too, one must remember that educators have a ready made clientele. Students do not come to educators because they voluntarily want their services as they do in other professions.

The vast majority of individuals enrolled in our educational institutions do not have the option of selecting school X, program Y and teacher Z because they best fulfill their particular educational needs. In essence educators do not have to demonstrate competence, unless we assume that teacher education programs weed out the incompetent, to build a self-sustaining practice. The clients for the practice are already established before even a novice practitioner of education has one day's experience.

To ask what will happen to a medical doctor if his patients are never healed is not the same as asking, as some accountability advocates propose, what will happen to educators if their children do not learn? A doctor will soon be without a practice. Educators will retain their positions regardless of what happens to their students.

To be blunt, attempts to professionalize education through accountability is analogous to beating a dead horse. It is to no avail.

How is Accountability to be Defined

The spectrum of accountability is multicolored. Every spokesman either for or against accountability seems to have his own unique conception of what the topic really means. A reader investigating the subject for the first time is immediately confused with a host of different views, schemes and definitions. Where to turn next to unravel the tangle of definitions is a real question those interested in accountability must face. With relatively little effort one could locate over fifty different definitions and types of educational accountability in the professional journals and literature. Goal, process, teacher, outcome, program, transactions and cost are all modifiers that precede accountability. A philosophical analysis could be written on the meaning of these words alone. For the sake of brevity, suffice it to say that this maze of words contradicts the principle of clarity and quantification for which accountability stands. The reader of accountability is left to his own inferences and intuition as to what each word means and how they interrelate. Are intuition, subjective impressions and unverified testimony not what accountability is fighting against?

To say that the definitions of accountability have been vague and imprecise is to understate the problem. It might be more appropriate to ask if a clear understanding of the problem is possible considering the complexities of the term. The problem seems to be that accountability is very much like other abstract virtues such as patriotism and goodness. It is easy to say I am for it but when you

ask what it is you are for you cannot say. Accountability is not amenable to factual description. Therefore, if educational accountability is not readily definable do we need to introduce another ambiguous concept into an already overly ambiguous field? Alkin (1972) says, "How can a word that literally means everything mean anything?"

An unanticipated ramification of this lack of clarity has been that accountability has taken on a negative connotation. School personnel, especially teachers, feel that accountability is being used as punishment for not competently performing their jobs. As a consequence teachers are resistant to its implementation. The essential question then becomes whether or not accountability can be implemented if teachers are not receptive to the idea?

Accountability's Major Focus -

Holding Teachers Responsible

Accountability comes under a multitude of headings and disguises. The confusion over the vast number of such definitions has been previously mentioned in this paper. Since teachers seem to be most directly affected by the trends of accountability the current issues relating to teacher accountability will be singled out for analysis and discussion.

In practically all systems of accountability Lessinger (1970) has pointed out that teachers are held primarily responsible for outcomes, hence the term outcome accountability.

Outcome accountability is the most widely emphasized form of educational accountability. It is synonymous with the concept of holding teachers responsible for what happens in their classrooms

as a result of an education process. It is fraught with inconsistencies.

Outcome Accountability

Barro (1970) said accountability means that people operating a school system "should be held responsible for educational outcomes - for what people learn." This statement is typical of others found in the literature on educational accountability. It has a scholarly ring but its vagueness renders it practically meaningless. Inherent in the statement is an overwhelming lack of specificity. In fact, Barro's statement reminds one of the same questions encountered by a homosexual from Khartoum who carried a lesbian to his motel room. The question is who has the right, to do what, with which and to whom. Simply stated, what people are responsible for what part of the "elusive thing" we call a student's education.

For example, how much of the total responsibility for educating someone lies with the school board, superintendent, principal, guidance counselor, classroom teacher, parents, or that someone himself. Is it not reasonable to assume that each is accountable to some extent for a certain aspect of the educational program? Then proponents of accountability might be wise to specify, in something other than a vague hierarchy, the extent to which each is responsible.

Specifically, who will say exactly what the teacher's responsibility is for a child's understanding of arithmetic computation skills? If practice sets are assigned by the teacher as a necessary part of becoming skilled on the objective and the child refuses to do the practice exercises then who is responsible? Can the teacher be held accountable for this child's apparent lack of motivation on some vague

grounds that she is an uninspiring educator? What about the parents' responsibility? Is it their duty to monitor every homework assignment given to their child?

Then occasionally real dilemmas occur. Suppose a publisher of instructional materials distributes a product that increases proficiency in arithmetic computation. All materials are used in precisely the specified way but the child's skills do not increase. Who is to be held accountable under these circumstances? The publisher because the materials did not do what they purported to do? The teacher because of some unverifiable bias against the materials? The system curriculum specialist for advising that the materials be bought?

Consequently, to advocate accountability is not just to advocate an all embracing generic term. Accountability actually means accountable for what, accountable to whom and accountable for how much. Implicit in the term accountability is that someone knows what others are accountable for. Otherwise people that support such a system would be putting themselves in the awkward position of being for something but at the same time not knowing exactly what it is they are for.

To whom, for what, and for precisely how much are the most fundamental questions that must be answered before a system of educational accountability is to have sustenance. The less obvious discrepancies which will be analyzed in the following presentation reveals even more difficult problems before we presume to hold teachers accountable for educational outcomes.

Paramount among these problems is how to resolve differences of opinion among teachers and administrators concerning the relative importance of desired educational outcomes. It is not to assume that because of their widely divergent views on education are going to emphasize different skills and abilities. The following is illustrative of this point. One teacher may feel the need to stress the acquisition of knowledge, another the understanding of generalizations and concepts, another the synthesis and application, and yet another the critical judgment. This divergent emphasis on what should be taught leads to some critical questions regarding the goals and objectives of education. Which of these skills is to be considered more important? Who decides which one is to receive priority? What percentage of each should be emphasized and is this percentage uniform for all subjects in each grade level throughout the entire school system? Is the same criterion reference to be applied to each teacher's classroom regardless of her level of students? Again, at the expense of redundancy, could teachers agree on the emphasis and priority of educational outcomes?

Presuppose for a moment that they can. The problem of evaluation now comes to the forefront. How are educational outcomes most often evaluated? Educators, perhaps for practical reasons such as lack of skills in test construction or time pressures, depend almost entirely on nationally-normed tests to evaluate student progress and the relationship of that progress to teacher competencies. However, to make judgments about student achievement and teacher abilities based on a standardized test is to involve one's self in a highly questionable practice. This is true first of all because the nationally-normed test is in itself a misnomer. A nationally-normed test usually means

the norms were established on a few thousand students in the urban centers of the North, a small sample in the mid-west, and the remainder in California. Does this really mean the test is nationally-normed? Can the students in Crawfordsville, Georgia be accurately evaluated by these standards?

In fairness to standardized tests they can not be all things to all people. The problem does not lie with the tests but the manner in which they are used. A nationally-normed test usually provides only a single, global measure on a very general objective. Therefore, these tests may fail to assess objectives that relate specifically to a certain school system if they are not selected and used with caution. For instance, it is possible for a teacher to be very effective on any number of objectives with her students but this effectiveness will never be recorded by the very general assessment of a standardized test. In many cases these tests are simply too insensitive to pick up the minute but nonetheless important educational goals. Klein (1972) said "using a nationally-normed test to evaluate teacher performance and student achievement is like using a bathroom scale to weigh a letter for its correct postage." Certainly the obtained results in comparison to what is really the case are open to question.

Some proponents of accountability counter this argument by saying that educational goals should be defined narrowly so they readily lend themselves to measurement. Just as there is a danger of measuring too broadly there is an equal danger in defining educational goals too narrowly for the sake of measurement. This danger is that educational outcomes will become so constricted that they fail to contribute anything worthwhile to a child's education.

Implicit in the foregone discussion is that accountability can be implemented only in areas where valid and reliable criterion have been developed for each specific educational goal. Otherwise educators open themselves to all kinds of perfectly logical attacks that accountability is a feasible way of imposing educational responsibility.

Accountability advocates would be hard pressed on logical and empirical grounds to show that they can accurately measure such fundamental notions as acquisition of information and knowledge of subject matter. What about accurate measurement of the more intangible goals of our educational programs of which the following are exemplary?

1. The student's ability and confidence in himself to apply abstract subject matter learned in the classroom to concrete real life situations. There is a difference between knowing and doing.
2. The student's feeling that there is worth in doing the subject matter once it has been mastered.
3. The student's motivation and pursuit of the subject matter once the formal instruction has been stopped.

While it is at best difficult to measure knowledge and information, it is practically impossible to assess motivation to learn, application of knowledge, and personal usage of ideas learned in school.

But, suppose for a moment that we do have sufficiently valid and reliable instruments to measure our educational objectives. The question now is to specify what is a year's progress in a year's time for student X, in class Y, at school Z? A year's progress in a year's time does not mean the same to a teacher whose class begins the school year below grade level as it does to one whose class begins

the school year at or above grade level. Proponents of accountability counter this argument by saying that statistical adjustment for initial differences in student abilities resolves this problem. Are we to assume from this that the analysis of covariance or multiple regression statistical techniques can adjust for differences in the quality of living standards to which different students are exposed? What about the amount of understanding and support students receive from parents to pursue their educational interests? Can statistics adjust for the rewards or punishments children receive for their motivation to learn?

A year's progress in a year's time with all of its confounding variables is no simple educational matter. Yet it's one that cannot be disregarded when educators attempt to implement a system of educational accountability.

Summary

Regardless of what method or system of educational accountability one feels best to strengthen our schools it is likely to be fraught with difficulties. Yet these problems have no clear cut answers because of the diverse nature of the field of education. A particular problem of any accountability system seems to be the emphasis on measurement and evaluation with an ensuing loss of quality of teaching and learning. Literally, some accountability schemes require so much evaluation time that little is left for instruction. At the same time this seems to be contradictory since the aim of accountability is to strengthen rather than to weaken our educational system. However, in recognition that the aim of accountability is to strengthen rather than to weaken our educational system. However, in recogni-

tion that the aim of accountability is to improve and strengthen education it should be continued. But if we presume to assign responsibility to educators for what happens to students via some vaguely defined educational process then many questions must first be answered. To whom, for what, and how much are seemingly simple questions; however, when these questions are applied to accountability they take on a complexity hitherto unmatched in education.

REFERENCES

- Alkin, M. D. "Accountability Defined" Evaluation Comment, 1972, v. 3, pp.1-5.
- Barro, S. M. "An approach to developing measures for the public schools" Phi Delta Kappan, 1970, v. 52, pp. 196-205.
- Beatty, W. H. (Ed.) Improving educational assessment and an inventory of measures of affective behavior. Washington: Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969.
- Klein, S. P. "Evaluating teachers for outcome accountability" Evaluation Comment, 1972, v. 3, pp. 5-11.
- Lessinger, L. "Engineering accountability for results in public education" Phi Delta Kappan, 1970a, v. 52, pp. 217-225.
- Lessinger, L. "Accountability in public education" Today's Education, 1970G, v. 59, pp. 52-53.
- Lessinger, L. Every Kid a Winner. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1970.
- Lieberman, M. "An overview of accountability" Phi Delta Kappan, 1970, v. 52, pp. 194-195.
- Rösenshine, B. and McGaw, B. "Issues in assessing teacher accountability in public education" Phi Delta Kappan, 1972, v. 53, pp. 640-643.