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SUCCESS-FAILURE CONFIGURATIONS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Dan E. Inbar

No planning process is complete without stages of evaluation, feedback, and learning. This is true for rational, consensual, and political models (Adams, 1991). Each of the various planning approaches carries with it a different process of evaluation, different in time, scope, and orientation. But all of them are related to an end result, to an image of some future effect which may be assessed. The main argument of this discussion is that images of success or failure of the planning-implementation cycle will influence the planning process itself.

How can success be distinguished from failure? Can planning outcomes be defined in terms of success and failure? How, and to what degree, do different configurations of success and failure influence planning processes? These questions pose a challenge with which to begin this discussion.

A two-step approach will be pursued here, first, proposing the conceptual frame of reference with its broader theoretical implications and second, applying it to educational planning. Operatively, the main purposes of this discussion are (a) to identify the components which determine success and failure thresholds; (b) to develop a success-failure framework; (c) to apply the analytical framework to analyze some basic planning climates; (d) to present some preliminary propositions for future discussion.

The classic dichotomy between success and failure is hardly applicable in the analysis of outcomes of educational planning which reflect performance and effects as complex social processes. Having a dichotomized situation requires clear definitions of success and failure, definitions that are too often beyond the reach in many planning processes. Most problems in educational planning can be described, using Rittel and Webber's distinctions (1973), as "wicked" rather than "tame": They are not based on unequivocal formulations, they have no clear end rules, solutions to these problems have no immediate or ultimate test, and the evaluation of outcomes of these types of problems rests on value-based judgement. Consequently, the basic point here is that the conventional dichotomy between failure and success is not applicable in analyzing performance and results of such complex social processes as educational planning.¹

The Success Failure-Threshold Scale

Instead of an either-or dichotomy, a threefold classification is proposed here (Inbar, 1980): unequivocal failure, "satisficing" (March & Simon, 1958, p. 140), and unequivocal success. Although viewed as existing along a continuum, this classification is demarcated by failure and success thresholds. The configurations of these differential thresholds will yield four basic planning climates to be identified and analyzed.

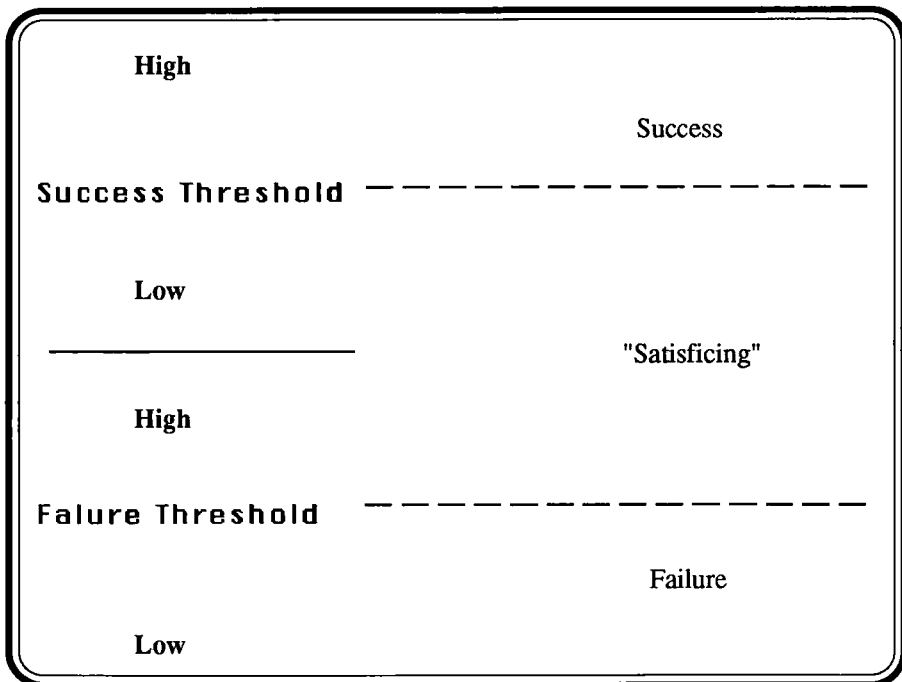
¹ I am deeply indebted to the important comments of the reviewers. Most research in the analysis of success and failure refers to the McClelland et al. (1953) theory of achievement motivation, according to which activity is directed towards the attainment of some standard of excellence, complemented by studies on fear of failure, or the failure-avoidance motive (Atkinson & Litwin, 1960; Atkinson, 1964; Vernon, 1969; Weiner, 1972). These studies, by employing what is essentially a conflict model, define the behavior toward achievement-related tasks as a configuration of the two conflicting motives, achievement and failure-avoidance, which are essentially based on a dichotomized situation of either success or failure. Some researchers added probabilities, i.e. risk, but still have a dichotomized situation (Feather, 1961; Moulton, 1965).

The failure threshold is defined as a level below which planning performance and results are unequivocally considered as failure. In other words, one has to pass above the failure threshold in order not to consider the planning exercise as failure. However, doing so does not yet mean that success has been achieved. Success requires that the success threshold be passed, a level beyond which planning performance and results are unequivocally considered as success or outstanding performance.

Success is not and cannot be considered the direct converse of failure. Rather, both failure and success may be considered clearly sanctioned behaviors. Since sanctions are reciprocal to role expectations (Parsons, 1951), we are dealing here with role-behavior which is beyond the normative expectations for an incumbent of a certain position. Planners have a set of expectations to follow; they have to behave within certain expected ranges of normative behavior bound by failure and success thresholds. Between the two thresholds, performance and outcomes are considered to be satisfactory to varying degrees in that they represent what is normatively expected. By applying March and Simon's definition of satisfactory and their concept of "satisficing" (1958), it is possible to view this level as a function of the existence of a set of criteria which describe the minimally satisfactory performance or results for which the planners may be held accountable. The importance of the "satisficing" area is that it allows a space for activity which is not characterized as success or failure.

Although the threefold classification is treated as a continuum, and only the accumulation of small incremental changes along the continuum will yield discernable success-failure situations, distinguishable success and failure thresholds have to be determined. In the last analysis every performance can reach the point where success-failure situations may be distinguished. Graphically, this can be presented in the following conceptual frame:

Fig. 1. The Success-Failure Frame of Reference



In order not to leave the success and failure thresholds as intuitive and subjective concepts, four criteria will be offered, and on the basis of their combination the thresholds of failure and success will be determined. The four criteria are: standards, evaluability, sensitivity, and visibility.

Standards are a measure or criterion by which performance and results are judged. Naturally, the level of the threshold is directly related to the level of the standards. The higher the standards of failure and success the higher their thresholds.

Practically, we are looking for two sets of standards: standards of failure and standards of success. In between we face the “satisficing” area. Consequently, in this case the “satisficing” area will be broad.

Evaluability refers to the degree to which performance and outcomes can actually be monitored and assessed. In other words, evaluability is the degree by which the standards are defined and measurable. When evaluability is low, i.e., standards are difficult to measure, holding standards constant, the success threshold will be high and the failure threshold will be low. When evaluation is difficult, it will be similarly difficult to fail or succeed.

Sensitivity is determined by the degree to which the standard scale, on the one hand, and the evaluation measurement process, on the other, are refined and sensitive enough to indicate small differences in performance and outcomes. Its influence on the thresholds is similar to that of evaluability.

Visibility is defined as the degree to which performance is visible and outcomes are directly noticeable. Often standards have no factual existence, they are only a matter of idealization, are vague and subject to public approval, like “educational improvements,” “better education,” or “more equality.”

According to the “wicked” type of problems with which educational planning is confronted, visibility becomes a most important variable. We are dealing here with perceptions, and such perceptions largely govern our behavior.

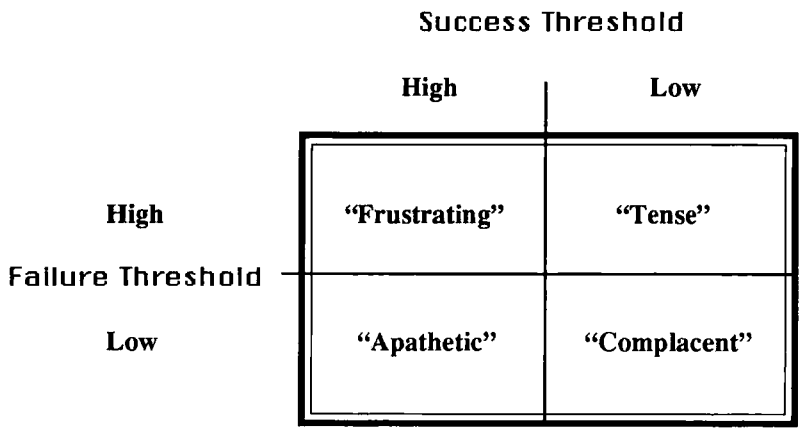
The importance of visibility may be demonstrated by the fact that people tend to assess performance and consequences according to the perceived most salient outcomes, when consequential standards are vague or evaluability and sensitivity are low. Furthermore, visibility attaches a subjective and political weight to the objective consequential standards, thus endowing them with social meaning. Politics is often more concerned with what is seen and is perceived to have immediate effect than with hidden outcomes, even if they are the important ones. By itself, visibility will tend to emphasize the extremes, the success as well as failure, thereby lowering the success threshold and raising the failure threshold, shifting the “satisficing” area upwards.

The combination of evaluability, sensitivity and visibility can be viewed as the salient dimension of planning, characterizing their unique profiles, and determining individual threshold configurations of planning, yielding varying gaps between the thresholds. The main point is that the magnitude of these gaps may differ, yielding, in turn, variations in the conceptual frame. These different variations will be analyzed as different planning climates.

Planning Climates

It is clear that by employing all possible combinations of the different levels of the success-failure thresholds the result would be endless variations of success-failure configurations. Although the boundaries between the three levels--failure, “satisficing” and success--are often vague, it nevertheless provides a useful way of distinguishing among four basic organizational climates. Since the “satisficing” area is a function of the distance between the success-failure threshold, it will vary in the four extreme cases.

Fig. 2. Planning Climates



A “frustrating” planning climate is obtained when both failure and success thresholds are high. Operatively, this means that much effort is needed in order not to fail, but at the same time since the success threshold is also very high, it becomes virtually impossible to be conspicuously successful in the planning process. In this case, the “satisficing” area is relatively high. Hence, in the long run, such a situation tends to be a frustrating venture.

An “apathetic” planning climate is created when there is a wide gap between the failure and success thresholds, the failure threshold being very low and the success threshold very high. This implies a situation in which it is very hard to fail, when almost any effort is good enough not to fail. Simultaneously, though, it is almost impossible to obtain outstandingly successful results. Almost everything done falls into the “satisficing” area, being normatively expected. Such a situation tends to result in an “apathetic” orientation toward planning and, in the long run, will reinforce mediocrity.

A “tense” planning climate is obtained when failure and success thresholds are relatively close together. Operatively, this means a relatively high failure threshold, a relatively low success threshold, and a very narrow area of “satisficing” behavior. Since planning is always related to a high degree of uncertainty regarding outcomes, there is a high probability of reaching either unequivocal failure or unequivocal success. Therefore, a state of tension can be anticipated.

A “complacent” planning climate is obtained when both failure and success thresholds are low, resulting in a planning exercise in which failure will be almost impossible, little effort will be needed to pass the failure threshold, while at the same time it will be relatively easy to achieve unequivocal success. The expected demands are low and it is easy to obtain a “satisficing” situation. Assuming that a certain level of tension, as a source of motivation and action, is indeed characteristic of and vital to any activity, we prefer to view this situation as “complacent” rather than as “supportive.”

Planning processes are complex by nature. They are configurations of various components, such as defining a problem, searching for information, developing alternatives, and assessing them. Each of the components may involve different failure and success thresholds. Thus, the analysis of one combined threshold for the whole planning exercise would actually reflect the notion of a threshold-average, which might be useful in a generalized analysis, but will restrict more basic insights into an understanding of planning processes. It may even be totally misleading.

It may be possible to distinguish clear and unequivocal thresholds for certain planning components while for others thresholds may be vague and ambiguous. There may be clear and unequivocal standards for failure, for instance, numbers of dropouts, while the thresholds for success are not clear, since not dropping out does not yet mean successful learning. Hence, there may be planning components with different levels of failure and/or success thresholds, yielding varying climates for different components. Furthermore, and this may be one of the more significant characteristics of the planning process, failure and success may each be evaluated through entirely different criteria and standards, not by simply employing the same standards on one polarized scale.

Matters may be even more complicated when different people at a variety of hierarchical levels perceive differently and employ varying standards of failure and success for the same processes or outcomes. Thus, planners might be hampered by the multiplicity of perceptions regarding failure and success which imply an unstable role definition, with vague expectations reflected in changes in the “satisficing” zone. And, since planning processes and outcomes are subject to the multiple perceptions of planning climates, and since all planning exercises are built around expectations, differences and discrepancies in expectations may be a source of exigency, tension or even conflict.

Discussion Propositions

These different planning climates are presumed to influence those who are engaged in the planning process in their attitude toward planning, yielding plans that reflect and respond to the various planning climates. From the analysis so far some preliminary propositions about such behavior and preferences may be derived.

Proposition A: Planning exercises will tend to avoid those planning components which are characterized by frustrating planning climates. Issues where success will be difficult to attain and which need marked effort not to fail, i.e., risky planning issues, will be delayed, even though the issue at stake might be very important. For instance, planning toward more parental involvement in education is an issue for which success is difficult to achieve, but for which parents have high expectations, resulting in a relatively high failure threshold, where it would be relatively easy to fail, thereby yielding a frustrating climate.

Proposition B: During the planning process, planning components which have clear and unequivocal thresholds will be preferred, rather than components with ambiguous thresholds. Various combinations can be obtained here, for example, planning toward a higher success level of students in standardized tests, outcomes that are visible and measurable. Even though outcomes of educational testing are symptoms of other processes, the emphasis will be mainly on the measurable and visible outcomes rather than on latent measures such as motivation, parental support, and public involvement, as important as these are. Or emphasis may be put on planning toward a balanced budget, which often seems to represent successful planning and management.

Likewise, if failure and success are defined in a dissimilar fashion, the emphasis will be on those components with the clearest definition, either failure or success. This proposition, from a different viewpoint, is essentially what had been argued in March and Simon’s “Gresham’s Law” of planning, in which they describe the tendency to replace intangible goal activities with more defined, prescribed and sanctioned activities, i.e., “the greater the clarity of goals associated with an activity, the greater the propensity to engage in it” (1958, p. 18). This may be related to the tendency to prefer evaluation focussed on certain components which is often falsely perceived as characterizing the formative approach of evaluation (Scriven, 1991). The key difference between component evaluation and dimensional evaluation is that “dimensions

are pervasive throughout an evaluation, and components are a spatio-temporally separate region of it” (Scriven, 1991, p. 43). Hence, there is not only the preference for component evaluation, but for combining with the concentration on those components which are perceived to be visible and measurable, and have clear and unequivocal thresholds.

Proposition C: During the planning process components for which there are conflicting threshold perceptions will tend to be avoided. In other words, there will be a tendency to avoid being engaged in programs which are politically debatable, knowing that they will be considered by some groups as complete failures. The problem is aggravated in education since there are many goals which are in conflict with one another and at the same time are legitimate. For example, even if equality and excellence or desegregation and achievement are in conflict, they are all legitimate educational goals.

Proposition D: In the same way, if evaluation criteria are not predetermined, or there are different criteria to choose from, a process of criteria-scanning, a search for the tangible, measurable and visible will be emphasized.

Proposition E: In “tense” and “frustrating” planning climates the tendency will be to prefer formative rather than summative evaluation, but not for obvious reasons. It is not the orientation to support the process of improvement which leads to a preference for a formative approach, but rather to avoid one of the functions of the summative evaluation which is to show accountability (Scriven, 1991). The opposite may be true for “complacent” and “apathetic” climates. Here the tendency will be to prefer summative evaluation. Furthermore, in “tense” and “frustrating” planning climates the false tendency to view formative evaluation as a much more informal process rather than the summative approach will be strengthened. It is the false view of the “friendly formative” image which is often related to the idea that formative evaluation can be done entirely internally, and facilitated by a piecemeal approach with no threatening overall conclusion (Scriven, 1991).

Planning Climates and Individual Characteristics

The propositions discussed here, largely structural and organizational, are based on two underlying assumptions which in themselves may be questionable. The first underlying assumption questioned is whether similar threshold levels imply similar meanings. Obviously, since failure and success thresholds, as discussed above, constitute configurations of four variables—standards, evaluability, sensitivity, and visibility—different configurations might lead to similar threshold levels, although with varying implications. Consequently, a new set of more complex, refined propositions may be postulated. These propositions allow for relative weighing of the four variables, for instance, visibility versus standards, evaluability, and sensitivity, implying the importance of the “hello” effect. The second underlying assumption which may be questioned is whether people are similarly motivated. Since decades of research in motivation point to the contrary, propositions may be repostulated according to the interrelationship between individual motivation and action which, in turn, may affect the propositions discussed above.

Some preliminary propositions relating to individual characteristics may be put forward, although these are still somewhat generalized.

Proposition F: Planners with a high achievement motive and a low failure avoidance motive will tend to avoid “satisficing” behavior and emphasize planning components which are characterized by the “tense” planning climate.

Based on the interrelationship between achievement motivation and the attempts to obtain the esteem of others, i.e., the correlation between achievement motive and importance of prestige, another proposition can be derived.

Proposition G: Planners driven by a political orientation will tend to emphasize those planning components in which high visibility determines their threshold configuration, pursuing plans for which results are noticeable.

Planning Climates and Rituals

Since the educational system, like most organizations, tends toward preservation of its contemporary processes and structures (Cuban, 1984), an inclination to avoid "tense" planning climates, i.e., risky plans, although they might imply high promise, is to be expected. On the other hand, since any educational planning exercise needs public and political support, it must be noticeable. Being publicized, though, will tend to raise expectations, raising the perceived failure threshold, which increases the danger of perceived failure. One way of overcoming this dilemma would be an emphasis on making visible those planning components which will not have a direct effect on increasing the perceived failure threshold, or, on the contrary, emphasizing those components which will affect the perceived success threshold by decreasing it, thus making perceived success more probable.

This can be done by making visible the planning efforts without raising expectations about outcomes, by devoting, for instance, much visible effort at the stage of information gathering and the development of alternatives, or by artificially increasing the importance of "satisficing" outcomes.

Similarly, emphasizing the difficulties, the inherent problems of education, will lower the failure threshold. And if success standards are kept either low or vague, by using generalized planning targets such as improvement, lowering the rate of student failure, increasing parental support, etc., the probability for a "frustrating" climate can be minimized. From a different angle, employing Rittel and Webber's (1973) distinctions of "wicked" and "tame" educational problems, the artificially increased evaluability of plans can be seen as a process of "taming" the planning process to fit it to the preferred planning climate.

In practice, the "apathetic" planning climate is related to the tendency to rename problems in a way that will give the impression that solutions are available and obtainable, perceiving "satisficing" results as success. But, one has to be careful not to assume a cure by naming the problem, by labelling old problems with new titles. Labelling might become part of the problem. For instance, special programs for the unsuccessful or preventive programs can be seen as part of the problem. The effect of labels can be immense, for they call for plans which tend to strengthen contemporary situations.

Planners are often caught between the need to build plans around expectations, which implies new promises and the drive for accountability, and the need to show that these promises have attainable solutions. This might lead to the development of ritualistic planning exercises. Ritualistic plans are characterized by a clear disconnection between their announced goals and their actual outputs. It is not a matter of poor management or cumulative mistakes, but of an a priori incompatibility. Ritualistic plans offer unattainable goals, either in terms of the capacities of the target population or the system's own inputs and processes. Obviously success cannot be attained in this case, but one cannot fail either. Often "satisficing" is perceived as success, but worse, failure may be artificially transformed to "satisficing."

In the short run, ritualistic plans have their functions. From a social perspective they may have a tranquilizing effect. They serve as a representation of promises, avoiding the risks inherent in educational planning. They provide an impression of keeping promises without really changing anything.

Educational planning is highly vulnerable to the dangers of ritualism. It has often been driven by a tendency to be treated as a rational mechanism and a concrete process. Planning often functions as a process of legitimation, "a ceremony that an organization must conduct

periodically to maintain its legitimacy” (Bolman & Deal, 1984). And suddenly, planners are caught in distressing and uncomfortable planning climates and are engaged in a ritualistic process serving as a rationale for incompetency.

Summary

The proposed conceptual frame suggests a chain of arguments. First, perceptions of success and failure shape planning climates. Second, such climates influence the planning process, yielding different emphases of planning components, or different plans altogether. Third, since the behavior is also reflected by motivation, different planners may react differently to the planning climates.

The combined analysis of the threefold failure-"satisficing"-success classification as related to the organizational and political dimensions of educational planning and to the individual level of success-failure motive has still to be further developed and studied.

The planning climates classification might be an interesting avenue for understanding planning behaviors we encounter and the different motivations of planners to emphasize distinct aspects of educational plans.

A word of caution: Most analyses of the educational planning process as a complex organizational phenomenon resemble observations through a magnifying glass. The analysis focuses on certain variables, and although they interact with other elements as part of a complex phenomenon, they tend to be analyzed in relative isolation and to become exaggerated, frequently disproportionately. Since our analysis focuses on certain select elements of the planning process, i.e. perceived success and failure thresholds, this reservation should be taken into consideration. Furthermore, the conceptual frame of reference contains some speculative arguments and lacks empirical evidence. It should, therefore, be considered a departure point, intended to raise issues rather than to solve problems. As a set of propositions, it should be seen as a springboard to further research.

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AN ASSESSMENT: TEACHING EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION COURSES OVER A STATEWIDE INTERACTIVE VIDEO NETWORK

Ronald Stammen, Dennis W. Van Berkum and Andrew J. Keogh

Results of a survey conducted in the upper Midwest found that school administrators place a high priority on telecommunications because they feel it will help eliminate equity-and-access barriers in rural areas. They recognize the need to help expand their teachers' thinking toward change, adaptation, and implementation of telecommunication projects. These administrators admit they have much to learn. They lack time for proper implementation, but appear to be committed to start using these technologies. The infrastructure for telecommunications appears to be in place for these rural areas to utilize these opportunities (Stammen, 1991, 1992).

Like most of these school districts surveyed, the North Dakota University/Tri-College University (NDSU/TCU) Educational Administration Program also recognized it lacks proper goals to implement and use new communication technologies in training administrators. This prompted the faculty of NDSU/TCU's Educational Administration Program to assess its situation regarding its current plan for utilization of the Interactive Video Network (IVN) made available by the North Dakota University System.

It was decided to assess the extent to which the first-year experiences and trials served the purpose of the Educational Administration Program and its mission. It was also decided to use the knowledge gained from this active research to establish goals for long-term and effective utilization of IVN to enhance the 20-year tradition of meeting the educational needs of North Dakota school administrators through the Master's and Specialist degree programs in educational administration on a statewide basis. This year of service utilizing telecommunications media was, in essence, the first phase of service to prospective administrators using the North Dakota Interactive Video Network (ND IVN).

Purpose of this Assessment

The purpose of this assessment was to outline successes and barriers found by the NDSU/TCU faculty during the first year they used the NDIVN system. They used this system to provide courses which helped graduate students across the state meet requirements of certification, master's degree and/or specialist degree. The assessment information will be used to make recommendations regarding the future use of this distance education opportunity.

The faculty planned the extent to which the programs would be offered across the state prior to establishing scheduled courses. Questions arose concerning the appropriateness of specific classes to the system. Rather than offer the entire program, it was decided to select courses in demand determined by inquiries and discussions at regional schoolmaster meetings. The on-site university campus committee coordinated departmental requests with the statewide University system committee in charge of bookings and policies. The University IVN operation is serviced by an array of committees within and between colleges and universities. They eventually report to the Higher Education Telecommunications Advisory Committee (HETAC) of the North Dakota University System (NDUS) which has the responsibility of network development and operation.

Eight such courses were successfully completed during a one-year period consisting of four quarters, including NDSU/TCU's traditional summer session which includes two 1-week intersessions and two 4-week sessions. The opportunity to initiate this pilot endeavor was taken

as soon as permission was granted by the ND IVN governing unit. Consequently, the first course was held during the winter quarter of 1990-91. The last course offering covered in this assessment concluded in the fall quarter of 1991. Table 1 provides the numbers and names of these courses, along with the number of students enrolled both on the North Dakota State University (NDSU) Campus (the sending site) and the number of students taking courses at the receiving sites in North Dakota.

Table 1
Educational Administration Courses taught over IVN Winter 1990-1991 Through Fall 1991 by Tri-College University

Quarters Receiving 1990-1991	Courses Taught via IVN Course		Enrollment On Site	
	Number	Name	NDSU	IVN
Master Level				
Spring 1991	Ed. 531	Teacher and Student Rights	26	1
Summer 1991	Ed. 514	History of American Education	27	4
Summer 1991	Ed. 539	Secondary School Administration	26	1
Fall 1991	Ed. 531	Teacher and Student Rights	14	8
Post-Master's for Credentials and/or Specialist Level				
Fall 1991	Ed. 585	Organization and Administration of Vocational Education	6	9
Winter 1990-1991				
	Ed. 586	School Plant Planning and Maintenance	2	10
Spring 1991	Ed. 590	Seminar: The Superintendency	4	8
Summer 1991	Ed. 596	Organization and Administration of Educational Telecommunication	20	12

Receiving IVN sites were at Williston, Dickinson, Minot, Bismarck, and once at Wahpeton.

The courses shown in Table 2 were offered by faculty on regular campus load assignment. The course scheduled for the winter quarter of 1991-1992, Ed. 534 School Finance, was not included in the assessment. Nor was Ed. 596 Organization and Administration of Educational Telecommunication, scheduled to be offered again in the spring quarter, 1992, through the sponsorship of NDSU Extension Service Continuing Education.

Description of ND IVN

North Dakota is one of the first states to create a statewide system that allows multiple video interactive networking which connects two or more sites. The North Dakota Interactive Video Network (ND IVN) is the first step in a long-range plan to connect all corners of the state using contemporary communications technology (Tykwinski & Poulin, 1991). It consists of 14 interconnected classroom sites located at universities or colleges in 11 cities. The medium is linked with a compressed video interactive system to all state college/university campuses and the State Capitol. It was constructed during the 1989-1990 school year with the majority of funding coming from a Federal Rural-Health grant. This fact gives Rural Health project classes the top priority for scheduling as shown in Table 2.

The furthestmost point-to-point distance is 413 miles (Wahpeton to Williston). This video system is a digital system which utilizes codex to transmit two-way audio and video over leased telephone lines. IVN addresses the access issue by enabling administrators in the western part of North Dakota to be able to attend evening and weekend classes by traveling only one to two hours like their counterparts located in the Red River Valley area.

Events in each priority shown on Table 2 are scheduled on a first-come, first-served basis. Degree programs which offer all their credit classes over the network are granted Priority 2. The NDSU/TCU Educational Administration Program has a Priority 3 for scheduling purposes and cannot advertise until 60 days before the first meeting date because of the possibility of being canceled due to a lower priority. Events tentatively scheduled prior to other events in the same priority are confirmed after the maximum number of days for that priority has passed.

Table 2

Priorities Established by the North Dakota University System and the Higher Education Telecommunications Advisory Committee (HETAC)

Priority	Event Type	Maximum Days
1	Rural Health Project Classes	90
2	Credit Classes for Degree Program	90
3	Other Credit Classes	60
4	Extension programs, other noncredit classes and professional development seminars	59
5	Other Programs	59

Source: HETAC Program/Policy Subcommittee IVN Meeting - 1/30/91

Literature Review

School leaders wanting change are confronted with the dilemma that teachers do not have time to step out of their normal routine to take advantage of new and/or enhanced technologies to reach and educate their students in different ways (Goodspeed, 1989; St. Clair, 1989).

1. Telecommunication technology which is a passive linear technology (one-way delivery) such as radio, audiotape, broadcast television, and videotape, is classified as Level I.
2. Level II classification is for telecommunication technologies which are interactive communications (two-way communications) like radio-correspondence, telephone, computer and modem, interactive video disks, instructional television fixed services (ITFS), two-way audio and visual via satellite, or electronic mail between micro-computers.
3. Level III classified telecommunication technologies are an integration between passive linear and interactive communications such as utilizing video disks with full-motion video which query and respond, one-way satellite backed by teleconferencing or computer-conferencing network with a correspondence course.

McCain (1991) emphasizes that the new definition of telecommunications encompasses what has been known as separate mediums. That is, it combines telephone technologies, the television technologies, and the computer technologies into a multimedia distance education delivery system. McNeil (1990) summarized the following to illustrate the barriers and issues which impede usage of such technologies in university settings:

1. Technical barriers: They cover the lack of standards and technological incompatibility. For distance learning, there are two inherent problems: providing the student with sufficient educational resources, and providing timely feedback from the teacher to the student.
2. Structural barriers: They include budgeting policies, lack of incentives, training, or technical support, poor support service, financial resources, access or disproportionate access, extra time it requires to use technology, and under-utilization.
3. Attitudinal barriers: They focus on human aspects and various forms of faculty resistance to public exposure and off-campus learning, plus poor marketing orientation.

Educators who choose to utilize such telecommunication technologies to reach learners at a distance must work hard, concentrate on more areas and techniques, and embrace larger pedagogical responsibilities (Cohen, 1988; Mody, 1989). Mody also developed the following generic guidelines designed to help provide a philosophical framework which helps establish a proper understanding for competently utilizing these various modes of telecommunication media:

1. Understand the technology delivering the telecommunications.
2. Understand how to tailor-make and customize services for special groups.
3. Understand the capacity of the endeavors undertaken.
4. Understand how to work the content for the programs.
5. Understand that education is a political and economic context.
6. Understand that the active dimension of programming for an audience is simplicity, with an active audience asking questions.
7. Understand that telecommunications takes formative research, segmentation, and augmentation.
8. Understand that telecommunications offers an opportunity to rewrite and reconsider content in order to not "give more of the same" with a new media.

This brief overview of literature provides the knowledge base from which this assessment was developed. The issues and barriers focus on university settings and rural school administrators' perspectives; both relate to the Tri-College University Educational Administration Program's mission and the purpose of this assessment.

Assessment Documentation

The following information was gathered during the equivalent of one year. This timespan consists of four quarters, starting with the 1990-1991 winter quarter and concluding at the end of the 1991 fall quarter. During this time the Tri-College University faculty conducted eight courses over the Interactive Video Network (IVN) to receiving stations at Dickinson, Bismarck, Minot, and Williston. It was transmitted to Wahpeton once.

Viewpoints were acquired from the professors and their students during the times they were engaged in classroom activities over the IVN. These viewpoints were utilized to initiate active research and provide a format to start assessing the situation and services.

Tri-College Educational Administration Professors' Viewpoints

Statements were made by the professors while evaluating what it was like teaching over the ND IVN. One professor cited "fascination" as the first word that comes to mind while reflecting upon having experienced the act of conducting educational administrative courses via IVN. "It is still hard to believe one can help as a facilitator and respond to cooperative-group work questions from a distance of 400 miles. Students from Minnesota providing up-to-date information to students residing near Montana via video-class discussion is a new mode of space-age interaction. It is hard to remember whether you have had a conversation with a student in person or on the IVN. This flies in the face of those who contend that this medium takes away the personalization in education" (Stammen, Pullen, & Van Berkum, July 1991).

Another professor found that "Interpersonal activities seem somewhat constrained; it just has to be dealt with differently. For instance, much is based upon how a professor perceives the practice or parameters of instructing the class. Once one has the technical inhibitions mastered, it becomes easier to accept new challenges to develop ideas for more appropriate presentations skills with the camera, overhead, microcomputer, and on-line videotape recorder, or slide projector."

A third professor indicated that the key in doing this is to devise activities which involve the student with the media to assure appropriate teaching strategies (i. e., having them on the camera, responding, asking questions, and doing small-group tasks). These activities include groups working cooperatively across the network while class is in session. The latter has been done by turning off the host audio so two receiving sites can converse via IVN without disturbing the site with a larger class. The professors admit that this media does seem to limit nonverbal spontaneity. They have had to utilize more delving techniques to assure involvement by students at the receiving sites. Students are often forced to become more verbal. Video has to be utilized more to capture scenes that may normally be accomplished by group site visits at school facilities.

Another advantage cited was that offering a course on IVN to receiving sites around the state makes it easier for a professor to attend meetings farther from home on the days classes are held. For example, a professor taught students in Fargo from the Minot IVN studio while attending a conference being held at Minot.

Faculty members still have concerns. Questions remaining to be answered pertain to scheduling classes as the system becomes more structured and overloaded. Additional instructional concerns are centered on the areas of class time changes, additional preparation, use of technology, technical support, and evaluation procedures.

Views from Tri-College Graduate Students

Thirty-two IVN students developed responses to the question asking what concern, if any, was there in taking this course by this medium. Common concerns were about social isolation for those in receiving areas and the inability to initiate field trips to enhance the course which

focused on interactive telecommunications. They indicated that the highlight was having been given the opportunity to participate in the class across such distances. All indicated they would take such a course again because it was practical. Ninety-one percent (10) of the 11 receiving students in the first educational administration course offered over IVN in the winter quarter enrolled in another IVN course later on. The ability to actually conduct cooperative projects among students over the network was highlighted as one of the positive aspects during a course on school law. Another class's critique called for more cooperative group-exercises during classtime.

On seven different occasions, graduate students would have missed class because they were committed to meetings elsewhere in the state, but the opportunity to attend at an IVN site near their commitment made it possible to attend class.

At the beginning of a winter class, a graduate student walked into the Bismarck facilities. Noticing that he was the only one there when class was about to start, he left, exclaiming, "I'll be damned if I am going to pay \$162 to sit around and watch television!" Three months later at the same site another student remarked, "I wouldn't have minded even if I were the only one in Bismarck. We need to keep IVN classes coming from the universities."

Some on-campus students expressed apprehension as they initially perceived themselves as being an experimental group rather than recipients of the knowledge base. Instructor awareness of attitudinal barriers helped alleviate this concern. An on-site student stated, "I have come to like the system even here in Fargo. It is nice to see a person's face on the television rather than the back of the head when speaking." Another student who had at first declined to be on camera noted it was "neat" to hear a student residing near Montana exchange current educational events with a student residing in central Minnesota.

Resentment was not observed by students at remote sites. As subscribers, they placed a value on the convenience given by such telecommunication connections over great distances to serve their needs. They displayed a commitment to learning through the medium by going out of their way to adjust to difficulties endured by technicians and teachers who were "getting the bugs out of" the system.

Adjustments have also allowed small group interactions to occur just as they would in regular classrooms. The medium has allowed greater opportunity for students to give presentations or provide illustrations during their reports because of the compatibility of the multimedia station. For instance, students quickly learned to utilize the camera on the overhead visual presenter to show maps, architectural drawings, and print-based illustrations or graphs. Student-teacher interactions are the same as the regular classroom once everyone becomes familiar and comfortable with the IVN classroom's instrumentation.

Comparing McNeil's Barriers with Tri-College University's First Phase

In order to assess whether the NDSU/TCU Educational Administration Program addressed common concerns while utilizing the ND IVN system, the three categories of barriers explained by McNeil (1990) were used as an assessment measure. The categories, illustrated in Tables 3 through 5, deal with technical, structural, and attitudinal barriers.

A study commissioned by the North Dakota Telecommunication Council helped in alleviating most technical and many structural barriers at the onset (Federal Engineering, 1990). Once, a power outage stopped a course in progress. At other times, the system has not worked, causing several hours of delay. This technical barrier was encountered when the system was not connected properly. These instances have diminished as administrative coordination and communication improved. It is not possible to have a field trip, but it can be supplemented with video simulating a field trip.

There will always be a struggle to provide the students with sufficient educational resources as it is difficult to anticipate what changes will take place, making it necessary to provide newer or additional resources. There are some difficulties with exchanging papers, administering exams, and utilizing the fax during class. Table 3 addresses this as the barrier to provide timely feedback from teacher to student. Advance preparation and microcomputer-mediated communication (CMC) are beginning to overcome this barrier.

Without CMC it is just not possible to have a drop quiz, preview the quiz responses during a class break, and then provide a collated overview about the degree to which students performed on certain questions or problems. If someone brings in a new publication on a topic being discussed, it is difficult to provide receiving class members with faxed copies because it just takes too long. The fax machine is too noisy to use during class presentation, and it is slow in delivery when spontaneous data is to be shared with students at the receiving sites. Other ways have to be devised to accomplish this type of feedback. For instance, it is possible to use the features available to have tests transmitted via a NeXT computer and printer at each site.

Table 3
Tri-College University Faculty Assessment Regarding Technical Barriers

Barrier	Assessment
Lack of standards	No Problem
Technological incompatibility	No Problem
Providing the student with sufficient educational resources	Some Difficulty* Fax is too noisy and slow to use during class.
Timely feedback from the teacher to the student	Some Difficulty*

*This varied between courses

Structural barriers appeared nonexistent at the onset of IVN as faculties were urged to use the system and experiment in various ways. This fact helped initiate the first phase for several professors at Tri-College University in the fall of 1990. The university network in North Dakota has been providing many opportunities for professors to become familiar with instructional skills and attitudinal aspects regarding the medium (Euller, Gillespie, & Johnson, 1991).

Table 4 shows there is some concern with the barrier concerning support service. NDSU has not established a formal strategy for administration due to changes on campus which designate who is in charge of the IVN. The new director does not have a budget for advertising or promoting such events across the state. As the network was utilized more by the university system throughout the state, the priority levels established created a barrier for Tri-College University. For example, a course is scheduled for March and April in 1992; however, advanced advertising in the catalogues could not be done because it can be canceled and replaced by programs with either a Priority 2 for programs offering all their credit classes for a degree program, or a Priority 1 for Rural Health programs (see Table 2). Thus, Table 4 indicates some problem with access or disproportionate access to utilizing IVN.

The technical support is rated superior as the system operators and assistants made the system work well, but particularly because Dan Pullen, Interactive Television Coordinator for NDSU's School of Education, provided excellent support and training for the NDSU/TCU faculty.

Table 4
Tri-College University Faculty Assessment Regarding Structural Barriers

Barrier	Assessment
Budgeting policies	No Problem
Lack of incentives	This is becoming a problem now that IVN utilization is beyond initial experimentation.
Lack of training	No Problem
Technical support	EXCELLENT
Poor support service	Lack of formal strategy for administration which causes inability to advertise and promote
Financial resources	No Problem
Access or disproportionate access	Problem with having a priority 3 status
Extra time it requires to use technology	No Problem
Underutilization	No Problem

The ND university system utilized a statewide higher education television advisory committee to develop IVN, along with committees for technical planning, academic coordinators, and technical coordinators. The only attitudinal barrier that causes a problem for Tri-College University is that the faculty does have problems marketing their classes because, as indicated in Table 5, the current process puts their courses in the lowest program priority in that category. They are not assured of time and site until 30 days before the event is scheduled.

Table 5
Tri-College University Faculty Assessment Regarding Attitudinal Barriers

Barrier	Assessment
Faculty resistance to public exposure	No Problem
Faculty resistance to off-campus learning priority	No Problem Problems encountered because of having the lowest IVN priority

Innovations

Several innovations have been field-tested during the first four quarters. NDSU/TCU Educational Administration faculty have demonstrated they can elevate ND IVN into the highest form of contemporary distance education technology explained by Gustafson (1989). Both computer conferencing and computer optical video display have been utilized for demonstrations with the NeXT and Macintosh. These technologies have been successfully utilized to project interactive demonstrations with the IVN overhead camera.

Faculty have been using the medium for consulting activities, statewide meetings, and various presentations. Two professors were involved in a team project with personnel at the Computer Center to initiate a K-12 grant to satisfy requirements of a successful National Science Foundation grant application for statewide TCP/IP protocol for all colleges and universities in the state system.

This led to the development of SENDIT in 1992. It is a K-12 and Higher Education statewide electronic-mail and forum-conferencing network. The host computer and server is located at the state instructional Computer Center in Fargo, ND. Statewide training is directed by NDSU/TCU educational administration faculty during a three-year period which will end in 1993. Two-thirds of the schools in the state will have had this training by the spring of 1992 (Stammen, June, 1991).

NDSU/TCU Educational Administration faculty maintain student interaction with SENDIT. This medium provides ways to discuss matters pertaining to IVN classwork, practicums, field study papers, and advisor duties. Graduate students (practicing school administrators) have demonstrated how to access the library via PALS using SENDIT from rural areas 300 miles from North Dakota State University. These demonstrations include accessing libraries nationwide by using SENDIT and Internet access. The IVN has been used to enhance the supervision of the required practicums graduate students are conducting in the field. They have scheduled practicum fairs across the state whereby experiences are shared with a broader range of administrators who would not otherwise travel great distances to attend a meeting of such nature lasting a couple of hours (Van Berkum & Suomala, 1991).

One professor initiated a project in Northwest North Dakota connecting six school districts to an interpersonal computing network which utilizes the NeXT Dimension computing technology (Boswell, 1991). Expertise gained in this project prompted experimentation with this technology while teaching over IVN to accomplish the following:

1. Enlarge (E-Mail) print on the overhead optical camera during demonstrations.
2. Display digital dimensions shown on the monitor.
3. Send fax material to save time and avoid noise while teaching. Likewise, material can be sent via fax to this computer for such distribution.
4. Use interpersonal computing techniques to solve current material and test transmitting problems.

Another professor initiated efforts to use the IVN medium for statewide Leadership in Educational Administration Development (LEAD) activities. They held meetings to develop projects serving the practicing school administrators and to conduct Leadership 123 training sessions.

The IVN is utilized by the professors on a monthly basis to coordinate K-12 activities and business for the Southeast North Dakota (SEND) Educational Telecommunication region and the Northwest Telecommunication Consortium. This includes communication with projects involved with North Dakota's Educational Telecommunication Council.

The TCU Provost led the development of a handbook for IVN utilization. It was funded through a Bremer Foundation grant. Resource people from Colorado and Missouri were utilized during the development (TCU Faculty Handbook, 1990). One of the initiatives at TCU is to connect the Minnesota Val-Ed Consortium interactive video system located at Moorhead State University with ND IVN. This action would expand services to over one-third of Minnesota.

Recommendations

The data gathered in this assessment focused on research concerning successes and barriers during a one-year phase utilizing the Interactive Video Network (IVN) across North Dakota. Thus, the following recommendations suggest ways to stabilize schedules and assure continuity to NDSU/Tri-College customers (students).

1. The NDSU/TCU Educational Administration Program needs at least a Priority 2 schedule status in order to assure a stable IVN service across the state.
2. The NDSU/TCU Educational Administration Program must continue to be offered over the statewide Interactive Video Network in order to reach all master- and specialist-level graduate students who are taking advantage of the opportunity.
3. It is important to utilize experiences and research data obtained during this first phase to develop policies, guidelines, goals, objectives, and a visionary statement outlining what is currently directing this active research. This includes incorporating Mody's suggestions to provide an awareness of the IVN medias, long-term potential.
4. The extra work taken to utilize IVN should be recognized in evaluations and procedures establishing load requirements.
5. The active research data gathered during this first phase at Tri-College University should be immediately utilized to establish research instruments which will yield quantitative results and set the stage for subsequent longitudinal studies.
6. The NeXT Station computer system should be located at each IVN facility to alleviate data transfer problems and enhance demonstration capabilities for the instructor. The interpersonal computing features provide exemplary features such as the following:
 - a. Provide parity in administering tests by sending an icon document to each IVN that can be immediately printed for each student at that site.
 - b. Serve as a host for local area E-mail and other computer-mediated communications which could support SENDIT and reduce telephone costs.

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IMPROVING SMOKE SIGNALS FROM THE GODS

Karen F. Hicks

What is the role of administrators in staff development? The following literature and qualitative study stress assessing the needs of the staff, communicating them effectively to the speaker, and selecting speakers that use a wide variety of oral representations. The study compares 20 in-service presentations from experienced and novice speakers.

If the field of education were compared to a large tribal community, the "experts" in the field would be the gods, and the principals/superintendents on each campus would be the chiefs, with men, women, and children working in their closely knit families. Circular communication among the three levels within the community would be very important: gods to chiefs and chiefs to gods, chiefs to workers and workers to chiefs, and gods to workers and workers to gods. For the latter to be most effective, the communication lines must be open among all three levels of the community with the principal playing the role of the liaison between the gods and the workers. What is the principal's role in enhancing communication between the chiefs and the gods brought to his/her district for continuing staff development? How can the principal increase the chances that the "on-the-spot" god will send smoke signals that will make an impression on his/her faculty? How does he/she adequately assess where his faculty is regarding an educational philosophy? How are presenters prejudged for effective speaking patterns? What is communicated to the presenter before the visit to the school or district?

One of the principal's main roles is to be the instructional leader of the school. Philosophical or instructional changes suggested at staff development sessions to teachers will die a quick death without the support of the principal and/or other staff members. Traditionally, the principal was the person primarily responsible for assessing the needs of the teachers, making the contact with the speaker and helping to plan the design of the workshop. The following literature on figurative language and the study of 20 presentations at literacy conferences for teachers will give some conclusions to help administrators with these decisions.

Principal as Leader of Instructional Change

Change is the only certainty in our society. Change in our schools is necessary to ensure that students will be equipped to handle the future. The classroom teacher is the key to implementation of instructional change. "For schools to improve, teachers must change. For teachers to change, there must be appropriate and promising practices and procedures (e.g., innovations) that they develop or adopt and when necessary, adapt" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 5). Teachers require knowledge as well as the skills to apply this new knowledge in the classroom.

Change is a process, not an event, which occurs over time, according to Hord, Rutherford, Austin, and Hall (1987). Their research has shown predictable stages that an individual teacher goes through in order to implement a change in the classroom (Figure 1, p. 29). Instructional change doesn't zap participants as they take notes or tape lectures at a conference. For some trainees, simply sparking an awareness level of a new concept which will perhaps blossom into understanding and application at a much later date may be the contribution of an in-service training session. In order for a change facilitator to use metaphors that are appropriate to a particular audience, the principal must assess informally or formally where the teachers are concerning a particular educational philosophy and communicate this effectively to the speaker.

Principal As Liaison Between Speaker And Staff

For a staff development workshop to be successful, clear communication must transpire between the change facilitator and the audience. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) asserted that understanding is always relative to the listener's conceptual system that is defined largely by unconscious beliefs or metaphors. Cognition is the result of mental construction on the part of the listener. This theory is termed the "social constructivist" theory of learning. It involves at least two people's ideas: the communicator and the listener. The principal is the liaison between the change facilitator and the staff, assessing where the teachers are and clearly stating this to the presenter.

Teachers come to the training session with a large experiential base both in and out of the classroom. All experiences (academic, social, physical, and psychological) are scaffolded into their cognitive schema. The change facilitator's role is to "hook" the philosophy of the instructional innovation onto previous knowledge that the teacher has stored. The teachers construct the meaning themselves. It is not poured in from an expert source. There is a need to know if change facilitators in education are tapping into the unconscious, metaphorical system.

An effective change facilitator taps orally into where the teacher is regarding knowledge, experience, and teaching philosophy. The explanations offered must fit into the cognitive framework already in place if the innovation is going to "click" with the teacher. The same figurative phrase stated by the change facilitator could have a different meaning or no meaning, depending on the various teachers' experiential base.

This theory of learning has been termed the constructivist theory. From this perspective, teaching and learning are constructed between teachers and students (trainers and trainees), as they interact with one another during the day (Gumperz, 1981). According to the social constructivists ". . . the meanings which are assigned to perceptual data are personally constructed and are shaped by prior knowledge" (Tobin & Espinet, 1989). Language and experience are at the basis of this theory of learning.

It is the principal's job to know the faculty's level of understanding and functioning on an educational philosophy or instructional strategy and to communicate this to an appropriate speaker. This knowledge about the audience allows the change facilitator to generate figurative and literal oral representations that will be understood and will serve as an instigator of change implementation in the classroom.

Overview of the Study

This study involved the description of oral representations in a large group (45+), lecture format to reading and writing teachers. It explored the language patterns that are used to communicate instructional change to primarily elementary/middle school teachers. Are conference presenters using the powerful tools of appropriate figurative language to move the trainees to a new state of concern regarding the educational innovation?

Subjects

The sample was two groups of conference presenters: full-time, experienced teachers of teachers (e.g., university professors, consultants to private companies and school districts), and those whose primary position was something other than the training of teachers (e.g., classroom teachers, librarians and specialty teachers). The latter group was less experienced in the role of being a change facilitator for educational groups. According to a demographics survey, the novice presenters had spoken less than 10 times to in-service training sessions while the experienced group had presented more than 10 times in their career at adult staff-development sessions. There were 20 presentations, and the speakers at the day's general assembly sessions comprised most of the experienced group.

Data Collection

Approximately 60 minutes of 20 conference presentations were audio recorded on-site in front of a group of teachers. The recording equipment enabled the researcher to be a nonparticipant in the data collection and as unobtrusive to the natural context of staff development as possible. Verbatim discourse was recorded as the change facilitator lectured, fielded questions and responded to the teachers in the training session.

The researcher was noninteractive in the process of gathering data which included taping and transcribing. The verbatim presentations were audio recorded in the natural setting of the literacy conference. Low inference descriptors were used since the data collected and typed was from the primary source.

Data Analysis

Approximately 20 hours of literacy conference presentations were transcribed verbatim and analyzed in two ways: numerically as frequency counts and percentages and qualitatively. A surface description reported as frequency counts and percentages constituted the quantitative analysis. The qualitative analysis provided a deeper description of the similarities and differences between the oral representations of the two groups of presenters.

Categories of Oral Representations

Frequency counts by categories were utilized for the quantification of the data. The following levels and categories were proposed based on the reading of the literature and personal experiences.

Each oral representation was placed in a category within six levels of analysis: Level I: the source of the expression; Level II: whether it is literal or figurative language; Level III: the subcategory of a specific type of literal or figurative language; Level IV: the intensity of the expression for figurative representations only; Level V: its extent of use; and Level VI: to denote repetition. Each oral representation was placed in a category in at least five levels. Figurative expressions were classified in six levels (Figure 2, p. 30).

Intercoder Reliability

After training sessions, three entire transcriptions were analyzed by the primary researcher and two outside coders. The percentage of match was tabulated three ways for each of the six levels of categories: between the primary researcher and each outside coder as well as the percentage of match between the outside coders themselves. An average percentage for each level was obtained.

The transcription with the highest percentage of match between the three coders had the incidences of oral representations marked on the printout and identified with a "field number." The outside coders supplied the four to six numbers needed for analysis. The average percentage of match between the three coders was greater than 70% in three of the six levels of oral representations: I. "Source," II. "Language type," and IV. "Intensity." The smallest percentage of agreement was 86% which is 16% above the minimum set of 70%. Two levels of oral representations fell at the desired 70% match: Level III. "Subcategories of literal and figurative language," and Level V. "Extent of use." Level VI, "Repetitions," contained five figurative expressions that were repeated within that presentation. Only one and two repetitions were identified by the outside coders so the average percent of match was 37% in the category of analysis (Table 1).

Table 1

Intercoder Reliability Check of Average Percentage Match

Level	Percent
I Source	99
II Literal or Figurative	87
III Subcategories of Literal & Figurative	70
IV Intensity	86
V Extent of Use	69
VI Repetitions	37

Results

"What similarities and differences were found in the oral representations of experienced and novice conference presenters?" This question was approached both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Quantitative differences of experienced and novice presentations

Although both the experienced and novice presentations displayed examples of oral representations in all levels and almost all categories of analysis, differences between the groups were evident. The most important overriding difference was that the experienced presentations contained a much greater number of oral representations. Each presentation from the experienced group contained an average of 85 more oral representations than the average number contained in the novice presentations. Over half (57%) of the oral representations in the experienced group were figurative. Over half (61%) of the oral representations in the inexperienced group were literal (Figures 3 and 4, pp. 31, 32).

The experienced group displayed a much higher percentage of "Novel" expressions within the total of "Figurative" oral representations with 69%. The "Frozen" and "Novel" expressions were equal in number in the inexperienced presentations. The "Figurative" expressions were repeated more often in the experienced presentations. They had an average of 13 more repetitions or 4% more than the inexperienced presentations (Figure 5, p. 33).

Qualitative differences of the experienced and novice presentations

There was a much broader range of topics within education and outside of education in the experienced group. The experienced speakers used a greater number of "Figurative" oral representations, and more were coded as "Exaggerated" and "Novel" rather than "Realistic" and "Frozen." This gave richness, deepness, and more interest to the presentations of the experienced speakers. The novice presentations contained a much lower number of oral representations overall with more being "Realistic" as well as an equal number being "Novel" and "Frozen" which curtailed the sparkle they held for the listeners.

For example, both groups made references to music. An experienced speaker said about prewriting, "I listen for the music of the not yet written text. It arises from word, phrase, draft that is written in the head." "Pay close attention to the music. It may tell me how I feel about the subject and just as often what I think about the topic." Another experienced speaker's oral representation referred to the teacher's "instructional repertoire." Cooperative learning is coined the "Beatle model of instruction" because of their song, "I'll Get By with a Little Help from my Friends."

The novice speakers' oral representations used music as a channel to transfer an educational thought in a more literal way: "For instance, a spelling rule you can put to rap. Anything you can put to rap is—have them repeat with them. Like 'I' before 'E.' So you sing it."

Both the experienced and the novice groups used oral representations from most of the subcategories within “Literal” and “Figurative.” The difference was in the range of scope. The experienced presenters used many “Broad” oral representations that were theoretical in nature. They extended far beyond one classroom. The novices used many “Narrow” oral representations with limited applicability to other teachers.

For example, “Metaphors” that were “Broad” in scope from the experienced group included: “The best we can do on the test is capture it, take a snapshot, under a single set of conditions which need to be very carefully chosen.” “That [commercial packet for alternative assessment] is the prescription for disaster.” Referring to the reading programs in the 70’s and 80’s, “What we did was change instruction to look like assessment because we victimized ourselves, we seduced ourselves into believing that mastering all those bits and pieces of skills along the way was the real answer to the problem.”

“Metaphors” that were more “Narrow” in magnitude from the novice presentations included: “I’m working with the faithful this year!” “The middle years are a different time. They really are a metamorphosis.”

Other differences between the experienced and inexperienced presentations involve the length and the role of the speaker in the “Literal” narrative categories. The narratives in the inexperienced group tended to be longer. Often they were one and a half to two type-written pages in length. Actually, in some instances, the entire presentation could have been considered one gigantic personal narrative about a program going on in their school. The experienced narratives varied in size, but on the average were more succinct than the novice narratives.

The inexperienced presenters often referred to events happening or books shared in their own classrooms. They spoke in first person. The experienced speakers told stories of other people’s classrooms in the third person. The experienced speakers were often spectators of the action or listeners to the story (Figure 6, p. 34).

Several points from the literature concur with the conclusions of this study. Hashweh’s (1985) study referred to a higher “quality” of representations with knowledgeable teachers. This study concluded that experienced presenters have broader “Magnitude” in their oral representations as well as richness and deepness that would make them have a higher quality. Wilson and Shulman (1987) agreed that master teachers used a wide variety of representations. The experienced presenters from this study traveled further in their journey to tap stories and figurative expressions from all aspects of life.

Summary of Research Findings

This study gave the foundation for building language research based on a representative sample of experienced and novice speakers at educational conferences. Approximately 20 hours of literacy conference presentations were transcribed verbatim and analyzed in two ways: numerically as frequency counts and percentages and qualitatively. The qualitative analysis provided a deeper description of the similarities and differences between the oral representations of the two groups of presenters. The experienced speakers displayed several advantages in their presentations:

Increased overall quantity of oral representations

Both groups used a wide variety of literal and figurative oral representations, but the experienced group displayed more than double the total quantity.

Higher percentage of figurative expressions

A higher percentage of figurative oral representations was also a characteristic of the experienced speakers.

Figurative expressions are labelled by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) as “windows of the unconscious” with tremendous strength for changing people’s beliefs. Before any observable change will be seen in the classroom, an unconscious one must take place. These figurative oral representations are powerful to act on and change the basic conceptual nature of the listener. This in turn, changes the teachers’ beliefs and actions. Indeed, metaphors are considered the catalyst to the unconscious mind that begins to change values and actions.

Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) from their extensive continuing education research discussed the importance of generating cognitions for teachers because a major part of teaching is cognitive in nature.

Broader range of topics

Consistent with the work of Wilson and Shulman’s (1987) study, a conclusion of the present study was that the greater quantity of oral representations and broader range of everyday topics, both educational and noneducational, covered in the presentations of experienced speakers gave them a greater possibility of “clicking” with more members of the audience. With more than double the quantity of oral representations in the experienced presentations, these talks were richer, deeper and more interesting. The much wider range of topics, spoken as an oral kaleidoscope of visual images covered, increased the chance of being “hooked” onto the listeners’ cognitive scaffolding.

Use of third person

The ability of the oral representations to extend beyond one classroom and generally be more succinct were also characteristics from the experienced speakers’ presentations. The novice speakers used “first person” when telling narratives from their own classrooms; the experienced speakers used “third person,” since they were often spectators in someone else’s classroom.

The high percentage of figurative language spoken at large group staff-development sessions presented a positive sign for affecting change in schools because of the powerful nature of metaphorical language to lodge in the unconscious. The listener was encouraged to interact in order to make sense of the anomalous sentence construction. Candidates should be screened with this in mind.

The administration will need to assess where the staff is regarding the innovation and communicate this clearly to the change facilitator so that figurative language will be understood, audience interaction will be high and implementation in the classroom will result. Future research that would aid administrative decisions about choosing continuing education sessions would involve studying which oral representations are “remembered” by teachers at staff development meetings. How is the type of language used by the change facilitator correlated with the implementation of the instructional strategy in the classroom?

Conclusions

The visions of a tribal chief (school administrator) should include this involving instructional change. As teachers are the keys to implementation of instructional change in the classroom, their continuing education is crucial to this task. Careful planning and thought should precede any staff development sessions.

The speaker should be chosen with meticulous screening from audio or videotapes for content as well as the type of presentation. Since figurative language and a large number and wide variety of oral representations were found in the “experienced speakers” presentations, this can set some criteria for choice.

The Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) outlined three levels of stages of concerns through which teachers progress developmentally concerning an innovation in the schools. These levels are: a. self concerns, b. task concerns and c. impact concerns (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 60). The experienced presentations would be appropriate for people in the audience at both ends: “self” concerns and “impact” concerns. The teachers at the “self” concerns level would be seeking general information or sparking an initial awareness about an innovation in order to decide whether or not it would work for them. The people at the “impact” level that have already been using the innovation would be refocusing, replacing, and looking for new ways to implement the innovation (Figure 1, p. 29).

In the tribal community of education, administrative decisions that revolve around clear communication between the staff, the principals, and the change facilitators will result in “clearer smoke signals from the gods!”

FIGURE 1.
STAGES OF CONCERN ABOUT THE INNOVATION

Impact	<p>(6) REFOCUSING: The focus is on exploration of more universal benefits from the innovation, including the possibility of major changes or replacement with a more powerful alternative. Individual has definite ideas about alternatives to the proposed or existing form of the innovation.</p> <p>(5) COLLABORATION: The focus is on coordination and cooperation with others regarding the use of the innovation.</p> <p>(4) CONSEQUENCE: Attention focuses on impact of the innovation on student in his/her immediate sphere of influence. The focus is on relevance of the innovation for students, evaluation of student outcomes, including performance and competencies, and changes needed to increase student outcomes.</p>
Task	<p>(3) MANAGEMENT: Attention is focused on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Issues related to efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands are utmost.</p>
Self	<p>(2) PERSONAL: Individual is uncertain about the demands of the innovation, his/her inadequacy to meet those demands, and his/her role with the innovation. This includes analysis of his/her role in relation to the reward structure of the organization, decision making, and consideration of potential conflicts with existing structures or personal commitment. Financial or status implications of the program for self and colleagues may also be reflected.</p> <p>(1) INFORMATIONAL: A general awareness of the innovation and interest in learning more detail about it is indicated. The person seems to be unworried about himself/herself in relation to the innovation. She/he is interested in substantive aspects of the innovation in a selfless manner such as general characteristics, effects, and requirements for use.</p>
Unrelated	<p>(0) AWARENESS: Little concern about or involvement with the innovation is indicated.</p>

FIGURE 2. CODING CHECKLIST

File No. _____

I. Source

1. Speaker's Words Notes _____
2. Speaker's Book _____
3. Other Person's Book _____

II. Language Type

4. Literal _____
5. Figurative _____

III. Subcategories of Literal & Figurative

LITERAL

6. Personal Narrative _____
School
7. Personal Narrative _____
Nonschool
8. Definitions _____
9. Straight Examples _____
10. Nonexamples _____
- * 25. Nonpersonal Story _____
- * 24. Now Story _____
- * 26. Directions _____

FIGURATIVE

11. Metaphors _____
12. Similes _____
13. Analogies _____
14. Idioms Cliches _____
15. Personification _____
16. Oxymorons _____
17. None of the Above but Creative
Context _____

IV. Intensity

18. Greatly Lessened _____
19. Realistic _____
20. Greatly Exaggerated _____

V. Extent of Use

21. Frozen _____
22. Novel _____

VI. Repetitive From This File: Yes 23. _____

*These categories emerged from the data.

FIGURE 3.
AVERAGE NUMBER OF ORAL REPRESENTATIONS

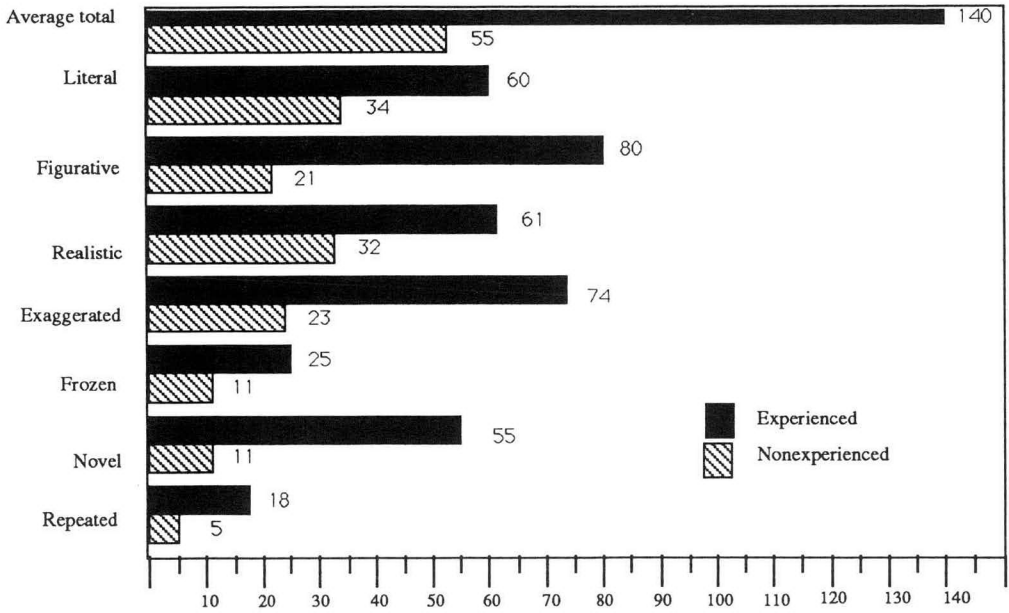


FIGURE 4.
AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF ORAL REPRESENTATIONS

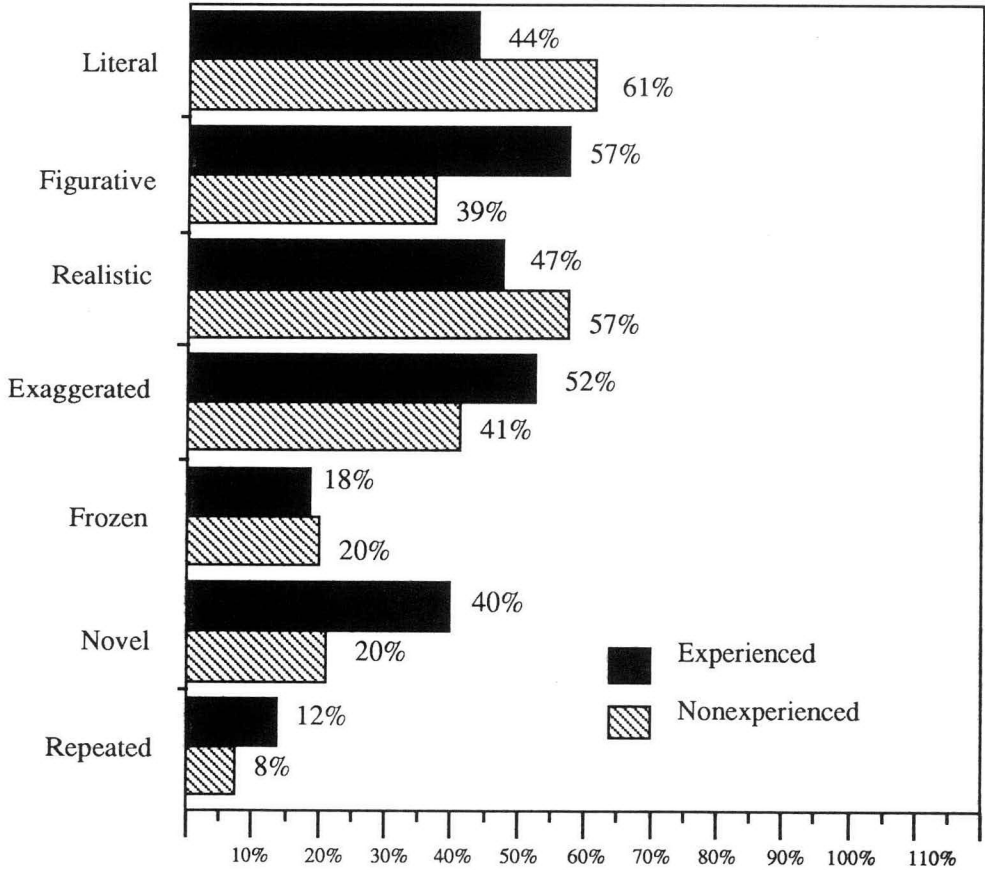


FIGURE 5.
PERCENTAGE OF FROZEN AND NOVEL REPRESENTATIONS TO
TOTAL OF FIGURATIVE ORAL REPRESENTATIONS

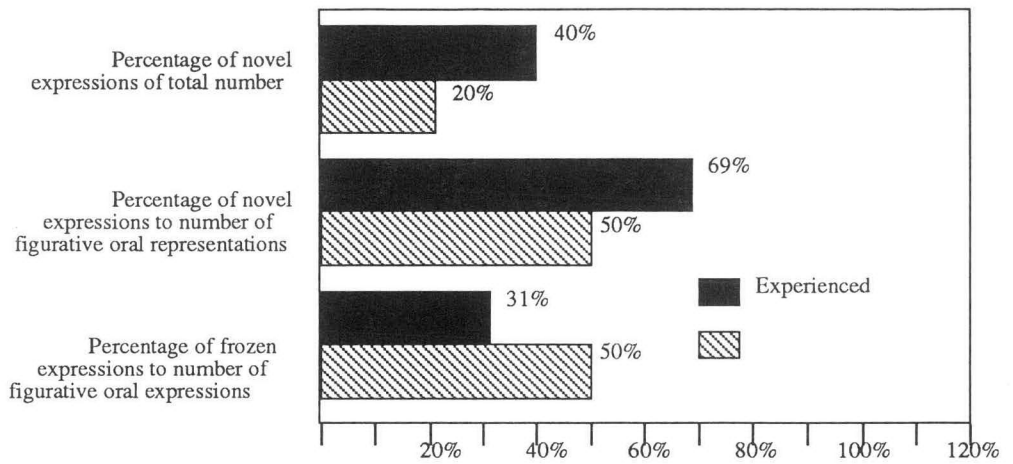


FIGURE 6. **QUALITATIVE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EXPERIENCED AND NOVICE PRESENTATIONS**

1. THE EXPERIENCED PRESENTATIONS DISPLAYED AN EXPANSIVE RANGE OF TOPICS OUTSIDE OF EDUCATION.

2. THE EXPERIENCED PRESENTATIONS DISPLAYED AN EXPANSIVE RANGE OF TOPICS WITHIN EDUCATION.

3. THE EXPERIENCED PRESENTATIONS DISPLAYED A GREATER MAGNITUDE OR SCOPE BEYOND ONE CLASSROOM.

4. THE EXPERIENCED PRESENTERS SPOKE IN FIRST PERSON; THE NOVICE PRESENTERS SPOKE IN THIRD PERSON.

5. THE EXPERIENCED PRESENTATIONS WERE A SHORTER LENGTH; MORE SUCCINCT.

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THE SERVANT'S ATTITUDE: AN ETHICAL CODE FOR ADMINISTRATORS

Mitchell Holifield

Organizational leadership is a difficult expression to define. Yet, after “pawing” through the literature, one ultimately uncovers a common theme: Leadership is an ability to gain consensus about and commitment to not only the goal-oriented vision but also the plan by which to achieve that vision. For example, Bernard Bass (1985) in *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations* notes that leadership is “the process of influencing group activities toward the achievement of goals” (p. 56). This “influencing” is a skill worthy of practice and refinement in that it is the essence of leadership and political survival. Indeed, a cursory examination of texts for graduate courses in school administration reveals a common admonition that school leaders become well-versed in the contingency of influencing, serving, and including subordinates in the creation of organizational vision and the planning process. In such an inclusion is the inevitable presence of the leader’s authority and the opportunity for its ethical or unethical usage.

An Executive’s Need for a Moral Code

What are some basic tenets on which an ethical organizational leader, especially a school administrator, could stand in performing executive functions? Certainly in attempting to answer this question by delineating the oughts, one ventures into the arena of opinion, belief, and personal codes and is immediately open to the cynic stating, “A philosophy is like a nose; everybody’s got one.”

Nevertheless, cynicism is not constructive, especially in an era of swift, massive change and instability, particularly regarding pressures oriented toward institutions and leaders. Alvin Toffler (1980) in *The Third Wave* prophesies that leaders of the future will become more dependent on more people in making and instituting decisions. The executive will depend more on imagination, be limited, be temporary, and be consensual (pp. 403-404). Caught within the midst of flux and the ensuing pressures and conflicts, an executive needs a well-developed ethical code governing the exercise of power and authority; such a code can be constructive and directional.

Resolving Conflicts among Moral Codes as an Executive Function

Chester Barnard in *The Functions of the Executive* (1968) explores executive responsibility in terms of morals and ethics. In fact, he declares that the endurance of an organization has a strong correlation to the leader’s responsibility to a moral code. He identifies moral creativeness as the “dynamic expression” of leadership and as a major force in the executive’s role of achieving a consensus of purpose, plan, and collective effort in accomplishing an end. Yet in gaining such a consensus, the executive must deal with the various moral codes of each follower who possesses not one code but several, among which conflict can occur. There are three basic results of this conflict: (a) paralysis of action and indecisiveness, (b) conformance to one code and a violation of the other(s) and thus guilt, or (c) the creation of a substitute action satisfying the desire or impulse while not violating another code (1976, p. 264).

In order to avoid the negative aspects of moral conflict, the executive must strive to create new actions that resolve moral conflicts among codes for himself and followers. In this striving, however, the leader faces a complex moral situation that might be so over-powering that he falls

into "bewilderment or loss of ability" and perhaps a "collapse of character" (1976, p. 278). Barnard writes: "It seems to me inevitable that the struggle to maintain cooperation among men should as surely destroy some men morally as battle destroys some physically" (1976, p. 278). Inadequate creative ability to deal with moral complexities is at the root of such moral destruction because it is inevitable that an executive cannot separate his professional conduct from his codes of morality.

Ethics and the Acknowledgment of a Self

Such a complex moral situation is the drama inherent in the following ethical concerns:

1. Standards and/or principles that aid in making moral choices.
2. How actions or conduct of character affect the whole of our lives.
3. Acknowledgment of a self as found in its choices of values and commitments.
4. Establishment of a hierarchy and emphasis of values between egoism and altruism.

The ethical concern in this study centers around the self prioritizing values inherent in personal ego and service to the common good; those chosen principles and their prioritization enunciate and define the leader's ethical character and, to some extent, leadership style.

Borrowed Philosophical Precepts

From various notable philosophers and world religions, several precepts have been selected to define the oughts or principles. Certainly some of these philosophers would disagree with the final ethical position of this paper and with lifting these precepts from contexts. Nevertheless, agreement with their philosophies in toto is not necessary to glean appropriate notions, a delineation of which taken from Alasdair McIntyre's *A Short History of Ethics* (1966) follows:

1. To justify one course of action as against another is not only to show that it accords with some standard or conduces to some end but also to show this to someone who accepts the relevant standard or shares the particular end (p. 49). Plato
2. Good is an aim that is sought in general by people wanting what I want (p. 58). Aristotle
3. Whatever is right for one individual must be right for everyone, i.e. the categorical imperative (p. 192). Kant
4. The motive of a good will is to do duty for the sake of duty (p.192). Kant
5. Duty is supreme to natural impulses and inclination (p. 192). Kant
6. Moral concepts are only intelligible in a social contextual order (p. 25). Plato
7. Self-welfare has priority over welfare of others so social rules are established and obeyed in order to escape being murdered and to avoid war motivated by insatiable greed and self-aggrandizement (pp. 132-133, 136, 138). Hobbes
8. Morality and justice are dependent on the individual's obligation to promote the welfare of others (p. 237). Mill
9. From a common power come law, and justice, and peace (p.132). Hobbes
10. The public good is the sum total of private goods (p. 244). Mill
11. Society is a collection of compromises and agreements (p. 244). Mill
12. Institutional stability exists when men willingly give obedience and thus authority because they see that institutional authority as a safeguard (1966, p.138). Hobbes

In addition, a comparative examination of some major world religions, as compiled by Selwyn Champion (1945) in *The Eleven Religions and Their Proverbial Lore*, reveals a common tenet by which to direct and judge behavior of self and others:

1. Buddhism. Hurt not others with that which pains yourself. *Udanavarga* 5. 18.
2. Christianity. All things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them: for this is the law and the prophets. *Bible, St. Matthew* 7. 12.
3. Confucianism. Is there any one maxim which ought to be acted upon throughout one's whole life? Surely the maxim of loving-kindness is such.—Do not unto others what you would not they should do unto you. *Analects* 15. 23.
4. Hebraism. What is hurtful to yourself do not to your fellow man. That is the whole of the Torah and the remainder is but commentary. Go learn it. *Talmud*.
5. Hinduism. This is the sum of duty: do naught to others which if done to thee, would cause thee pain. *Mahabharata* 5. 1517.
6. Islam. No one of you is a believer until he loves for his brother what he loves for himself. *Traditions*.
7. Jainism. In happiness and suffering, in joy and grief, we should regard all creatures as we regard our own self, and should therefore refrain from inflicting upon others such injury as would appear undesirable to us if inflicted upon ourselves. *Yogashastra* 2. 20.
8. Sikhism. As thou deemest thyself so deem others. Then shalt thou become a partner in heaven. *Dabir*
9. Taoism. Regard your neighbor's gain as your own gain: and regard your neighbor's loss as your own loss. *T'ai Shang Kan Ying P'ien*.
10. Zoroastrianism. That nature only is good when it shall not do unto another whatever is not good for its own self. *Dadistan-i-dinik* 94. 5. (p. xviii).

Curses and Scarcity

The need for these philosophical and religious precepts, obviously forming the foundation of the social-contract philosophy, originates in man's inhumanity to man. The origin of this perverse conduct, however, is somewhat more illusive. This writer sees mankind living under curses as noted in Genesis, Chapter 3 of the *Bible*. Whether or not one accepts the story of Adam and Eve as fact, myth, or absurdity is actually immaterial to what the story illustrates, mainly man's primordial, archetypical antagonists.

In the Genesis account, God places curses on Adam and Eve after their yielding to Satan's temptation to eat the forbidden fruit. Eve and all women thereafter are to suffer in childbirth, yet desire sexual relations with their husbands. Adam is to eke his living from a ground also cursed. The primary consequence of these curses is scarcity leading to greed and man's inhumanity to man.

Since this continuing scarcity endangers each person, moral codes are established and enforced by laws, social rules, organizations, etc. Favorable ethical connotations are given each of the above if indeed they aid in the struggle against the curses. Justice, in fact, concerns man's ethical relationships and deserts of deeds stemming from those relationships.

Justice and Fairness

In *A Theory of Justice* (1971), John Rawls explicates an elaborate theory of justice based on fairness, the essence of which is equality. He compares the precepts of justice to rules of a fair game. These rules are those that people "... fairly-situated with respect to one another can agree to if they can agree to anything at all" (p. 244). A benevolent person is one who makes decisions based on principles with a general perspective in mind. To put it more colloquially, the principles involve "walking in the shoes" of each person. A fair planning and decision-making situation is one in which self-interests are not gained at someone's expense. In fact, individuals are to be viewed as ends unto themselves, not a means (p. 179).

Rawls lists as conduct guides the natural duties to help another in need or danger, not to injure or harm another, and not to cause unnecessary suffering (p. 114). When excessive self-interest overshadows these duties, erroneous or unjust judgments, plans, and decisions occur.

In explicating his “fairly-situated” concept, Rawls claims, “No one deserves his place in the distribution of natural assets” (p. 311). As a result, society must be dedicated to a concept of justice that “...nullifies the accidents of natural endowments and the contingencies of social circumstance as counters in the quest for political and economic advantage...” (p. 15). Inequalities are allowable only if they serve the least fortunate in raising the level of civilization to the point where equal liberties can be realized (p. 152). For example, people blessed with particular talents and abilities should be a blessing to all.

Legislation and education should maximize equal opportunity. The duty of justice demands individuals to support and to comply with just institutions. The same natural duties just mentioned that apply to individuals also apply to institutions. Institutions then must protect individual rights and aid in individual accomplishments that do not violate natural duties. Judging institutional effectiveness is based on how well aims of individuals are furthered, especially those of the least favored (pp. 97, 246).

This notion leads to Rawls’ rejection of utilitarianism. He believes that justice involves the equal rights of individuals; the social good is not to usurp those rights entitled by justice (pp. 180-183). Nevertheless, social good, an inherent aim of which is cooperation, is accomplished by several dynamics: (a) justice as fairness, (b) natural duties, (c) benevolence, (d) fairness of situation through equal distribution of primary goods, and (e) just legislation and institutions.

Rawls proposes this philosophy of justice/fairness because he believes that impartial, dispassionate moral judgments are most likely made by people fairly situated.

A Proposed Ethical Code

What ethical code could aid the leader in performing administrative responsibilities? This central question is now answered in light of the following:

- The ethical concern of the self acknowledged and defined by value choices and commitments established within a hierarchy of values between egoism and altruism.
- The aforementioned philosophical and religious precepts.
- Rawls’ realization concerning justice/fairness.
- Barnard’s premise that an executive responsibility is to resolve conflicts among the moral codes.

I. To be an ethical administrator, one must first be a member of an ethical institution, ethical in that it does the following:

- A. Promotes the general welfare, the accomplishment of which determines the organization’s survival.
- B. Aids in easing the curses by extending services that help alleviate need or danger, do not inflict harm or injury, do not cause unnecessary suffering, and attempt to check greed and self-aggrandizement at the expense of others.
- C. Fairly protects and furthers man’s natural rights, liberties, equal opportunity, and individual aims, not violating the natural duties as defined by Rawls.

II. An administrator’s ethical behavior should encompass the following actions demonstrating a sincere positive interest in fellow men:

- A. Subordinates personal ego, natural impulses, and self-aggrandizement to the promotion of the general welfare through his institutional role.
 - B. Employs Kant's categorical imperative—what is right for one person must be right for everyone—in making decisions that respect individual rights.
 - C. Seeks power with, not over followers.
 - D. Provides equal opportunities.
 - E. Creates and maintains a transactional relationship between organizational and individual needs.
 - F. Maximizes intrinsic job rewards of followers via a leadership style balancing task direction and psychological support and treating people as ends:
1. Provides opportunity for workers to participate in planning. Ackoff, R. L. (1974); Adizes, I. (1977); Glenn, B. C. and Mclean, T. (1981); Goodlad, J. I. (1984); Heathers, G. (1972); Kast, F. E. and Rosenzweig, J. E. (1976); Klausmeier, H. J. (1982); Likert, R. (1967); Morse, N. C. and Reiner, E. (1956).
 2. Provides opportunity for workers to participate in decision-making. Cooper, M. R., and Wood, M. T. (1974); Lipham, J., et al. (1981); Lowther, M. A. (1982); Morris M. B. (1981); Price, K. H. and Garland, H. (1981); Richardson, G. and Sistrunk, W., (1989).
 3. Emphasizes a human relations disciplinary approach rather than a strict judicial approach. Herzberg, F., Mausner, B. and Snyderman, B. (1959); Maier, N., and Davidson, L. E. (1956); Maslow, A. H. (1954); McGregor, D. (1960).
 4. Provides a high correlation between competent supervisory praise/consideration/ recognition and worker output levels. Engleberg, J. L. (1986); Kim, J. S., and Hammer, W. C. (1976); Richardson, G. and Sistrunk, W. (1989, November); Tursman, C. (1989).
 5. Clarifies job expectations while providing opportunities for the following:
 - (a) Responsibility. Carey, D. (1980); Holmes, D., ImPink 'Hernandez, V. and Terrell, J. (1988); Sergiovanni, T. (1962).
 - (b) Independent thought and action. Cooper and Wood, *ibid*, Fitzgerald, S. M. (1978); Margolin, E. (1982).
 - (c) Self-esteem and respect. Ahren, J. F. and Gress, J. R. (1986); Dworkin, A. G. (1985); Jolley, J. S. (1985); Schultheis, R. A. (1979); Wernimont, P. F., Toren, P., and Kapell, H. (1970).
 - (d) A sense of accomplishment. Hackman, J. R., and Lawler, E. E. (1971); Sarron, J. C. and A. M. (1987); Lortie, D. C. (1975); Stumpf, S. A., and Rabinowitz, S. (1981).
 - (e) Promotion based on achievement/merit. Galbraith, J. and Cummings, I. (1967); Georgopoulos, B. S., Mahoney, G. M., and Jones, Jr., N.W. (1957).
 - (f) Applies the Golden Rule in the continual role of peace-maker (i.e. Do unto others as you would have them do unto you).

Conclusion

Ethical leaders are those of high calling governed by a noble purpose and high ideals. However, as Chester Barnard noted, the executive faces moral destruction as he attempts to fulfill his organizational responsibilities. By using the code delineated above, the administrator is practicing an ethical leadership style which in general better assures moral survival and success in influencing others to will a basic consensus toward a basic end and a plan for accomplishing that end. As a part of professional and personal codes, these precepts define the administrator as a servant who has altruism dominating ego and who sees the health of the organization in terms of the health of the followers. Hence, the leader has a leadership style based on a human approach tempered with a task approach steeped in justice defined as the fair application of fair rules in a fair game where fairly situating the least fortunate is a good. Such a context and style can genuinely exist only if authority and influence are ethically utilized.

Possibly the Hindu story related by Ann Bancroft (1974) best summarizes the code of ethics presented in this article:

There is a story of a yogi who was meditating on the banks of a river when he saw a scorpion fall in. He fished it out and it stung him. A little later it fell in again. Once more he rescued it and once more he was stung. Twice more this happened and a man standing by asked the yogi why he kept rescuing it when the only gratitude it showed was to sting him. "It is the nature of scorpions to bite," was (his) reply, "It is the nature of yogis to help others when they can" (p. 21).

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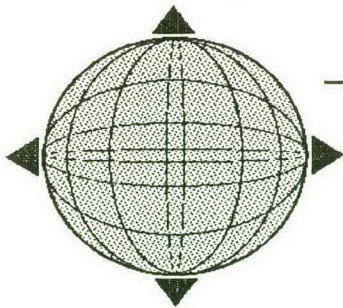
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