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ABSTRACT

This report contains nine speeches presented at a Conference on Designing Doctoral Programs in Education held at Kansas State University on June 28-29, 1968. Titles included are: 1) "The Role of Doctoral Programs in Today's and Tomorrow's University"; "Trends in Student Personnel Work: Implications for Graduate Education"; "Research Training in Doctoral Programs in Education: Why, What, and from Whom?"; 4) "Designing Curriculum and Instruction as Part of Doctoral Programs in Education"; 5) "The Doctoral Program for Specialists in Curriculum and Instruction"; 6) "Counselor Education"; 7) "Changing Roles and Performance of the Superintendent"; 8) "Designing a Doctoral Program in Educational Administration"; 9) "New Designs for Adult Education Doctoral Programs." (RT)

Designing Doctoral Programs in Education

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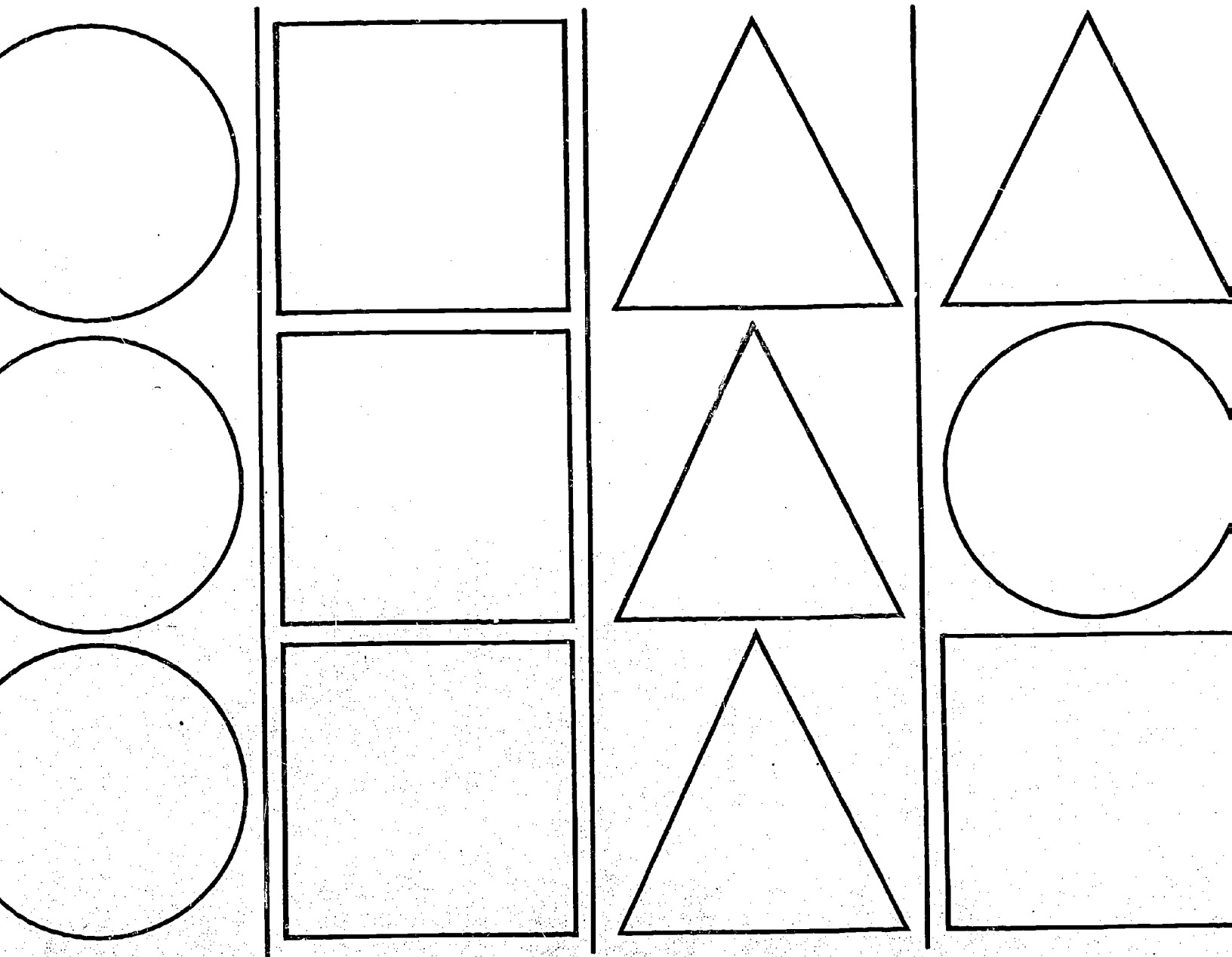
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The College of Education and the Graduate School at Kansas State University sponsored the special conference on designing doctoral programs in education with two major goals in mind. At the time of the conference, the KSU College of Education was in the very real process of designing a new Ph.D. program in education. Position papers presented by well qualified professionals and interaction by representatives of selected universities throughout the country would provide an excellent base for planning the College's program. Secondly, it was felt that many colleges of education might like to have an opportunity to take another look at their programs and give consideration to possible modifications which additional examination and study might suggest.

In addition to KSU faculty and administrators who attended the conference, some 25 colleges and universities sent participants. Among those attending were the following: Robert Pate, Wichita State University; Dean J. O. Haygard, Dean Aaron W. Harper, and Dean William Spence, Kansas State College at Pittsburg; Robert Swanson and Harold Hoflin, Stout State University; Dean Earl Ringo, Montana State University; Robert T. Alcitore, Oklahoma State University; Truman Hayes, Kansas State Teachers College; Dean Paul Kennedy, University of Nebraska at Omaha; Clarence Samford and George Bracewell, Southern Illinois University; Associate Dean Robert Lothrop, Pennsylvania State University; Associate Dean Fred Abel, University of Oregon; Roy Browning, Topeka Public Schools; President Richard Mosier, Colby Community College; Rolland Alterman and A. R. Gaskill, Central Michigan University; Todd Eachus, University of Massachusetts; Gary Nahrstedt and Edwin Bailey, University of Missouri at Kansas City; Kenneth Grinstead, Eastern Michigan University; Conrad Potter and Donald Schlesman, Central Washington State College; Robert E. Leibert; John Sheard; Norman Kronz; Harry Gottryald; Joseph Doen.

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W. P. ALBRECHT, Dean
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The Role of Doctoral Programs
In Today's and Tomorrow's University

Doctoral programs play a very important role in American universities today and will play an even more important one in the near future. This paper has three main parts: (1) limitation of the subject, (2) the role of doctoral programs today, and — obviously — (3) the role of doctoral programs tomorrow.

I

Doctoral programs, actual and proposed, may be divided into three groups: (1) the Ph.D., (2) professional doctorates such as the Ed.D., D.B.A., D.M.A., D.Engr., M.D., and J.D., and (3) a "teaching doctorate" of some sort, for which the name Doctor of Arts has been proposed. To begin with, I shall eliminate the last category, since the idea of a D.A. has been pretty well abandoned in favor of the so-called "intermediate degree" or M.Phil., together with some suitable revisions in the Ph.D. I want to talk only about the research doctorate, which means principally the Ph.D., although what I intend to say will apply generally to the Ed.D. and the D.B.A. as well. These latter are usually, or perhaps always, research degrees, too; and now that the language requirements for the Ph.D. have been relaxed or even, in some cases, removed, the difference between the Ph.D. and the Ed.D. or the D.B.A. is still less than it used to be. The M.D. and J.D. are clearly practitioners' degrees; the D.Engr. stresses design rather than research; and the D.M.A. emphasizes performance.

II

Today the Ph.D. plays five principal roles in American universities. These obviously overlap; I have not tried to keep them mutually exclusive.

The first role of the Ph.D. today is to enable a university to be a university. A university has two main and closely interrelated functions: to impart knowledge and to contribute to knowledge. To fulfill the first function immediately—and therefore the first ultimately—a university must engage in research, which it cannot very well do without the staff, facilities, students, and, above all, interest and direction provided by viable doctoral programs.

The second role of Ph.D. programs is to prepare people for professions requiring individual investigation and creative research. These people are needed in business, industry, government, and especially college and university teaching, which takes over 50 percent of the Ph.D.'s produced each year and which is of most interest to us today. The ability to do research, and I am using the word broadly to include all meaningful creative work, is one of the two indispensable requirements for university teaching. The other, of course, is the ability to teach. Different members of a university faculty will spend different proportions of their time on classroom teaching and on a research program, and of course they should be free to do so, but a separation of "teaching" and "research" is really quite artificial, especially on the graduate level. The two essential parts of the same job. An active research program is perhaps less important to the college

teacher; but even the teacher of lower-division courses should be aware of how knowledge is discovered in his field, and it is difficult to see how he will know these things unless he is doing some investigation of his own.

The Ph.D. program should also have some responsibility for the **teaching** as well as the **research** component in the student's preparation, and some few doctoral programs probably meet this responsibility. On the whole, however, this role of the Ph.D. must be discussed as one that will have to be realized in the future.

The fourth role of Ph.D. programs today is to attract staff. It has become increasingly difficult to recruit high quality staff unless a department has a doctoral program and the library facilities, research equipment, opportunities for research support, and the reduced teaching loads that go with it.

Even some of the better known four-year colleges have embarked on graduate programs. The provost of Wesleyan College, Middletown, Conn., reports: "We began our graduate school first to make a greater social contribution. The second reason is defensive. We don't think we are going to get a first class faculty if we don't offer them opportunities for research. This I would call a negative argument—meeting competition—but it is an important one. The third reason is that Wesleyan wants to be a creator of knowledge as well as a transmitter. For this, research is needed."[1]

A fourth role played by Ph.D. programs today is to attract funds to a university or college. Federal fellowships and traineeships such as those that have been offered by NASA, NSF, and NDEA not only support graduate fellows but provide cost-of-education funds for which universities have found increasingly wider use, e, li fellow-ships funded by private organizations (Woodrow Wilson, Danforth, Kress Foundation, etc.), are available only or mainly to doctorate-granting institutions. Most research grants—and the accompanying payment of research overhead—also go to institutions offering the Ph.D. In addition, state appropriations per student are likely to be more generous for Ph.D. aspirants than for Master's candidates or undergraduates.

III

It seems likely that, in the future, Ph.D. programs will continue to play all the roles mentioned above, even though federal funds, at least for the time being, have been curtailed.

In addition, at least in "developing" universities, the role of Ph.D. programs will become a much larger one in terms of students, staff, and resources. As shown by the figures compiled by John L. Chase and Marguerite G. Wensel in **Doctor's Degrees Awarded by All U. S. Institutions** for the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the production of doctorates increased only moderately for Ivy League universities from 1953 to 1963, but, in general, very greatly in Big Ten universities. More

1. College Management, October 1966, p. 22.

recently Big Eight universities ore showing a greater in-increase as well. There seems to be little doubt that in the "developing" type of university, as represented by those universities in the second twenty-five ranked by the Cartter report, doctoral programs will require a much greater shore of university resources, planning, and faculty time.

Probably Ph.D. programs will have a more successful role in the preparation of college and university teachers. In the past doctoral programs have generally done a satisfactory job in preparing students to do research—at least as far as impersonal, objective, quantitative sort of work is concerned—but preparation for classroom teaching has been notably weak. This has been left, usually, to experience as a teaching assistant, which often has been unsupervised, undirected, unplanned, and unintegrated with the remainder of the doctoral candidate's program. The teaching assistantship, usually the least desirable of the various forms of graduate student aid, frequently has gone to the poorest students. Too often the teaching assistant has been exploited as a source of cheap labor, and especially in the humanities and social sciences his time for completing the doctorate mercilessly prolonged.

Instead of being regarded merely os a cheap way of teaching undergraduates, the assistantship should be used as an opportunity for developing skill in the classroom and thereby producing a better teacher-scholar. A scholar, whether or not he becomes o college or university teacher, is the better for having taught, for teaching requires disciplined, orderly thought; clear communication; presentation of convincing evidence; and respect for the opinions of others. Once the premise is accepted that successful teaching experience is important to the Ph.D. candidate, several practical conclusions may be deduced immediately.

1. Every Ph.D. candidate should be required to teach;
2. His teaching should be supervised or directed until he is qualified to teach his own class;
3. So that he may complete his doctorate in a reasonable length of time, he should be allowed to teach only for a limited time with a limited load;
4. For the same reason, he should be supported by non-service awards for at least one year and preferably two.
5. In most cases, teaching should be postponed until the second year of graduate study.

For several years the Association of Graduate Schools and the Council of Graduate Schools have been urging programs of this sort. Usually programs have been on a departmental rather than a university-wide basis, but in 1967 the Ford Foundation and ten leading universities announced a seven-year experimental program aimed at reforming doctoral education in the social sciences and humanities. The key to the reform will be the establishment of patterns of full-time study and apprentice teaching, in most cases in a regular four-year program leading to the Ph.D. degree.

The Ph.D. program of the future will combine such an integrated program with more effective support for a greater number of students. As the "Claremont Graduate School and University Center Bulletin" for October 1965 points out, "Graduate education must be viewed as an entry into a profession. The standards of doctoral [education] have become so exacting that a student in coming graduate school is already engaging in life's work. He is comparable to an executive trainee of a large business firm. The business firms expect to pay the trainee a living wage while he is learning the business. Likewise today's scholarly demands are of such order that students should be provided with the basic means for living while they are plunging into seminars, qualifying examinations, and research." Some fellowship stipends, such as those paid by the federal government, have been very good; but the average teaching assistant has not been paid nearly as well. In addition, good stipends should be correlated with (1) highly selective admissions and (2) high standards of continued performance. For these conditions, the departments must take the principal responsibility.

As part of their recognition as professional trainees, graduate students should be brought into closer communication with sources of university policy and even be granted, through their representatives, some voice in academic decision-making. This is a difficult problem — especially in view of continually shifting leadership among the students—but efforts must be made toward a solution.

It may also be hoped that Ph.D. programs will play a larger role in bringing universities, especially in the same state or geographic area, into closer communication. The cost of supporting doctoral programs is one compelling reason for cooperation among institutions in order to capitalize on the special resources of each and to minimize costly duplication of effort. Progress in this direction has, of course, been made by CIC (Big Ten) and MASUA (Big Eight), and—in Kansas—by the cooperation of Kansas State University, Wichita State University, and the University of Kansas.

Finally, the Ph.D. program of the future may provide a different concept of research, especially in the humanities and social sciences. Ph.D. programs have long been criticized as too rigid or too narrowly specialized in terms not only of preparing teachers but of meeting other personal and social needs.[2] This criticism has been directed particularly at programs in humanities and social sciences.

This narrowness has been increased by the spread of quantitative methods, which have provided, often, a much needed objectivity in these areas. But in the humanities such methods can only be aids to a creative, although disciplined, imagination. Strictly quantitative work is, by definition, outside the field of the humanities—and, insofar as the social sciences deal with intellectual history, at least, they cannot be completely quantitative.

Narrowness has also been fostered by the rigidity of departmental organization and interests. A department is mainly a budgetary unit, and the area of learning it has staked out for itself is not something unalterably fixed by the laws of nature.

There have been, however, a number of developments, such as the growing interest in the creative arts in American universities, that tend to counter this narrowness. The most encouraging is probably the growth of interdisciplinary programs: studies in geographical areas, comparative literature, systematic biology, genetics, chemical physics, etc.—some being separately administered in institutes or centers.

2. Many works could be cited. See, especially, Oliver Carmichael, Graduate Education (New York, 1961); and Christopher Jenks and David Riesman, "Where Graduate Schools Fail," The Atlantic, Vol. 221 (Feb. 1968), pp. 49-55.

But programs of this sort are not enough. Today's new program is tomorrow's old program, with its old rigidity. There should be some way of continually allowing a student to find the sort of program best suited for his interests, needs, and talents.

This possibly exists now, in theory, in some universities. At the University of Kansas, for instance, a student may take a joint degree in two or more departments provided the cooperating departments and the Graduate Council agree on the program. But, in these cases, each department is likely to insist that the student fulfill all, or almost all, of the requirements for the Ph.D. in that particular department. What is needed is authority vested in the Graduate Council to offer a Ph.D. in any field that the student and a group of qualified scholars can agree on; even though the field does not correspond to that offered by any formal administrative unit. Most Ph.D. programs could still be offered under the auspices of established administrative units—as they should be for stability of standards—but, for special needs not met by these units, other programs, designed for individual needs, should be available.

So one may hope, with some reasonable optimism, not only that the role of Ph.D. programs will be quantitatively more important in university planning and operations, but that it will become a more effective role—in preparing college and university teachers, in supporting able students, in making graduate students a more integral part of the university community, and in providing greater flexibility in research opportunities to meet the needs of the student and of society.

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Trends in Student Personnel Work: Implications for Graduate Education

As an individual who has spent a good part of my professional life examining our ability to predict future events, I had a profound reluctance to accept this assignment. In scholarly fashion, I've learned that the task is formidable. It is fairly safe to assume that no more than 50 percent of my projections will be right; and it's perfectly safe to assume that I can't distinguish between the correct and incorrect.

Nonetheless, we've had a long history of development with minimum planning in higher education. Since this approach has so predictably led to chaos, I'm willing to try an alternative.

TRENDS IN STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

What will student personnel work be like in the next couple of decades? Much will depend upon changes in society's expectations of higher education and changes in the student population.

It seems reasonable to suppose that our society will continue to value technological advancement and a life of comfort. Colleges and universities will be expected both to make basic scientific advances and to produce scientists and technologists who, through industry, will supply new technological conveniences and further expand our capacity for developing technological change. There will be substantially fewer individuals who will be able to support themselves without some type of skill or special knowledge. Further, new skills and knowledge will be required constantly, and large portions of adults will seek retraining.

Our society's sense of responsibility for the welfare of its citizens will continue to grow. As a result, significant increases can be expected in the number of individuals who provide social services—physical and mental health, recreation, culture, etc. Many of these services will be devoted to equalizing opportunities for all to participate in the fruits of an affluent society; others will be devoted to reducing needs which the society helped create (needs of the aged, needs created by early retirement, needs resulting from increased leisure, needs arising from crowded urban centers of population, etc.).

Society has increasingly relied upon formal education as the major means of preparing its citizens for participation in its activities. There is every reason to believe that this trend will continue, although other mechanisms (retraining centers in industry, government projects evolving from job corps and related programs, some form of "national service" opportunity) will also grow. We can thus expect considerably increased numbers of students and an even more diverse student population. Perhaps the chief demographic change will be in age, for significant proportions of adults will be enrolled.

To meet new expectations and the needs of new kinds of students, higher education will become much more organized. Though institutions will continue to be multipurpose, the relative emphasis will become clearer in a certain division of labor. Universities will concentrate on graduate and professional education. The undergraduate program will be less important except in certain

science or science-related areas. Education devoted to the development of technical skills and competencies requiring more a knowledge of "how" rather than "why" will be concentrated in derivatives of present-day community colleges. These colleges will also provide a large share of "general education" now included in the first two years of a degree program. The number of private four-year colleges will be decreased, though many will remain as partially supported public institutions. Most undergraduate degrees will be awarded in these colleges. The very small colleges (under 1000) will largely disappear.

Student personnel workers will be employed in all types of higher education, though their focus will differ depending on setting. There will be sufficient commonality in training needs that, aside from supervised practice experiences, their graduate education will be quite similar.

Present-day student personnel services have evolved largely from three conditions (Leonard, 1956). (1) Expanding enrollments, the presence of large numbers of residential students, and the energies of youth combined with the pressures of academic life, produced needs to supply and manage housing and dining facilities and to arrange for non-destructive emotion-releasing opportunities. (2) Some students or student groups were sufficiently disruptive that normal classwork or investigative activities were impeded, and procedures and staff to eliminate or control such disruptions were needed. (3) A number of students encountered personal difficulties or problems for which common decency demanded some professional attention be given. It is true that the movement has had its philosophers who have offered it a more inspiring educational rationale [e.g., Cowley, (1949), Williamson (1939)]; but the major stimuli to its development and the major focus of its activities have been student needs for housing and recreation, the institution's need to maintain order, and the disruptive nature of students' individual problems.

It is unlikely that there will be significant shifts in a number of common student personnel functions, simply because certain needs will continue to characterize student populations. Thus students will continue to need basic health services, ways of attaining financial assistance, places to eat, study, and sleep, assistance with personal problems or plans, help in making the transition from school to college, help in making the transition from college to work, and a number of other special services or facilities currently included under the umbrella of "student personnel work."

There will be some noticeable decrease in certain types of functions. Much less emphasis will be placed on controlling-supervising functions. The present demand for more student freedom, in and out of the classroom, is consistent with a trend in social climate away from oppressive control and toward more freedom of choice.

It is not simply student unrest or protest which will ensure this shift. Rather, it is a growing and fundamental recognition in our society that it is neither desirable nor possible to legislate moral values. There is an increasing

elief that curbs may not be placed on the way in which uman lives are conducted except when individual de- isions are physically dangerous to the person or to others r when these decisions interfere with the freedom of thers. Already, **in loco parentis** has been largely laid to est as a rationale for services. Its final demise on almost ll campuses can be expected within a few years.

Consistent with this trend will be a noticeable decrease n the policing functions which occupy much of the resi- lence hall staff and some of our deans. Similarly, there s likely to be a substantial trend for off-campus law viola- ions to be handled by civil authorities, with little overt ttention from campus officials other than to help ensure hat the student receives fair and just consideration.

We can also look for a decrease in certain individual- zed guidance services. Thanks to the advent of computer echnology, many of the decisions now made through the id of specialists will be made better with the aid of ma- chines. It is probable that most admissions functions will be handled by state or regional agencies. These agencies will collect information about student interests, preferred ype, size and location of institution, financial resources, intellectual and other types of student capacities, and other relevant input data supplied by the student or by objective appraisals of him. The machine will identify the institu- tions for which he meets the requirements and which satisfy his major needs, spelling out some considerations relevant to a final choice. ("You would need about $500 a year of aid to attend A, and $200 a year to attend Institution B. A has loan funds for which you would qualify; B's loan funds are limited, but part-time jobs are abundant. A has an excellent remedial reading program which may help you overcome your reading handicap. Your chances of surviving the academic program are 85/100 at B and 67/100 at A, etc.") The student will notify the clearance house of his preferred institution, and the college will be notified of his acceptance into their program. The "busy-work" of admissions offices will be largely eliminated. Answering inquiries, sending cata- logues, checking test scores and high school transcripts, recruiting, and high school visitations will largely dis- appear.

The computer will find application to other guidance functions at the point of decision making. Selection of educational majors or vocational field will be done pri- marily with the aid of these machines rather than that of the professional counselor. Applications will also be made to financial need packaging and to placement services.

This is not to say that counselors will become less important. They will continue to provide vital services in helping the student ask productive questions and obtain valid appraisals of his dispositions and talents. The self- discovery which counselors facilitate will become the input to the computer, and "GI-GO" (garbage in-garbage out) will apply as much in this application of the computer as in any other.

As a matter of fact, I believe the most significant development in student personnel services will be the establishment of a position which may be called "the stu- dent development specialist." Such an individual will fo two tasks: (a) provision of opportunities for st learn about themselves and, (b) development of isms for promoting the development of indi-

vidual strengths. The first of these tasks implies an in- crease in activities traditionally associated with counseling.

While there is nothing new about the belief that the most meaningful subject for any individual is himself, there is an increasing recognition that our present attempts to facilitate self-understanding have been inadequate. It is not solely that we've had too few professionals; our ap- proaches to the problem have simply not been satisfactory. Recently, we've become aware of some more promising techniques which I believe will be elaborated and exploited on a large scale. One is epitomized by the group experi- ence known variously as "sensitivity training," "T-Group," or "Encounter Group Therapy." It appears possible to arrange conditions such that many individuals will find it possible to examine themselves in an intensely deep and honest manner with the support of others engaged in the same process. The experience seems to provide a potent antidote to the societal forces which promote self- deceit and "phoniness." The ability to be genuine in examining oneself is essential to personal development, and for many this approach and its derivatives will be highly productive.

Others will find insight and self-understanding through a more systematic application of "biographical psychology." Recent research has led to a rediscovery of the general principle that the past predicts the future. It seems reasonable to suppose that student development spe- cialists will discover how to use this principle in their attempts to promote self-knowledge. While precise direc- tions of development are fuzzy, it is entirely conceivable that techniques which promote a systematic examination of individual development will be invented. It should be possible to construct a reasonably adequate portrait of the development of skills, special talents, types of activi- ties which are inherently rewarding, types of rewards which are most meaningful, and other idiosyncratic trends which help define the person through his history.

This type of review will be quite different from the usual diagnostic or therapeutic interview which focuses almost exclusively on negative aspects of development. Rather, by examining experiences, their outcomes, and the effect associated with them, the skilled professional can assist the student to find those personal preferences, strengths, and values which define his uniqueness and forecast directions for a productive and rewarding future.

A third way in which individual appraisal is currently being promoted is through efforts to relate collegiate experiences to one's personal life. Living-learning centers are an example; as are the several versions of the "free university." It is likely that we'll see further efforts to utilize learning opportunities in the college to make edu- cation more personally meaningful. To the extent that these efforts succeed, self-understanding will be promoted through the curriculum.

I believe it is reasonable to expect the promotion of activities such as these, and some new ones, by the student development specialist. Present evidence strongly sug- gests that multiple approaches to self-knowledge will be needed simply because people differ in how they learn and the conditions under which they learn. Sensitivity group supporters are enthusiastic, but the detractors are equally vocal. I suspect both are right; it "works" well for some, but will be too threatening or unappealing to others. In the past, we've tended to dismiss as "ineffec-

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tive" procedures which show slight differences between randomly selected experimental and control groups. We will be more ready in the future to recognize that differential "treatment" will be needed for students with different backgrounds and propensities.

An equally challenging responsibility of the student development specialist will be his innovative design of opportunities to promote student growth. A convincing array of research makes it clear that educational efforts designed to make students more alike are doomed to failure. Results from interest and personality testing emphasize not only the large and important differences among students, but the relative uniqueness of various types of interest or personal predispositions. The same can be said about potentials for achievement; and, for that matter, achievement itself. There is little reason to believe that academic achievement, for example, can be used to infer the level of achievement in non-classroom undertakings (e.g., Holland and Richards, 1965).

I have noted this phenomenon in other publications and referred to man's propensity for developing in a lop-sided, rather than well-rounded, way (e.g., Hoyt, 1968). While this interpretation is frequently irritating to educators, it is supported by a number of philosophically oriented psychologists who refer to man's quest for identity. And it nearly always strikes a responsive chord when applied personally, for all of us seek ways in which we stand out from others. No one wants to be a carbon copy. Employers of professional personnel can testify to the reality of the thesis; typically, they give most consideration to candidates who can do something different, and pass over those whose major strengths duplicate those possessed by the current staff.

It may be too optimistic to predict that higher education will formally acknowledge this phenomenon and broaden its base of evaluation to include an appraisal of nonacademic development. While this possibility should not be discounted, I believe that opportunities for development outside the classroom can be sufficiently rewarding on an intrinsic basis that a creative program can prosper without the crutch of external reward.

This is not the time nor place to outline specific developmental opportunities which should be made available. In fact, this cannot be done on a general basis, since campus conditions will vary so widely. Research has told us several things. Some students are capable of quite notable accomplishments in such areas as science, writing, art, religious service, business, and community participation. In general, achievements in such areas are relatively independent of each other. Some students also develop a sense of personal involvement and appreciation for the "everyday" expression of intellectual values, such as examining and discussing political-social issues, being aware of scientific or technological advances and their implications, or observing and enjoying professional works of art, music, or other cultural expressions. And our best measures of both the creative accomplishments and the intellectual involvements are relatively independent of measures of academic promise or attainment (e.g., Richards et al., 1967). To the extent that we value the types of development identified in these studies and perceive them as relevant to the mission of higher eduction, we are committed to inventing as many rich and varied ways of promoting them as we can.

We are speaking of ways in which the college experience can be used to help students develop talents and appreciations which are largely ignored by traditional classroom procedures and whose distinguishing feature is their relevance for personal educational needs. The student development specialist will not only need to be inventive, but will need to be thoroughly acquainted with the college and the larger community in order to capitalize on potential opportunities which could be put to good educational purposes.

In addition to the student development specialist, we are likely to see the establishment of a position which might be called "Student Representation Facilitator." The establishment of such a position recognizes that present patterns of student involvement in campus governance have been unsatisfactory. While some colleges have reasonable arrangements for students to be heard, few have provided conditions whereby students have any real power. I believe a change will be forced. The militant and destructive tactics displayed this past year to gain concessions to student demands cannot long be tolerated if rational and orderly government is to be maintained. And yet we must not be deceived into believing that the discontent which spawns these tactics can be eliminated by more oppressive controls or sanctions. A fundamental rearrangement of governance structures will be needed. All elements of the college community will need to be included as voting members of governmental structures. And some of these structures will include a majority of students.

The essential point is that the effective functioning of institutions of higher education requires responsiveness to the needs of its members. Mechanisms for identifying concerns are not enough; there must be a community effort to resolve them. The precise form that this reorganization will take will vary from campus to campus. But there will be no adequate resolution of the widespread conflict with "the establishment" until that very concept gives way to the concept of community.

The "Student Representation Facilitator," along with others, will take an active role in devising, evaluating, and updating the structure by which the college is governed. His ground rules will be relatively simple. Any authority granted must be balanced by a corresponding degree of responsibility. No student authority will be granted in areas which are outside students' educational interests or competence. Provision must be made for bona fide student representatives, not simply malcontents, rebels, or conformists.

While this change in governance will provide a considerable challenge to the specialist, he will inherit certain other responsibilities designed to remove barriers to student development. The red tape in large institutions is designed to guard certain standards or control potential abuses; but it can get in the way of student development for unanticipated reasons. There will be an increasing need to provide a way to cut this red tape when individual circumstances make it unnecessary and inhibiting. I believe this "facilitator" will be the logical person to make these judgments.

By effectively focusing on aspects of the environment which block student growth, the facilitator will have first-hand contact with most points of student unrest. While his efforts will be designed to improve learning conditions, we should recognize that we can't undo Berkeley. There

will continue to be troublemakers on campuses whose chief goal in life is to embarrass or harm the institution. Careless or arbitrary handling of these students may not only disrupt the campus but may bring forth millions of dollars worth of lawsuits. Obviously, it is important to avoid these; it would be catastrophic to lose one. A skilled and knowledgeable facilitator will be needed for institutional self-protection as well as for democracy and efficiency.

Finally, the next two decades will see an increasing tendency to employ applied educational researchers as members of the student development staff. There is a growing awareness of the need for continuous institutional self-study, partly because planning and decision-making need data, partly because institutional differences are so great that we can adapt the findings of others only with great risk, partly because we can anticipate more critics who cannot be answered without hard facts, and partly because we must find more effective, efficient, and economical procedures for doing our work.

While our needs for this type of expertise have become apparent, it has also become obvious that the job won't be done on a spare time basis. Research is not a hobby to be taken up when normal job pressures relax. And, like other skills, research capacities grow rusty with disuse. So that it is unrealistic to believe that much productive research will be performed by professionals who were hired for quite different purposes.

At the same time, our experience with the traditionally trained educational researcher has not been totally satisfying. While statistical, measurement, and design sophistication is essential, too often these tools are the chief substantive interests of the researcher. As a result, he often can tell you more than you want to know about psychometric properties of his instruments, the assumptions underlying his statistical tests, and the representativeness of his samples; but he may ask only trivial questions because he's poorly tuned to the nature of the educational enterprise.

The student development researcher will have the necessary technical skills to conduct dependable educational research; but he will be oriented toward the major questions which confront a student development staff. What factors affect what types of development in what types of students?

I expect that his research will more often be a team effort than is typically true today. Many of the basic ideas for environmental manipulations, innovative programming, and criterion measures will come from colleagues who spend their time in educational action programs. By using the thinking of these educators, he can ensure that good questions are asked, meaningful comparisons are made, and helpful implications are drawn.

IMPLICATIONS FOR GRADUATE PREPARATION

How can we ensure the availability of competent individuals to fill these new roles? The responsibility for professional preparation of student personnel workers belongs to graduate education. While there are probably more positions requiring subdoctoral and doctoral preparation, the more difficult and important problems revolve around doctoral programs, and it is to these that the following remarks are addressed. Further, for reasons which will become obvious, this analysis focuses primarily on the Ph.D. degree rather than on other types of doctorates.

For some time, it has been popular to criticize the Ph.D. degree as an archaic carry-over from an outmoded tradition. Whether its requirements are necessary, realistic, and relevant to present needs is in doubt; and its designation as the culminating degree for such diverse fields as animal husbandry and educational sociology has prompted many critics to question its meaning.

It is worthwhile to note that the degree does have a rationale which makes it appropriate for any scholarly field. Prior (1965) has properly noted that its concern is with the development of the learned scholar. Successful completion of the degree, regardless of field, implies that the recipient has achieved a depth of knowledge and the necessary intellectual tools and habits which will permit him to exercise independent judgment about his chosen branch of knowledge and to advance knowledge in that field. In the long run, its success must be judged in these terms. If an institution accepts this goal, has the faculty and facilities which will permit its realization and has the desire to offer the degree, no further requirements should be necessary.

However, two important questions need to be raised with respect to the Ph.D. degree in student personnel work. First, what is the branch of knowledge which is to be pursued and advanced? Second, by what means can scholarly development in this branch best be facilitated?

It is not surprising that behavioral scientists have been less than enthusiastic about supporting the Ph.D. in this field. Counseling, clinical, and development psychologists can each legitimately assert that their specialties are involved in student personnel work. The same can be said of sociologists and anthropologists. In addition, a claim may be laid by administrative sciences on those preparing for professional responsibilities as student personnel administrators, while departments of educational measurement have a legitimate proprietary interest in those planning to make a career of educational research.

Such a wide variety of disciplines are involved that one may well question whether the student personnel worker can be a specialist, or a learned scholar, in this "field." Won't he have to be a kind of "applied generalist"? If this is so, is it reasonable to consider awarding a Ph.D. in this "field"?

I believe there is a bona fide specialty in student personnel work. Its focus is the college student. It emphasizes his personal situation, expected development, and conditions affecting this development. The scholar must be aware of important aspects of the psychology of adolescents—capacities, drives, developmental tasks. He will also be aware of the ways in which family, friendships, and neighborhood experiences condition this status and of some of the implications of the individual's history for needs and learning styles. His expertise must extend to an understanding of the college as an instrument for effecting change, including the role of the faculty, formal and informal groups, rules and regulations, and specially contrived educational opportunities.

It is quite possible to argue that the specialty so-defined does not constitute a branch of knowledge. In many ways, it parallels the practice of pediatrics or of criminal law more than it does the intellectual life of the microbiologist or economist. Admittedly, a major concern of student personnel graduate programs is with high level

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professionol functioning; in this regard, the degree is properly perceived os o "professionol," rather than on ocademic, degree.

Unless its recipients ore expected to do more thon perform solid professionol services, the Ph.D. connot be justified os the logicol degree. If the groduote deportment wonts to be evoluoted in terms of the extent to which its groduotes odvonce the field, it hos an oppropriate rotionole for owording the Ph.D. degree. This "odvoncing of the field" con occur in several woys. Some moy moke creotive contributions to the field in terms of its gools, philosophy, ond progroms. Others moy moke substontive contributions through reseorch. It should be cleor from this thot the culminoting degree for the "new speciolists" described eorlier should be the Ph.D. The foct thot the "field" is defined more by proctice thon by o subdivision of some recognized ocademic discipline moy seem owkword, but it need not exclude the Ph.D. os on oppropriate degree.

Hoving described the conditions under which the degree is justified, it is oppropriate to osk obout its requirements. Troditionolly, there hove been four of these—o speciolized curriculum, o foreign longuoge requirement, the quolifying exominotions, ond the dissertation. This trodition deserves coreful exominotion. While the specificotion of requirements should be bosed lorgely on our best estimotes of whot constitutes oppropriate preporotion, excessive tompering with trodition moy distort the meoning of the degree or incite unheolthy interdeportmentol worfore.

The essentiol certification which groduate deportments must moke to society is thot the Ph.D. recipient hos odequote intellectuol tools ond hobits for exercising independent judgment ond odvoncing knowledge in his field. Hopefully, eoch element of the progrom will be designed to further thot end. Admittedly, our present knowledge as to how this con be occomplished is woefully locking. There ore several voriobles which are controlloble—the type of student odmitted, the substontive progrom offered, the requirements imposed, ond the climote provided. Let me moke o few observotions about my perceptions of how these voriobles might be hondled.

1. **Recruitment-Admission.** The success of the groduote progrom is probobly determined more by its recruitment-odmission program thon ony other foctor. The one finding which has consistently been confirmed in all the studies on the effects of specific colleges or programs is thot output reflects input to o remorkoble degree [e.g., Astin (1961); Nichols (1967)]. When we consider the vast voriotion in competencies ond orientotions omong Ph.D. recipients, it is sobering to reolize thot most of this vorition is ottributoble to differences which existed ot the time of enrollment. In short, without on effective recruitment-odmission progrom, the most elegontly contrived doctorol progrom will foil to "produce" effective leoders.

Recruitment is considered o dirty word in "respectoble" ocodemic quorters. Yet groduote deportments do compete for good students just os surely os Ford competes with Chevrolet. There ore now obout 70 universities offering groduote progroms in student personnel work; 27 of these offer Ph.D. degrees in the field. In oddition, 33 others expect to offer groduote work in this oreo in the next 2 yeors (Robinson, 1968).

We hove little information on factors influencing the choice of groduote school. Heiss (1964) did osk this question of groduote students ot Berkeley. Students in professional schools, including educotion, roted proximity to home as most influentiol, probobly becouse so mony ore part-time students. Next most importont wos the generol reputotion of the institution. Over holf were influenced by the presence of o specific foculty member, ond the generol reputation of the deportment wos only o little less importont. Unlike other groduote fields, the ovoilobility of finonciol oid (scholorships, fellowships, ossistontships) wos seldom cruciol. The lotter checks with Dovis' (1964) report thot very few ospironts to groduote work in educotion opply for or receive oid.

While it is dongerous to generolize from results obtoined ot Berkeley, o tentotive interpretotion would suggest thot, if o choice must be mode, it would be wiser to divert funds into hiring o visible foculty rother thon into direct finonciol oid to students. Of course, there is circulority in this odvice, since good foculty ore probobly ottracted by good students os much os by focilities, money, ond opportunities for professionol growth.

Public informotion progroms ore, of course, necessory. It oppeors thot o regionol concentrotion will be most effective. Aside from this, it seems reosonoble to expect thot porticipotion in stote or regionol meetings, conducting locol conferences or workshops, ond providing government-supported institutes will be more effective thon onother indiscriminontly distributed flyer.

Selection procedures ore equolly importont. The troditionol emphoses ore on the tronscript ond o groduote-level optitude test; there is no reoson to believe thot student personnel groduote programs ore exceptions. However, a good deol of evidence suggests thot o considerobly lower generol level of ocademic potentiol chorocterizes groduote students in educotion thon is true in most ocodemic disciplines (e.g., Dovis, 1964). This creotes an owkword situotion. For while ocademic potentiol hos been greotly exoggeroted os o prerequisite to scholorly productivity (Hoyt, 1966), it would be dongerous to reduce the level further for educotion students who will hove to compete with ot leost minimol success in severol ocademic disciplines.

Fortunotely, ocademic ond nonocodemic potentiols are not significontly correloted (Hollond ond Richards, 1965), so that hoving a limited pool of intellectuol tolent need not preclude the selection of potentiolly productive professionols. A coreful review of the previous experiences of oppliconts should permit some reosonobly effective selection.

Whot ore the positive signs? Our best guess is that we should exomine behovior ond occomplishments which simulote os closely os possible the types of activities which occupy the professionol. For exomple, the professionol works with both individuols ond with groups. He estoblishes ond odministers progroms designed to promote development. He contributes to the constont revision of educotionol gools ond policies. Logic suggests thot we should look for students who hove demonstrated tolent for such octivities. Inquiry might well be mode os to whether or not the opplicont hos had ony of the following experiences: girl or boy scout leoder, comp counselor, recreotion ossistont, Sundoy School teocher, tutor to fellow student(s), elected officer of student group in high school ond college, proposer ond effector of chonge in o rule or regulotion, etc. We know thot such octivities ore os chorocteristic of overoge students os they are of superior students. There is every reoson to believe thot if we insist thot the student's post history include such occom-

plishments, our graduates will attain more success in subsequent professional activities.

2. **Substantive Program.** What substantive emphases contribute to one's ability to perform high level professional duties and to offer leadership that will advance the field? In framing our answers, we must rely on experience and judgment. Some assistance is available from a recent study by Rhotigan (1965). He sought judgments of chief student personnel work. The focus of his study was on "What is the most effective preparation for student personnel administrators?" Thus, his results relate to only one segment of professionals, albeit a key one.

One of the more important findings concerned the relative importance of academic preparation and "practical experience." Of the 11 crucial functions identified, administrators considered practical experience to be "essential" in performing five of them and "helpful" in performing six. They considered academic training "essential" for only one function, but "helpful" for seven others. The faculty, of course, offered a somewhat different view. Academic training was perceived as "essential" to effective performance of four functions and "helpful" in four others; practical experience was given an "essential" rating for three functions and a "helpful" rating for seven others. Both groups placed considerable reliance on practical experience, even though the relevance of academic training was also acknowledged.

In terms of specific recommendations, practitioners and faculty members were able to agree on the substance of about three-fourths of a graduate program. Relatively heavy emphasis was given to social-cultural influences, the conduct of research, and courses devoted to individual appraisal and counseling. These areas, plus one or two survey courses on principles of education (learning, curriculum planning, etc.) would constitute about 40 percent of a typical graduate program. Another 35 percent of this program would consist of a broad range of academic courses—group processes, psychology of adjustment, higher education (history, philosophy, structure), the college student, counseling theory, principles of administration, research methodology, basic psychological principles, student personnel courses, and student personnel practica. Roughly two courses were suggested for each of the last three, and one course for the remainder.

A position paper from the American Personnel and Guidance Association also describes the consensual judgment of authorities (APGA, 1967). Eight basic areas in which graduate instruction should be offered were identified. These included Professional Orientation to the Field, Multi-disciplinary Foundations for Student Personnel Practice, Human Development and the Nature and Needs of the College Student, Context and Setting (Higher Education), Methods and Techniques, Specialty Areas (e.g., admissions, housing, etc.), Research and Evaluation, and Integration of Knowledge and Skills (seminars, practica, internships). This statement is a useful reference for determining if a given university has the minimal facilities for establishing a graduate program in student personnel work. But because of its general nature and failure to suggest the degree of emphasis, it has limited utility in curriculum design or the establishment of requirements.

These sources clearly imply that the traditional requirement of a "specialized curriculum" applies if we permit a loose interpretation of "specialized." Both suggest an interdisciplinary approach. Authorities seem agreed that several disciplines offer relevant content, but none offers enough breadth to serve as a home for the graduate program.

If one approaches the problem by asking "What content is sufficiently relevant that mastery in depth is desirable?" it is probable that no degree could be offered. There is always more to be learned. It is true that a course in psychological adjustment is strengthened by a course in physiological psychology. And a course in social influences on behavior may be less than perfectly understood without coursework in experimental psychology, culture and personality, and social class structure. By the time the entire sequence of relevant courses could be negotiated, the student would have to start over because his original courses would be out of date.

It is important to specify the intent of the substantive program. The candidate should receive a reasonable orientation to the description of college students, cultural and interpersonal influences on them, the potentials of the higher education setting for facilitating or impeding growth, the particular opportunities of student personnel work to further student development, and the methods by which additional knowledge in these matters may be acquired. He should leave the program with the following beliefs: multiple factors affect human development; while knowledge about all of these are incomplete, I know enough about them to evaluate their possible relevance in specific instances; I am sufficiently acquainted with the constructs of relevant disciplines that I can seek deeper understandings from written works or from a scholar if the occasion warrants this; I can read journals with a critical understanding; I can recognize factors which need to be controlled in experimental studies or taken into account in understanding complex events.

In any field, learning is a life-long proposition. The graduate department need only be concerned that its graduates (1) retain an enthusiasm for learning more and (2) possess adequate tools and habits for pursuing such learning without formal guidance.

One additional thought might be added. Student personnel workers, being human, will seek to improve their status in the academic community. The most obvious route is through departmental affiliation. But departments are unlikely to look positively on appointments, even courtesy ones, for Ph.D.'s with an interdisciplinary background. Therefore, it may be wise to suggest that, after necessary orientations have been attained, a concentration equivalent to a strong minor be pursued in some one area or discipline.

3. **Requirements.** A foreign language requirement cannot be justified on educational grounds. The historical antecedents which gave rise to this requirement have no modern counterparts. It is not necessary to go to France or Germany to obtain a first-rate graduate experience. Nor is the student likely to miss important breakthroughs which are reported in foreign journals; routine translations have become common.

Present-day proponents of the language requirement use several arguments, none of which are particularly convincing. Almost certainly, someone will promote the requirements as a defense against the lowering of standards. Predictably, this argument produces long and fruitless discussions on the meaning of "standards." Another

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defense is made on cultural grounds. But it is doubtful if many would maintain that the Ph.D. program is intended to improve one's understandings of foreign cultures or that, if it were, other kinds of experience would not do a more effective and efficient job. And those who point to the increasing knowledge of foreign exchange programs, foreign visitors, and international consultation as a justification, fail to note that such programs are growing at a rapid pace through the use of interpreters. Facility in the native language is seldom required for an overseas teaching or consulting job.

There may be a few fields where foreign language mastery is essential to scholarly accomplishment. In these instances, the requirement makes sense. But in most fields, including education, it doesn't.

The chief practical justification for retaining it is a political one. Faculty members from well-established disciplines are afraid that its elimination will "cheapen" the degree, not only for the departments involved but for all departments in the institution. Fortunate indeed are those departments which need not contend with such faculty logic.

Comprehensive examinations are another tradition. Logically, they make sense only if the continuing term-by-term appraisal of the student progress is believed to be inadequate. I would guess that most graduate faculty members will agree that course by course evaluation is too limited, even though they may not accept such a criticism of their personal evaluations. In any event, there is general acceptance of the notion that some assessment should be made of the individual's ability to integrate his learning experiences, to apply his learning to important issues or problems, and to demonstrate independent, critical judgment.

And then there is the problem of the dissertation. We need to be clear that the dissertation does provide an opportunity to demonstrate research capabilities and that the performance of original research is a highly acceptable way of advancing one's field. If a question needs to be raised, it is, "Are there other ways by which one might demonstrate that he can advance his field?"

There is ample evidence that the dissertation is no guarantee of continued productivity as a research scholar. The modal number of postdoctoral research publications is still zero (Dunham et al., 1966). Most Ph.D. advisers know long before the dissertation is attempted who will grasp the opportunity eagerly and who will hesitatingly and anxiously try to do what is required. The relief of the latter upon the acceptance of the dissertation is as sincere as their frequently expressed hope that they'll never have to go through an experience like that again.

Undoubtedly, some graduate programs have violated the trust placed in them by nursing along students with little research talent. If a thorough examination were made, I'm sure we would find a number of advisers who, in desperation, have selected the research topic, provided the data, outlined the analyses, and finally written the best part of the dissertation for their good-hearted, persistent, and incompetent students.

This type of intellectual dishonesty cannot be condoned. But it is fair to ask, "How can this student best demonstrate his ability to contribute to and advance the field?" I suspect that there are alternatives to the research dissertation. A thoroughly documented proposal for an original student development program, for example, would demonstrate exactly this type of accomplishment. The student would provide a review of evidence regarding the student characteristics of interest—developmental trends, factors influencing or impeding development, the education, social, or cultural relevance of the characteristics. He would construct a theory as to how the development of the characteristics could be facilitated—the conditions under which growth should occur and the inhibiting factors which would have to be reduced or eliminated. He would design a program whose rationale derives from this theory. And he would propose approaches to the assessment of the process and outcome variables identified in his proposal. The demonstration o. this type of original thinking based on an integration of his theoretical and substantive knowledge seems to me to satisfy the graduate department's obligation to certify his qualifications as a leader capable of advancing his field.

I believe it would be wise to consider additional ways in which this type of talent could be recognized, simply because I believe important contributions can be made in several different ways. It is widely contended that many potentially creative and productive individuals withdraw from graduate study because the dissertation requirement is too alien to their nature. While we don't know that this is true, we do know that there are several kinds of contributions which can advance the field. It would be catastrophic to deny endorsement to those whose creative ideas may be the very ones which will finally make our research efforts truly productive.

A practical experience requirement appears to have merit. The purposes of the requirement should be to gain background for interpreting later academic experiences, to gain a more substantial feeling for the nature and context of the work, to stimulate creative thought about current and future activities, and to exercise and evaluate personal skills and talents. Four types of experience are relevant —observation of professional functioning, supervised part-time practice, supervised internship, and full-time unsupervised experience. The first two should occur during the first year of graduate school, and may profitably be extended into the second year. The internship should be a full-time opportunity for at least one-half of an academic year, and might best occur immediately after the qualifying examinations have been passed. The internship might well be waived for those who have had one or two years of full-time unsupervised experience in a student personnel position.

4. **The Educational Climate.** It has been a popular pastime in some quarters to criticize the Ph.D. process (e.g., Beach, 1965). A number of writers have been appalled by the length of time it takes the average student to complete the degree. Even in physics, a field in which graduate students are especially well supported and a conscious effort is made to accelerate the process and thus hasten the time when the young scholar can begin making his contributions, the average age of the new Ph.D. is 30.5 (Berelson, 1960). Whether the imposing list of requirements represents necessary safeguards against shoddy scholarship or simply arbitrary hurdles in an endurance contest needs careful review.

While faculties can be expected to resist modifications which appear to "lower the standards," there are a few matters which are directly related to student morale and commitment which are less controversial. Baird's analyses

of graduate student attitudes yielded several useful findings (Baird, in press). The degree to which students expressed commitment to their field was unrelated to student-faculty interactions, but was closely related to student-student interaction. Students who maintained close relations with other graduate students developed a strong sense of commitment to their field regardless of whether these groups were supportive of faculty demands, were organized to counter faculty demands by planning a collective strategy, or were simply competitive cliques. Students whose major reference groups were outside the university failed to develop this commitment to the field.

Baird also showed that student tension was essentially unrelated to academic difficulty—the amount and level of work expected. Rather, tension reflected ambiguity regarding expectations, competition for grades (a factor relatively unrelated to difficulty), and perceived low morale within the department.

And psychological, if not physical, withdrawal was associated with uncertainty about faculty expectations incompatibility of the demands made by two or more faculty members, changeability in the demands of advisers and the power of a single faculty member to control the student's future.

These findings supplement Heiss' useful survey of graduate student perceptions of the Ph.D. process (Heiss, 1964). She found orientation to the program to be woefully weak, communication of the requirements and expectations to be either ignored or done with so much ambiguity that it simply increases anxiety, and the student grapevine to be widely acknowledged as the only trustworthy source of information.

Given these findings, it seems desirable for the graduate faculty to make a substantial effort to improve the climate. Each student should receive an individual interview at least once a term in which his progress and goals are reviewed, long-range plans are made, and individual questions or concerns can be handled. Regular channels for communicating policies and the Ph.D. process should be established; committee meetings should resolve, not introduce, differences of opinion among committee members. And efforts to encourage student group cohesion should be undertaken, both through formal organizations like Phi Delta Kappa and through informal means (e.g., using student committees or team assignments in coursework)

SUMMARY

I've tried to suggest ways in which student personnel work will develop in the future. In general, it will be tied to a firmer and more positive educational rationale than has been the case. While certain routine activities and those involved with the control of student behavio through rules and regulations, will decline, functions requiring considerable creativity and professional sophistication will increase.

To prepare for this future, a considerable burden will fall on graduate departments offering the Ph.D. in student personnel work. A broad outline of such a program was suggested. While radical departures from the traditional Ph.D. process are unnecessary, certain innovations seem desirable. Selection on meaningful nonintellectual criteria is the most important. The elimination of the language requirement would represent a constructive advance, and a re-examination of the research dissertation as the only way of demonstrating ability to odvϵ a the field seems warranted. Finally, a simple application of student personnel principles to the graduate student shoul J promote a more healthy, productive educationcl climat's.

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Research Training in Doctoral Programs
In Education: Why, What, and for Whom?[1]

A position poper on this subject should present the needs of doctorol progroms ond groduotes os they oppeor to the viewer. The position token moy not be correct but if it provokes thoughtful considerotion of the issues ot hond, it hos ochieved its purpose. The process of exomining on issue corries with it certoin risks, however. It brings out differences of opinion—even controversy—which pose certoin threots to people such os requiring them to provide reosons for the position held. But controversy is o bedfellow of chonge ond progress. Few things stimulote behovior, cognitive os well os offective, os does o chollenge to the position one holds. The poyoff, however, is either o greoter confidence in the position or o modificotion which is opt to be superior. Konsos Stote University is ot o certoin odvontoge os it considers the ingredients of o doctorol progrom in education since there ore no vested interests in o post doctorol progrom which need to be guorded.

Why? There is no progress without chonge; unfortunotely, we con hove chonge without progress. One importont role of reseorch is to ossess the effects of chonge. (Chonge here is broodly defined to include chonge in ideos ond theory os well os chonge in proctice.) Certoinly oll educotors, especiolly those in positions of outhority ond leodership, ore onxious for improvement in their oreos of speciolizotion, but without reseorch, whot tool is to be utilized? Whot is the olternotive to o reseorch opprooch in education? A continuotion of the "orm-choir" model utilizing "common sense" os the criterion, which, os Whiteheod (1911) observed, "Its sole criterion is thot the new ideos sholl look like the old ones"?

I wish to moke severol comments pertoining to the reseorch troining ospects of doctorol progroms in educotion generolly, ond then offer some odditionol suggestions for the stotistics-meosurement speciolty.

Whot? A most unfortunote toxonomy seems to be emerging in the field of education, nomely, thot reseorch is one speciolty in the sense thot science education or odministrotion is o field of speciolizotion. As noted by Sjogren (1968) the identificotion of the "educotionol reseorcher" often seems to imply thot he is **the** person responsible for reseorch in education ond oll other educotionists ore obsolved of this responsibility. Although the speciolist in stotistics ond meosurement is usuolly involved in reseorch, his reseorch will usuolly be on problems of meosurement, stotistics, reseorch design **per se**, thot is, in his own oreo of inquiry. A speciolty of biometrics in no woy minimizes the need for o biologist to do reseorch; it only provides on odditionol resource for better biologicol reseorch.

If the need for reseorch is ocknowledged, who then should do it? Highest quolity reseorch results when on expert in the generol oreo of the reseorch (e.g., reoding or counseling) teoms up with on expert in reseorch design ond onolysis. But if they connot understond eoch other, good reseorch will not result. The non-reseorch speciolist needs consideroble reseorch troining to enoble him to work effectively with the speciolist. Much of the unfortunote

psychologicol seporotion between reseorchers ond non-reseorchers con probobly be troced to o lock of understonding on the port of the non-reseorcher, hence reseorch ond reseorchers become threots. Sixty percent of oll doctorol recipients go into college ond university positions where reseorch skills ore highly relevont; only 25 percent remoin in elementory or secondory school positions (8). But even the proctitioner, who does not plon to become involved with reseorch hos greot need for reseorch troining if he plons to reod ond comprehend much of the better reseorch literoture in his own oreo. The commentory "You con prove onything with stotistics" only mokes the point; it is true only with noive consumers.

A convincing cose con be mode for the need of the non-speciolty in reseorch methodology to know more obout reseorch now thon ever before. Possibly 60 percent of oll the educotionol reseorch ever conducted hos been performed in the post ten yeors. From 1960 to 1966 the funds expended onnuolly for educotionol reseorch (broodly defined) increosed 1000 percent from obout $10 million per yeor to over $100 million per yeor (Keppel, 1966, p. 123). There were neither Reseorch ond Development Centers nor Regionol Loborotories in Education in 1960. The number of full-time reseorch positions in Education hos tripled in the post five yeors. The quolity of reseorch in oll oreos of education is olso increosing, olthough ot o much slower rote. The computer mode procticoble powerful reseorch methods thot were unreolistic even o decode ogo. The use of the t-test is ropidly being reploced by multi-foctor onolyses of voriance. Recently Trovers (1964, p. v) observed, "Since the first edition of this book (**An Introduction to Educotionol Research,** 1958) wos published some dromotic chonges hove begun to mork the oppeoronce of educotionol reseorch. These chonges coll for the troining of o new breed of education reseorch worker." The greoter sophisticotion in the design ond onolysis of educotionol reseorch ond evoluotion increoses the omount of troining required of the consumer os well os the producer of reseorch. The need for more reseorch troining will become even more importont os the groduotes of the title IV reseorch troining progroms become ossimiloted into the profession, which will number obout 600 onnuolly beginning in 1969 (1).

Every doctorol recipient in education needs the minimum preporotion competencies suggested below, which go well beyond the modol preporotion in most current doctorol progroms in education.

1. The obility to interpret ond properly employ elementory ond intermediote opplied inferentiol stotistics techniques.[2]

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2. General competence in experimental design and analysis[a] and related computer utilization.
3. Competence in evaluation methodology.[b]
4. A grasp of basic measurement principles and theory.[c]
5. In addition to formal course work, a research practicum in field of specialization is a most important training experience.

The indicated skills are germane to every doctoral specialty in education, with the possible exception of specialists in the history or philosophy of education who would require a different kind of research training. We often fail to recognize what we are missing until we have become aware of a tool or resource. Consequently, the fact that some persons have been productive and successful without this degree of preparation provides no cogent evidence contrary to the recommendation. The fact that only ten to twenty percent approval rates result with proposals evaluated only on the basis of quality, not limitations of funds (Krathwohl, 1964, p. 73), indicates a general deficiency in research design competencies of professionals in education. Stanley (1966) has observed, "One of the chief reasons educational research seems to have produced little of value may be that it has not been tried intensively and exhaustively enough by able, well-prepared persons." A survey of persons conducting educational research (Guba, 1964) revealed that most of the present supply did not receive adequate training in research. We need to give students better training than we received so the next generation of professionals will be better qualified to advance knowledge than we are.

I have attempted to present a case for extensive, relevant research preparation for all doctoral candidates in education. I have presented what seems to me to be a program that minimally diverts a candidate's efforts from his principal area of specialty and yet makes him cognizant of the breadth and depth of the statistical, measurement, computer, and evaluation tools available to him.

PREPARATION OF SPECIALISTS IN RESEARCH METHODOLOGY IN EDUCATION

In addition to the research training core suggested earlier, the statistics-measurement specialist should have advanced preparation in each related area. Much of this advanced work requires extensive preparation in mathematics; the equivalent of at least a minor appears minimal. Prerequisites of modern algebra, matrix algebra, and calculus are demanded for much of the specialty preparation. Persons with high aptitude, but without this preparation, should not be discouraged from pursuing this specialty, but should be encouraged to make up their deficiencies. Specialists should have competencies beyond that suggested earlier in the following areas:

1. Probability Theory
2. Mathematical Statistics
3. Computing Science
4. Multivariate Analysis
5. Measurement Theory
6. Philosophy of Science

Research internships have been a serious omission in many current programs. The research specialist needs much more than a broad interdisciplinary experience and sophisticated statistical training, vital as they are. He needs to be acquainted with the school setting and with its facilitating and impeding aspects. He must be able to communicate and work effectively with other school personnel. He must be able to generate insight into the need for quality research in education. He must be able to interpret the results of rigorous statistical analyses to persons of limited background and be able to translate the results of research into meaningful terms and implications for school practice. Practice should be established in a wide spectrum of educational agencies and contexts.

Research design is something of an art that is cultivated by experience. Statistics can be approached didactically, but as Winer (1962, p. 1) noted:

the design of an experiment may be compared to an architect's plans for a structure. . . . The basic requirements for the structure are given to the architect by the property owner. It is the architect's task to fill these basic requirements, yet the architect has ample room for exercising his ingenuity. Several different plans may be drawn up to meet all the basic requirements.

Contrary to popular notions, skill in research design does not follow naturally and automatically from knowledge of statistics. Mathematical statisticians as a group have not been particularly successful as consultants on behavioral research. A supervised practicum seems to me to offer the best opportunity to develop the needed sensitivities; such a practicum is one function of the Laboratory of Educational Research at the University of Colorado where students regularly grapple with problems of design, measurement, and analysis within every area of education and from many other disciplines. Learning to function effectively not only with highly controlled laboratory studies but in the restrictive contexts often imposed by ongoing field studies in the public schools is a formidable challenge, emotionally as well as intellectually. Yet if the tools of research and evaluation are to serve us better, such skills are indispensable.

RELATED PERSONNEL ISSUES

No discipline in the university community houses as diverse roles, purposes, and expectations as that found in schools of education. No institution can expect to excel in every aspect. Reality requires that priorities be established. Priorities require objectives, at least implicitly. The objectives of a university are different from a teachers college, yet many departments and schools of education are still characterized by the normal school philosophy which arose from society's needs a generation or two ago; these departments are preoccupied with teacher training. Such an emphasis is most appropriate for institu-

assist the experimenter. The validity of this point also holds for the course instruction. To maximize the relevance of statistics in a discipline, it must be seen through the application and needs of that discipline. Situations in which mathematical statisticians have served as instructors for applied statistics courses have generally been unsuccessful and in most universities have been abandoned in favor of more specialized courses within the various disciplines. This procedure also has its dangers, however. Without question, those courses have often been staffed by inadequately trained personnel. This is an important reason why specialists in research methodology in education are needed.

3. At the level of Winer, B. J., Statistical Principles in Experimental Design, McGraw-Hill, 1962, to include multi-factor analyses of variance and covariance techniques.

4. This is not to be confused with measurement per se, but evaluation in the sense presented in the AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation I.

5. I did not suggest a computer course that some might expect. Ninety-five percent of high quality research will require no programming. Packages of standard library programs are available at all university computer centers with which I am familiar. As I indicated earlier, the use of these programs should be integrated into the experimental design course.

tions which are not in the doctoral-producing business, but should not be the major thrust of the faculty of a major university.

A number of schools are in a transition from a normal school to a university. Probably without exception, there has been strong division of opinion and resistance to this natural evolution. There have been overzealous crusaders who have retarded progress by downgrading the status quo in an attempt to enhance the need for change. There also have been those who are threatened by change and hold tenaciously to the past. How can the problems accompanying the growth from a college to a university be minimized?

The university requires more depth specialization to justify the preparation of doctoral students. The job market is requiring increased specialization. A school of education cannot expect to become qualified to offer a doctoral program in every area of study simultaneously. Authorization of doctoral work is not tantamount to its justification. Once an institution acquires a professional reputation, change is difficult. A strong program in one area of study should be developed before attempting to offer a doctorate in another area. A loose-fitting departmental or divisional organizational structure facilitates the specialization objective. There is no need for more mediocre or weak doctoral programs. But, as noted in the Report of the Harvard Committee in **The Graduate Study of Education** (1966), "sound-proof" divisions encourage sterility in the same way that isolation of a School of Education from other departments of a university does. Many of the programs will require a cooperative interdisciplinary network.

Quality programs require quality faculty. To recruit the needed faculty may require what appear to be inequities in the minds of some, but I see no other realistic solution if the objective is to be attained. I am not only speaking with respect to salary but also with respect to the expected professional role. On any faculty there are those who have neither the interest nor the type of preparation required for directing post-master's level work. Such individuals should not be suddenly forced into roles for which they are unqualified. Their contribution will continue to lie in teaching and service. Quality doctoral work is inextricably tied to research and inquiry. We should not expect each faculty member to be highly productive in teaching, research, and service. We need diversification of roles to allow each person to contribute in his areas of greatest competence. The total faculty must have a significant thrust in teaching, research, and service, but all professors should not look or act alike. Too often, teaching responsibilities do not reflect this differentiation. To expect those who are extensively engaged in research or service to teach to the same extent as those who are not does not adequately recognize the other functions of a university.

For Whom? The best training program will not produce highly competent products unless it interacts with quality input. As Stanley (1967, p. 2) observed:

No programs of courses, research experiences, and internships can produce miracles with students too old, too lacking in research orientation, or too slow to absorb the offerings. . . . The quality of the entering student does more than any other **one** thing to determine the quality of researcher produced.

The median age for recipients of doctoral degrees in education in 1958-1966 was 4 years greater than for any other field or profession: 38.4 years, with one-fourth being 43.5 years or older (6). While the time interval between the bachelor's degree and the doctorate is decreasing in all other fields, it is increasing in education! Certainly one should receive his doctorate well before one-third of his professional career is passed. Able students must be actively encouraged to enter our doctoral programs at an earlier age.

Times have changed since I was a graduate student. Opportunities for support are much greater today; hence to compete successfully for the most able prospects with greatest potential will require attractive fellowships and assistantships. I am convinced that full-time residence is the best way to pursue doctoral work, and full-time study is difficult without financial support.

I have attempted to present the research training needs for the general and special doctoral student in the field of education. If one develops quality programs with competent personnel and attracts able graduate students, the products of the program will make their intended contribution."

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6. For excellent additional treatments of the related issues, the reader is referred to the works of Clark and Worthen (1) and Lazarsfeld and Sieber (7).

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Designing Curriculum and Instruction
As Part of Doctoral Programs in Education

It is with some envy that I speak with you today about designing doctoral programs. I am sure there are many of us who would like to be starting fresh, unencumbered by the conservatism of graduate faculties and rules and regulations that no longer make much sense, but are kept because it is too difficult to get them changed. These are exciting times in education and the new ideas in our field will compel us all to redesign graduate training. Your university with its tradition of service and professional training in other fields is in a very good position to begin doctoral work.

Until fairly recent years, only a handful of universities offered doctoral programs in education (3), and often these programs were viewed with considerable suspicion by other members of the university community. In my own college, for example, a man who is now a distinguished professor was for many years denied standing in the graduate faculty. His field of curriculum was not considered a scholarly area. At that time, only one professor was fully accepted by the graduate faculty. This man was an educational historian who was an expert in colonial education, and his course in the history of American education never got beyond the colonial period because nothing of significance in education had happened post that time.

When doctoral programs in education did begin, it was common for the foundation areas to dominate their content. Areas of study such as curriculum development, educational methods, and elementary education were believed by many not to deserve a place in the university's graduate program.

Schools of education themselves were not clear about what their purpose was or should be (3). On the one hand were those who wanted to model programs after older disciplines with an emphasis upon scholarship and research, and on the other were educators who saw graduate training from a professional standpoint with the aim of training administrators and school consultants. As Tyler noted in his chapter of the 1950 NSSE Yearbook on Graduate Training in Education, there were multiple pressures from both the profession in the public schools and from within the universities. There was, for example, a growing demand that superintendents, and even principals, hold the doctor's degree, and consequent growth of doctoral study to meet this demand. At that time, Tyler rejected this pressure as a valid basis for building graduate programs and instead argued that schools should change their hiring practices.

While the conditions above noted have not entirely dissipated, there is now a much greater acceptance of the field of education as a discipline in its own right and a very rapid growth of graduate programs in education. In state after state, normal schools have become universities and some of these have, in a dozen years, experienced the development that took a century or more in the older universities. The difficulties and mistakes of both the older colleges and the recently established ones can be viewed profitably by institutions who are yet to embark on doctoral training. Innovations in graduate study are

badly needed. Those universities which today are beginning doctoral programs would, I believe, make a serious mistake if they were to copy the curricula and instructional design of existing institutions that are often the victims of unhealthy conservatism and academic inertia. It would be an equally bad mistake not to learn from other colleges.

In the following ten suggestions, I have tried to include guides to the building of courses, experiences, service activities, and research, all of which go together to make a doctoral training program.

1. There should be a clear differentiation between service courses, professional courses, and advanced research courses. It is difficult for a single course adequately to present material to beginning graduate students and majors in the discipline which offers the course. Yet this is common practice. Enrollments may not be sufficient to allow for enough courses to avoid this difficulty entirely, and some "student mix" is desirable. Suggested ways of handling the problem include: (a) the use of proficiency examinations and pre-tests, (b) the use of advanced students as tutors, seminar leaders, etc., (c) development of special sections of the same course, and (d) offering courses only once a year or so to build up necessary enrollments for specialized courses.

2. The activism of college students throughout the world may very well be symptomatic of the fact that higher education has not kept pace with rates of change, nor has it appropriately involved students in policy matters in which students believe they should share. Harry Gideons in the banquet address at last February's AACTE meetings asserted that students clearly perceive that many college instructors view teaching with contempt and see little relevance in what they learn to the problems they face. Pressey (6) makes much the same point in a delightful article, "Teaching in the Ivory Tower with Rarely a Step Outside." Doctoral students should be made to feel they are real partners in the quest for knowledge.

3. While there has been change in curricula in teacher education, there has been very little innovation in changing teachers' behavior. Robert Howsam, Dean of Education at the University of Houston, has remarked about the professor of education: "He has as his major task changing behaviors that are deep rooted in the views of reality held by pupils, parents, and educators. The favorite educational device of 'telling' is not likely to effect much behavioral change. Only great insight and powerful means are likely to work" (2). Experience in courses must go beyond what is presently done in graduate training. McDonald (5) in speaking of the role of psychology in teacher training programs makes much the same point when he says that traditional psychology may be of little value unless it does more than present information.

4. Few existing programs have been built with any thought of an international dimension, and yet this dimension could well become a major contribution of the college of education to its university and to the nation. In his report **The World and the American Teacher,** Harold Taylor

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urges colleges of education to make their own alliances abroad. He believes the very best students (e.g., returning Peace Corps workers) will beat a path to our doors when they see what we are doing. He writes, "Colleges and universities should be reorganized to give students responsibility for conducting their own education, for developing their own study projects, for teaching themselves through research projects, field work at home and abroad, student-led seminars, tutoring children and fellow students, and inclusion in policy making bodies within colleges and universities" (8).

A sample of a few of his several dozen recommendations include: (a) we increase the foreign student pool for use as graduate assistants, (b) we set up graduate degree programs in education for returning Peace Corps volunteers, (c) develop international teaching centers, (d) make up video-taped discussions of our students with foreign students.

5. Flexibility in both programs and in specific courses may be hard to come by in established doctoral programs. New ones should be designed to allow for continual change as it is needed and for individualization at the outset. For an excellent discussion of problems in curriculum reform, I refer you to John Goodlad whose principles of balance, experimentation, self-renewal, authority and responsibility, and future orientation are as appropriate for graduate work as they are for curriculum reform in the public schools.

6. To be most effective, doctoral programs in education should be multi-disciplinary (3), but it is wrong to always borrow and never lend. Graduate work in education should contribute as much to the university as a whole as it gains from other fields. Consider these facts: (a) many university departments are seeking help in counseling, educational measurement, instructional methods, the use of new media, etc.; (b) educators have not provided leadership in meeting problems in higher education; (c) many doctoral students in education never take a course in any field but education from the time they receive their B.A. until they obtain their Ph.D. or Ed.D.; and (d) the rapidly expanding junior college movement finds colleges of education with little to offer by way of leadership in either academic work or in vocational-technical education. I could go on citing numerous examples to show that the liaison between graduate study in education and other fields is badly neglected in many, if not most, universities.

7. Built in as a visible part of the program should be a variety of extra-course experiences such as tutoring, internships, student-led seminars, and various work experiences. In my own college, the programs that have attracted greatest attention, get the best students, and show the best student morale are the ones that do more than prescribe a series of courses. In one program, for example, students each Friday afternoon conduct an informal non-credit seminar at which they present their own research projects or invite in visiting staff members to discuss current issues and research. Some of the leading educators and psychologists in the world have presented papers to this small group of twenty or so graduate students. All of these students do an internship in an ongoing research project

and most have published an article or two before graduation. What distinguishes this group of students is not their formal course requirements so much as their planned-for extra-course experiences.

8. If different doctoral degrees are awarded, the curricular design should be clearly specified and understood. Few colleges have the resources to develop doctoral programs in all areas and to serve all purposes. In capitalizing upon strengths and developing clearly focused programs, a college can develop distinction which it may sacrifice if it tries to be all things to all people. Thus, it may be necessary to choose between several desirable alternatives. If the decision is to have both professional and research degrees, these should be clearly delineated and under each should be offered only those specializations that can receive reasonable staff and logistic support.

9. The new NCATE standards, while applying mainly to teacher certification, may offer valuable guides to the development of graduate programs. As Mayor (4) has pointed out, NCATE has withheld accreditation because too few subject-matter courses are required in master's degree programs, and too few qualified cognate areas are required for the proposed doctoral program in education. The standards also show awareness of the fact that various courses in education are too frequently taught by people with little training in the area in which they teach. Doctoral programs that clearly focus graduate experiences in special areas of study will furnish teachers whose competence will not be questioned.

10. The morale and professional growth of students will depend to a great extent upon the image they have of their institution, their faculty, and their fellow students. The self-fulfilling prophecy (7) works not only for children but for graduate students too. Certainly a great part of what makes a "second-rate" institution is to be found, not in the label as given by an outside agency or group, but from the self-perception of faculty and students. This program right from the start should be viewed as a good one. Wishing won't make it so, but believing it cannot happen will assure that it does not.

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The Doctoral Program for Specialists In Curriculum and Instruction

THE NEED

During the first half of the present century, changes in the curricular content and instructional methodology of our elementary and secondary schools occurred very slowly. More than a quarter of a century ago this slow rate of change was described by Professor Mort in a statement that come to be known as Mort's "diffusion rate." According to Mort, it took about 15 years before 3 percent of the school systems adopted a new practice after its introduction and 50 years before it become completely diffused.

Because of the realization that education is our chief hope for the solution of the societal ills that have plagued the world, it is unlikely that the curricula of our schools will ever again remain as static as they once were. Educational events during the last decade are sufficient proof that changes in the structure and content of American education are needed and can occur much more rapidly than was once thought possible. According to Frederick Show: "School curricula have changed more in the last ten years than in any other decade of our national history."[1]

One of the reasons that the curricular content of our schools was static for so long was the shortage of specialists who were trained and employed for curriculum development work. This phase of the school's operation was often delegated by school administrators to committees of teachers with little or no expert supervision or assistance provided. The resulting changes often amounted to little more than the adoption of a different set of textbooks.

Since publishers understood the reluctance of teachers to make significant changes in their instructional programs, textbook changes usually amounted to modifications of organization rather than of content. The status quo perpetuated itself. Professional educators, as well as the lay public, felt little need for specialists in curriculum development.

Today, however, curricular change is a reality of the times, and this, in general, is desirable. For this reason, there is an ever-increasing need for curriculum and instruction specialists—specialists who are skilled in the engineering of curricular change. The question confronting educators today is not whether curricular change is needed or if there is a need for curriculum specialists, but rather what kind of a graduate program is needed to prepare curriclum specialists who can meet the challenges of both the present and the future?

THE PROBLEM

Because of the diverse types of positions that are available to the holder of the doctorate who has specialized in curriculum and instruction, designing a graduate program for this subdivision of professional education is more difficult than for most other areas. For example, among the types of positions available to the curriculum specialist are college teaching, supervisory work in public schools, state department of education work, educational leadership positions with business and industry, curriculum develop-

ment work in government supported projects such as Title III of ESEA or regional educational laboratories, and, of course, various types of administrative positions in the field of education. Within each of these categories there is a variety of types of positions for the curriculum specialist.

Another complicating factor in designing a graduate-level preparation program for curriculum specialists is that the individual may prepare for at least four types of supervisory positions: (1) generalist, all-level; (2) generalist, specific-level; (3) specialist, all-level; and (4) specialist, specific-level. For example, a doctoral candidate may prepare to be a curriculum generalist for both the elementary and secondary levels, or he may wish to prepare for a position as a science education specialist at the elementary level only.

The role of curriculum supervisor in public schools differs greatly from one school system to another in relation to the positions for other administrative and service personnel. Some school systems have a well-developed hierarchy of curriculum supervisors with an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction at the top of the echelon; directors of elementary education and secondary education at the second level; supervisors of music, art, physical education, reading, science, mathematics, and other disciplines at the third level, and perhaps departmental chairmen at the fourth level. In this type of organization, the person in charge of the supervisory staff is a line officer who has been delegated decision-making authority which he may or may not pass on to his subordinates. In other school systems, the curriculum workers are considered as being staff personnel with virtually no administrative authority. In the latter type of organization, the supervisor has no authority to make curriculum decisions and, normally, does not work with teachers in a given school without being invited by the teacher with the acquiescence of the principal. There are also school systems in which the curriculum worker's role has not been clearly defined with respect to curricular decision-making or the improvement of instruction.

Needless to say, the knowledge and skills needed by a curriculum specialist with line responsibilities are considerably different from those needed by the curriculum specialist serving in a staff position. Because of the varied roles of the curriculum supervisor, it is very difficult to specify the preparation program for a specialist in this field. Fortunately, however, there is a common body of knowledge needed by all types of curriculum and instruction specialists if they are to function effectively.

In addition to the problems confronted in designing doctoral programs for curriculum specialists that arise from the varied types of roles which the individual may fulfill, educational reform stemming from a multiplicity of factors complicate the task even more. Increased concern for the education of disadvantaged youth and problems of urban education have had a profound effect upon the

1. Frederick Shaw. "The Changing Curriculum." Review of Educational Research, 36 (June, 1966), 343.

role of the curriculum worker. A re-examination of the structure, content, and method of subject fields by curricular study groups such as the Biological Science Curriculum Study, the Earth Science Curriculum Project, and others also have influenced the role of curriculum specialists. Significant influences on curriculum development have resulted also from the increased involvement of the federal government in education through such legislation as the National Defense Education Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and more recently the Education Professions Development Act.

Other factors that affect the role of the curriculum worker are advancements in educational technology, the entry of industry into the development of curricular packages, new procedures for analyzing teaching behavior and teacher-class interaction, and innovative schemes for staff utilization. Although an accurate assessment cannot be made at this time, the surge in teacher militancy and teacher negotiations undoubtedly will influence the role of the curriculum supervisor. Some educators have speculated that teacher negotiations will greatly reduce or possibly eliminate the need for curriculum supervisors holding line positions in the administrative structure of schools. Although the rise in teacher negotiations does cloud the picture of the future role of the curriculum supervisor, leadership in curriculum and instruction will always be needed if our society successfully negotiates the challenges ahead.

If it were possible to predict accurately whether the candidate will go into college teaching, public school work, or some other type of curriculum work, the task of designing a doctoral program would be simplified. However, it is most difficult to determine what type of position a given candidate will have five years after the completion of his graduate work. For this reason, the program should be developed so that the individual can perform adequately both as a practitioner and as a curriculum professor.

A THEORETICAL BASE

In order to design a feasible program for the preparation of any type of educational specialist, a set of objectives, a job description, or some type of theoretical framework is needed as a frame of reference. A set of principles and recommendations for the professionalization of supervisors and curriculum workers that was developed by the Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development serves that purpose in this presentation. Since many of the problems related to preparation programs for professionals stem from the major issues involved in the professionalization process, it would seem advisable to be cognizant of the recommendations of the organization that represents the profession. In its statement the Commission has devoted attention to such factors as the following: (1) identification and recruitment, (2) selection and admission, (3) preparatory programs, (4) certification, and (5) continuing professional development.

In the interest of time, attention will be devoted to preparatory programs only in this presentation. The other factors are normally controlled by the faculty of the graduate school and/or the membership of the profession. In the portion of the Commission's report on preparatory programs, the following principle and recommendations were presented:

Principle III
The preparation program of supervisors and curriculum workers will provide a planned sequence of learning experiences designed to develop knowledge, understanding, and skill necessary for relating research, theory, and practice.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The program for preparation of supervisors and curriculum workers contains theoretical study and practical experience in curriculum design.
2. The program contains theoretical study and practical experience with supervisory techniques.
3. The program assures that a student has knowledge in the related areas such as administration, guidance, pupil personnel, and measurement and evaluation.
4. The program includes study in the research and newer developments in relevant cognitive and affective fields such as the humanities and behavioral sciences.
5. The program provides a "practicum type" experience in which students have an opportunity to utilize concepts and skills (conceptual, technical, human) developed in other phases of the program.
6. The program provides an "internship type" experience in a field situation in which students have an opportunity to demonstrate instructional supervisory behavior over a continuous or extended period of time.
7. Institutions providing preparatory programs will possess or have access to services and facilities such as curriculum laboratories, a data processing center, an instructional materials center, and other learning resources and media.
8. The faculty who staff the preparatory program reflect in their preparation and performance their involvement in supervision and curriculum work as evidenced by writing, research, continuing field experience, and participation in state and national organizations.
9. The program requires a minimum of two years of study beyond the baccalaureate degree, one of which should be spent in residence at the preparatory institution.
10. There is an organizational structure which provides for unity, coordination, and evaluation.
11. The program includes appropriate measures for determining the competence of the individual to perform the behaviors requisite to achieving the objectives stated by the program.
12. Preparatory programs are restricted to those institutions which have programs accredited by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.[2]

Since a sizable portion of curriculum and instruction specialists who hold the doctorate become engaged in teacher education, research competence is needed in addition to the above. A program of studies designed to fulfill all of the Commission's recommendations plus the research requirements constitute a rather formidable doctoral program. Yet, to be effective the specialist in curriculum and instruction must develop proficiency in several facets of professional education and one or more academic fields as well as possess knowledge of research methodology and the behavioral sciences.

2. Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers, "Principles and Recommendations for the Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers," ASCD News Exchange, (July, 1967, Supplementary Edition), pp. 1-2.

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Every school and college of education seeks to find the best means of utilizing its resources for the improvement of education for our nation's youth. The challenge is to determine the proper mix of course work, on-the-job training, and research activities for all types of professional education specialists that are needed to get the job done. Experimentation is needed to design a feasible program commensurate with the recommendations of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development that will enable the specialist in curriculum and instruction to function in a variety of positions. The following conceptual model shows the relation of the various components of the preparatory program:

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION MODEL FOR THE PREPARATION OF SPECIALISTS IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION
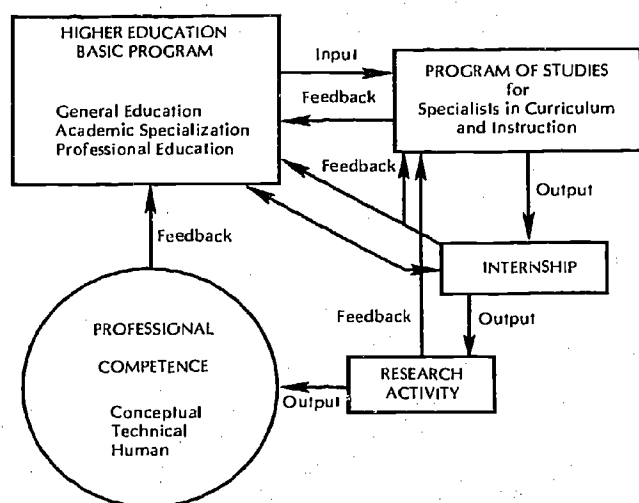
In an attempt to obtain specific information concerning the nature of the preparation most needed to function effectively as a specialist in curriculum and instruction, a survey was made of both practitioners and college professors. The results throw light on the nature of the needed input on the part of the institution of higher education.

SURVEY FINDINGS

Since most specialists in Curriculum and Instruction who hold the doctorate become college professors of curriculum or enter curriculum work with public school systems, questionnaires were sent to each of these two sub-groups. The membership of an organization known as Professors of Curriculum comprised of 88 members was selected for the college professor sub-group. Dr. Neil P. Atkins, Associate Secretary of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, supplied the names of practicing curriculum specialists in public school work who hold the doctorate. Dr. Atkins randomly selected the names of people with the title of assistant, associate, or deputy superintendent in charge of instruction and/or curriculum who hold membership in the ASCD. The people selected for this sub-group represented school systems of various sizes throughout the nation. Approximately 44 percent of the curriculum professors and 68 percent of the curriculum specialists in public school work responded to the questionnaire in time to use in this report.

The participants were asked to respond to the items on the instrument as they pertained to designing a doctoral program for the preparation of curriculum and instruction specialists for the **future.** The directions merely stated that the respondents were to assume that the candidate had earned a bachelor's degree with a good record in an NCATE approved program designed to prepare the individual to teach at the elementary or the secondary level. No directions were given pertaining to the designing of doctoral programs for curriculum generalists, curriculum specialists, practitioners, or college professors of curriculum.

The respondents in each of the two sub-groups differed on the desirability of requiring the candidate to have teaching experience prior to entering the doctoral program. The practitioners were in unanimous agreement on the need for such experience; however, approximately 24 percent of the professors did not believe that teaching experience should be a fixed requirement. The median number of years of experience indicated as being desirable by each sub-group was three.

The two sub-groups also differed on the need for a doctoral candidate specializing in curriculum and instruction to take graduate-level work in an academic discipline. Approximately 71 percent of the curriculum professors indicated that graduate work was needed as compared to approximately 53 percent of the curriculum supervisors. Approximately 10 percent of each group stated that the need for graduate-level work in an academic discipline depended upon the student's background and aspirations. The median number of semester hours recommended in an academic discipline by the curriculum professors was twelve as compared to nine by the practitioners.

In recent years the behavioral sciences have played an increasingly important role in doctoral programs in education. Although the need for study in such courses for specialists in curriculum and instruction was strongly recommended by both sub-groups, it is noteworthy that 100 percent of the curriculum supervisors made this recommendation as compared with 93 percent of the college professors. Twelve semester hours was the median amount of credit suggested as being needed by each sub-group.

Both of the sub-groups rated the importance of the various behavioral sciences in the same rank order. According to the findings, study in the field of psychology was rated the most important with sociology being a close second. Political science and economics were ranked as being relatively unimportant in comparison with psychology and sociology. The following tabulation presents the mean ranking from high to low:

Behavioral Science	Curriculum Professors	Curriculum Supervisors
Psychology	1.69	1.61
Sociology	2.06	2.12
Anthropology	3.22	3.25
Political Science	3.84	4.10
Economics	4.51	4.49

The respondents were asked to rate various areas or bodies of knowledge within the broad categories of the behavioral sciences as being of "great importance," "moderate importance," or "relatively unimportant" in the preparation of curriculum and instruction specialists. No mention was made in the survey instrument of equating the various bodies of knowledge with specific courses.

The areas that received the highest rating from the

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curriculum supervisors were leadership behavior, group dynamics and role theory, sensitivity training, the nature of inquiry, and communication theory, respectively. The curriculum professors assessed the study of contemporary social problems as being most important followed in order by social psychology, leadership behavior, group dynamics and role theory, and the nature of inquiry.

The data yielded by this study reveal that certain areas of study are considered to be important in the training of curriculum specialists by a much greater portion of the curriculum supervisors than by the curriculum professors or vice versa. Table I indicates that the greatest differences between the sub-groups existed with respect to the importance attached to sensitivity training and public opinion and communication. Approximately 68 percent of the curriculum supervisors as contrasted to 29 percent of the curriculum professors indicated sensitivity training as being of great importance in the preparation of specialists in curriculum and instruction. Forty-five percent of the curriculum supervisors considered public opinion and communications as being of great importance in contrast to only 13.2 percent of the curriculum professors.

The study of contemporary social problems, on the other hand, was considered of great importance by 60.5 percent of the curriculum professors as compared to only 35 percent of the practitioners. Likewise, the study of

social organization was rated as being of great importance by 34.2 percent of the curriculum professors as compared to 22.5 percent of the practitioners.

Four areas of the behavioral sciences were ranked as being relatively unimportant by a higher percent of the combined groups than ranked them as being of great importance. These were the study of cultures of rural disadvantaged groups, the American Negro, political organization of urban communities, and survey of contemporary economics.

A careful perusal of Table I reveals that a larger portion of the practitioners regard the study of more areas of the behavioral sciences as being of great importance in the preparation of curriculum and instruction specialists than is true of curriculum professors.

The composite ratings of curriculum professors and curriculum supervisors showed that the areas of professional education considered to be of greatest importance in the preparation of curriculum specialists were learning theory, processes of curriculum development, and curriculum theory. (See Table II.) However, the first 14 of the specific areas of professional education listed in Table II were ranked as being of great importance by more than 50 percent of the combined groups as compared with only 5 of the specific areas of the behavioral sciences receiving this distinction as shown in Table I.

TABLE I

PERCENT OF CURRICULUM PROFESSORS AND CURRICULUM SUPERVISORS INDICATING DIFFERENT LEVELS OF IMPORTANCE OF SPECIFIC AREAS OF THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES IN THE PREPARATION OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION SPECIALISTS

Behavioral Science Areas	Curriculum Professors' Ratings*			Curriclum Supervisors' Ratings*		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Leadership behavior	52.6	29.0	7.9	80.0	17.5	0
2. Group dynamics and role theory	52.6	29.0	7.9	72.5	22.5	5.0
3. Nature of inquiry	47.4	31.6	13.2	65.0	30.0	5.0
4. Social psychology	55.3	34.2	2.6	50.0	50.0	0
5. Communication theory	39.5	50.0	5.3	65.0	30.0	2.5
6. Sensitivity training	29.0	42.1	21.1	67.5	25.0	7.5
7. Contemporary social problems	60.5	26.3	5.3	35.0	57.5	5.0
8. Social organization	34.2	55.3	2.6	22.5	55.0	17.5
9. Psychology of personal adjustment	31.6	36.9	23.7	55.0	30.0	15.0
10. Racial and cultural relations	34.2	47.4	7.9	32.5	55.0	7.5
11. Public opinion and communication	13.2	57.9	13.2	45.0	47.5	2.5
12. Cultures of urban disadvantaged groups	26.3	55.3	7.9	27.5	55.0	12.5
13. General anthropology	23.7	44.7	18.4	17.5	65.0	17.5
14. Cultures of rural disadvantaged groups	21.1	42.1	26.3	17.5	60.0	17.5
15. The American Negro	15.8	50.0	21.1	17.5	55.0	22.5
16. Political organization of urban communities	10.5	57.9	23.7	15.0	50.0	35.0
17. Survey of contemporary economics	5.3	42.1	44.7	2.5	52.5	42.5

*Column No. 1 indicates percent of respondents who indicated the area as being of "great importance"; No. 2, "moderate importance"; and No. 3, "relatively unimportant." Table does not show the percent of respondents who omitted item.

TABLE II

PERCENT OF CURRICULUM PROFESSORS AND CURRICULUM SUPERVISORS INDICATING DIFFERENT LEVELS OF IMPORTANCE OF SPECIFIC AREAS OF THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE PREPARATION OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION SPECIALISTS

Professional Education Areas	Curriculum Professors' Ratings*			Curriclum Supervisors' Ratings*		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Learning theory	81.6	10.5	2.6	85.0	15.0	0
2. Processes of curriculum development	84.2	10.5	2.6	77.5	20.0	2.5
3. Curriculum theory	31.6	13.2	0	70.0	25.0	5.0
4. Methods of evaluating instructional programs	71.1	21.1	7.9	75.0	17.5	7.5
5. Child and/or adolescent psychology	68.4	26.3	0	70.0	25.0	5.0
6. Theory of instruction	65.8	18.4	7.9	62.5	25.0	12.5
7. Supervision of instruction	52.6	36.8	7.9	72.5	22.5	5.0
8. Educational issues and trends	57.9	26.3	10.5	67.5	30.0	2.5
9. Formulation of teaching objectives	52.6	31.6	13.2	62.5	27.5	7.5
10. Educational measurement and evaluation	68.4	21.1	7.9	45.0	42.5	12.5
11. Curricular trends	60.5	18.4	10.5	50.0	47.5	2.5
12. Design of research studies in curriculum and instruction	76.3	18.4	2.6	32.5	52.5	12.5
13. Critique of research on curriculum and instruction	65.8	21.1	5.3	37.5	45.0	15.0
14. Techniques of analyzing teaching behavior	50.0	39.5	5.3	52.5	42.5	5.0
15. Philosophy of education	52.6	31.6	13.2	45.0	50.0	5.0
16. Preparation of curricular materials	50.0	31.6	13.2	45.0	37.5	17.5
17. Sociology of education	44.7	50.0	2.6	42.5	47.5	10.0
18. Elementary educational statistics	65.8	26.3	5.3	22.5	55.0	22.5
19. Selection and utilization of instructional materials and media	36.8	42.1	15.8	40.0	47.5	12.5
20. Interaction analysis techniques	28.9	39.5	26.3	42.5	42.5	15.0
21. Education problems of urban disadvantaged youth	31.6	52.6	7.9	37.5	45.0	17.5
22. Historical overview of curricular trends	42.1	44.7	13.2	20.0	50.0	30.0
23. Education problems of rural disadvantaged youth	29.0	39.5	21.1	22.5	52.5	22.5
24. Advanced study of instructional methods in one discipline	23.7	44.7	26.3	25.0	40.0	30.0
25. Advanced educational statistics	65.8	34.2	29.0	10.0	37.5	52.5
26. Organization and administration of public schools	5.3	57.9	31.6	27.5	47.5	25.0
27. Planning and conducting school surveys	10.5	44.7	36.8	12.5	55.0	32.5
28. Test construction	10.5	55.3	23.7	10.0	57.5	32.5
29. Programmed instruction	7.9	60.5	23.7	12.5	50.0	37.5
30. History of education	15.8	44.7	34.2	2.5	50.0	47.5
31. Comparative education	7.9	36.8	52.6	7.5	37.5	55.0
32. Preparation of visual materials	2.6	39.5	50.0	7.5	50.0	42.5

*Column No. 1 indicates percent of respondents who indicated the area as being of "great importance"; No. 2, "moderate importance"; and No. 3, "relatively unimportant." Table does not show the percent of respondents who omitted item.

The professional areas of study on which there was pronounced disagreement on the part of the two sub-groups are readily detected in Table II. Most noteworthy is the area of educational statistics. Nearly 66 percent of the curriculum professors regarded the study of elementary educational statistics as being of great importance in contrast to 22.5 percent of the curriculum supervisors. The disparity in the ratings of advanced educational statistics was even greater with 65.8 and 10.0 percent of the curriculum professors and curriculum supervisors respectively rating the study of statistics at this level as being of great importance. A much higher percent of the curriculum professors than the curriculum supervisors ranked study of the design of research studies and the critique of research in curriculum and instruction as being of great importance.

Two other areas of study in which significant differences occurred were the supervision of instruction and the organization and administration of public schools. Approximately 20 percent more of the practitioners than the curriculum professors ranked study in these areas as being of great importance.

The four areas of professional education that had the lowest percent of respondents indicating they were of great importance were programmed instruction, history of education, comparative education, and preparation of visual materials. However, the last nine areas listed in Table II beginning with No. 24, advanced study of instructional methods in one discipline, had a greater percent of the overall group rating them as being relatively unimportant than rated them as being of great importance.

The respondents were also asked to give their reactions concerning whether or not doctoral candidates in curriculum and instruction should be required to serve as an intern. Seventy percent of the curriculum supervisors replied in the affirmative as compared to approximately 61 percent of the college professors. Approximately 35 percent of each of the sub-groups indicated that the internship should be full-time for one semester. However, 22.5 percent and 13.2 percent of the practitioners and curriculum professors, respectively, indicated that the internship should be for one year.

Most of the respondents who favored an internship stated that the intern should be placed in the central office working with the assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum and/or instruction and should be exposed to a variety of experiences including working with groups of teachers in curriculum development work.

The respondents were also asked to describe the type of research project in which the candidate should become engaged to fulfill the research requirements for the degree. In general, the curriculum supervisors tended to favor a project problem that focused on the solution of a practical problem related to curriculum and instruction in a particular school system, whereas the curriculum professors indicated preference for studies having a design acceptable to the social sciences that require the use of basic research tools and from which generalizations can be derived. In other words, the curriculum supervisors seemed to prefer applied or action research while the curriculum professors were more concerned that the candidate demonstrate his competency in the use of scientific research procedures. There were differences of opinion in each of the sub-groups, however.

The data gathered in the survey described above provide information for designing a program for the preparation of specialists in curriculum and instruction consistent with the professional education model and the principle and recommendations presented earlier in this paper. The probability of the existence of many imperfections in a program designed on the basis of this information is readily acknowledged, however. If institutions of higher learning are to produce specialists in curriculum and instruction who can function effectively in our rapidly changing society, continuous evaluation of all aspects of the preparation programs is mandatory.

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Counselor Education[1]

Professional activities in counseling and guidance and in counselor education during the last decade have centered primarily around obtaining the following seven objectives:

1. Establishing the image of the counselor as a professional person.
2. Establishing counselor education as an important area of learning in higher education.
3. Clarifying the role of the counselor in different settings of our society.
4. Developing a core of professional preparation for all counseling and guidance specialists.
5. Agreeing upon a program in counselor education that represents minimum preparation for a counselor in any setting of our society.
6. Establishing criteria for the evaluation of counselor education.
7. Developing procedures to be used in evaluating counselor education programs.

Much of the progress that has been made toward reaching these seven objectives is reported in the Spring, 1967, and the Spring, 1968, special issues of **Counselor Education and Supervision** (1, 2). Therefore, it will not be repeated at this time. It should be noted, however, that very little professional activity during the past decade has been concerned with improving the quality of doctoral programs in counselor education. Therefore, this conference is making a significant contribution in focusing attention directly on doctoral preparation and the Kansas State University faculty is to be congratulated for providing such leadership.

It should be recognized, however, that much, if not all, of the work accomplished toward meeting the seven objectives listed above has a direct relationship to the development of a strong doctoral program in counselor education. The two-year minimum program of preparation should be an integral part of the foundation work taken by the doctoral candidate. Consequently, this paper will be concerned with what I consider to be selected critical aspects of doctoral-level preparation and will not be confined altogether to what might be identified as post-master's degree work. No significance should be attached to the order in which the selected issues are presented.

1. Sensitivity Exploration Laboratory as an Integral Part of Basic Preparation in Counselor Education.

The introductory course in counselor education should center around theory and concepts relating to the helping relationship with emphasis placed upon philosophical and existential points-of-view. Paralleling this course of some 15 weeks in length should be a Sensitivity Exploration Laboratory. This laboratory is designed to:

(A) create a greater degree of sensitivity on the part of the counselor education student toward himself and toward others;

(B) create a greater degree of openness and of trust on the part of the counselor education student; and

(C) provide an opportunity for the student to appraise himself as a person and as a prospective counselor.

The introductory course in the helping relationship should not enroll over 30 students per section. These students should be in groups of no larger than 10 for the Sensitivity Exploration Laboratory. This laboratory should meet once a week for the 15-week period. Preferably, the leader of the laboratory will not be a member of the counselor education staff.

Additional opportunities beyond the 15-week laboratory should be provided, on a voluntary basis, for students who wish to continue such exploration. Experimentation with different kinds of human-encounter experiences must be encouraged since the counseling and guidance specialist needs to be skilled in the art of helping individuals develop both understandings and skills that enrich human encounters.

In order to provide more enriched human-encounter experiences for our counselor education majors at the University of Florida, the staff has been experimenting, during the past year, with different models. At our first weekend session in the fall, the leader was a recognized authority with National Training Laboratory preparation. At our second session, we had no outside leader; this leadership role was shared by different members of our staff. We, as a staff, plan to continue experimentation with different models of human-encounter experiences in order that we can work in more meaningful ways with our students.

2. The Doctoral Program Should Stress Both Theory and Practice.

Theory, of course, is important. It provides a sense of direction as well as a basis for action. In order that the student will not project too strongly an unauthentic image of himself as a counselor, our staff has discovered that supervised experiences in counseling and other professional helping relationships should begin with the introduction of theory. In role-playing situations, there is a heavy utilization of closed-circuit television. In this way, the beginning student can hear his voice and see himself as an individual and as a beginning counselor. Television experiences also help in focusing attention upon nonverbal communication in human encounters.

We have also discovered that an excellent teaching medium is TV films produced by our counselor education staff. The films produced by Dr. David Lane several years ago (now out of circulation) were most helpful to our students. They could observe the counseling relationship and have opportunities to discuss this relationship with the counselors (our staff members) in the films. Dr. Lane has recently produced an hour-long film which we are using.[2]

Both laboratory and supervised practica in individual and small group counseling are important aspects of the counselor education program. The culminating experience

1. Paper presented at Conference on Designing Doctoral Programs in Education, Kansas State University, June 28-29, 1968. Dr. Stripling is Professor of Education, University of Florida.

2. For information about rental, write Film Rental, WFTV, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32601.

of the doctoral program should be an academic year of full-time internship. Much work needs to be done in developing guidelines for such an experience. For example, we need more agreement concerning:

A. Qualifications of the internship supervisor.

B. The establishment of minimum criteria to be met by the agency providing the internship experience.

C. The relationship between the internship supervisor and the counselor education staff.

D. The financing of internship experiences.

E. Settings in which internship experiences should be provided. For example, little has been accomplished in establishing internship experiences in pupil personnel sections of state departments of education, the various bureaus of the Federal Government which employ counseling and guidance specialists, and at the system-wide level in local school districts. Our colleagues in school settings have criticized counselor educators for being too unrealistic concerning counselor role and preparation. One way to overcome this problem is through the development of well-established internship programs.

Also, we must recognize that more formal internship experiences are needed in preparing counselor educators. We need to exchange information about what is now being done and to agree on guidelines which can serve to stimulate the improvement of the internship for majors going into teaching positions in counselor education.

The first objective of the counselor education program is that of preparing the professional person in counseling and guidance or personnel work. This should be the basic identification of the doctoral graduate. The second objective should be preparation in an area of specialization; for example, school counseling, pastoral counseling, college personnel work, or counselor education. It is through special seminars, laboratory experiences, and proper placement in practica and internships that this second objective can be met. I hope that many state professional groups, as well as the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision, will assume leadership roles in developing more satisfactory agreements concerning internship experiences.

3. Research Experiences in the Doctoral Program

Students in the counselor education doctoral program need to begin active involvement in research during the first year of graduate work. This can be accomplished through research laboratory experiences and through the involvement of students in ongoing research projects in which counselor education staff members are engaged.

We should examine carefully the tendency in education doctoral programs to delay the beginning of research on the dissertation until the latter part of the student's academic preparation. Many needed studies involve concepts relating to attitudinal and behavioral changes, and we need longitudinal studies which will make possible the development of meaningful results. The doctoral student should have the intellectual capacity and aptitude to begin designing and conducting research during the first year of graduate work. The designing of a research project in a seminar on research is not enough.

While the traditional experimental approach to research is important and should be mastered, there should also be encouragement in the direction of experimenting with different research models. For example, the concept of the researcher as an instrument of research should be

understood and experienced by each doctoral student. There should be opportunities for the utilization of television equipment and computers in conducting research.

At present, I am involved in a several million dollar project being sponsored by four of the largest school systems in the state of Florida and the United States Office of Education. This project is designed to determine how computers can be used to improve various aspects of the elementary and secondary school program, including curriculum and pupil personnel services. It is our intention to involve a number of our doctoral students in this research.

Another example of a research activity which has vital meaning to our doctoral students is the Inmate and Community Services Project being sponsored by our local county Sheriff's office and the United States Attorney General's Office. This ninety thousand dollar project is for the purpose of determining how recreation, basic education, and counseling can be utilized in the rehabilitation of inmates in the county jail. Several of our doctoral students at various levels of preparation are involved in research relating to this project. Also, during the two-year period of the project, two of our doctoral students will use this setting for their internship experience.

Dr. Jim Lister's research in counseling practice and Dr. Ted Landsman's research in positive experiences in human development involve a number of our doctoral students. This leads to the observation that it is essential that counselor education staff members have time allocated to conduct research. It is only through such active involvement in research that the staff can provide the environment needed to stimulate creative research on the part of the students.

We must also be concerned about research that provides us an opportunity to look both critically and objectively at ourselves. For example, Corkhuff and Berenson have called attention to critical elements relating to the selection and preparation of counselors (3). Lister (4) recently summarized their research findings in the following way:

Corkhuff and Berenson (1967) have proposed a multi-dimensional model of therapeutic process variables associated with constructive change in client functioning. Their model predicts that counselors who provide higher levels of facilitative conditions can help persons who are functioning at a lower level; conversely, the lower level counselor is expected to contribute to the personality deterioration of a client who is functioning at a level three or below on the five point self-exploration scale [developed by Corkhuff, Piaget, and Pierce, 1968 (5)]. In order for a counselor to effect a constructive change in a client functioning at a level three, the counselor would himself have to offer facilitative conditions at an average of level four or above. The level three client would be seriously impaired as a result of a continued counseling relationship with a counselor who offered conditions at level one or two.

Studies such as Corkhuff's and Berenson's need to be replicated before receiving wide acceptance. However, my point is that the counselor education program should provide an environment in which such studies are encouraged.

4. The Doctoral Program Must Provide Preparation for Work in a Variety of Settings in Our Society

Counseling and guidance services are widely accepted as integral parts of programs in many settings of our society. For example, the Peace Corps has learned that the doctoral level counseling and guidance specialist can serve more adequately than other helping specialists as Field Assessment Officers and as Field Selection Officers in the Peace Corps selection program. There is a demand for counseling and guidance specialists at the doctoral level in many of the poverty programs. Church related counseling centers can be staffed more adequately by doctoral level graduates of counselor education programs with specialization in pastoral counseling.

The counselor education staff can no longer think of itself as a faculty to prepare only counselors for educational settings in our society. Also, the counselor education staff must be alert to new needs in counseling and guidance. For example, the 1968-69 academic year Counseling and Guidance Institute at the University of Florida will prepare new specialists for the secondary schools. Thirty individuals, already selected, who have master's degrees in counseling and who were counseling in secondary schools this past spring will be prepared as consultants to secondary school counselors. They will be employed in situations where they have no administrative or supervisory function. Their sole responsibility will be that of serving as consultants to a given number of secondary school counselors.

With the acceptance of the concept of a core of work for all counseling and guidance specialists, it is not too difficult to organize special seminars and supervised experiences to meet the needs of students who plan to work in a variety of settings.

5. Content in Counselor Education Versus Professional Development of the Doctoral Student

Content in counselor education and in related areas is, of course, important. The doctoral-level counselor must be a well-educated individual. However, this is not enough; he must, in every respect, be a professional specialist in counseling and guidance. This implies a style of life which

is unique in our society. This style of life also includes the concept of continuing professional development—the seeking, the pursuit, and the formation of new ideas, concepts, and bits of information which add to the sum total of knowledge we possess about the specialty of counseling and guidance work as well as about counselor education. Perhaps the most significant contribution that the counselor education staff can make is that of providing an environment which encourages creativity in the use of oneself as an instrument to facilitate growth and development in others.

6. The Cost of Doctoral Programs in Counselor Education

Because of the need for small classes, a variety of supervised experiences, including laboratory experiences, supervision in counseling practice, and supervision in internship experiences; and the emphasis on personal, as well as professional development, the doctoral-level counselor education program is relatively expensive. Cost for exceeds that involved in the preparation of a doctoral-level person in social studies education or in English. It compares more closely to the cost of preparing other helping personnel such as medical doctors, clinical psychologists, and social workers. Therefore, no institution of higher education should fail to consider carefully the cost factor involved in developing a quality counselor education program.

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Changing Roles and
Performance of the Superintendent

Periodically over the past two weeks I have agonized over the question: What kind of graduate training will produce school administrators who can meet the requirements to sustain effective administration of public schools in a changing social order? Attempting to analyze this question only raised further questions. What is the appropriate model, or models, which will satisfy the countless variables in self-development and skills required of an administrator, and at the same time make him an effective executive in the eyes of teachers, administrators, service personnel, boards of education, and the public, all of whom have conflicting and changing expectations of the superintendency? What criterio should be used in measuring successful school administration? Is it to be different for the "place-bound" or "career-bound" superintendent each of whom is committed to an entirely different role as a chief school administrator? Has there been an uncritical aping of the wrong model from the very beginning and throughout the development period of the superintendency? Will the nature of the problems facing education today lead inevitably to a new concept of the role of administration in public education and particularly that of the superintendent of schools?

Where in America does one turn to view a model training program for school administrators or the model practitioners? I know of no Graduate School of Education which guarantees that its training program will turn out successful school superintendents, or that such a training program will produce successful and effective administration at any particular point of time or place. I have not seen any evidence that any particular theory of administration or preparatory program will guarantee success in the training of school administrators, any more than professional colleges in the fields of music, art, architecture, or medicine can guarantee success for their graduate practitioners. This does not mean that Jim Ryan ever could have broken the world's record in the mile race without appropriate training. There is no evidence that a single model or theory of training school administrators will by itself produce good administrators, at least it does not appear to be possible in the foreseeable future. It seems to me the question to be answered by all of us is this: what is to be the policy decision in recruiting whom to be trained for what?

Without doubt the decade of the 1960's will long be remembered by school superintendents and graduate colleges of education. It will not be characterized as a happy decade when tranquility and bliss reigned. Instead, it is more apt to be known as a time of frustration, confusion, confrontations, contradictions, distrust, paradoxes, disillusionment, dissent, violence, and ulcers. It will be recorded as a time when the breach was widened between administrations and classroom teachers, school boards and the public, superintendents and boards of education, black and white, middle and low socio-economic groups, church and state-relations, segregationists and integrationists, federal and state controls, right and left wings, youth and adults, and conformity and dissent. Each group in varying stages and degrees moved from acknowledged differ-

ences in goals and objectives into successive arenas of resistance, ultimatum, coercion, strikes, and violence. It will probably be known as a decade when superintendents and college presidents got into their foxholes and turned to religion, praying for the return of the good old days of the "silent generation."

This paper is based upon the experience and reflection of a school practitioner who perceives himself to be a "career-bound" superintendent rather than a "place-bound" superintendent. According to the findings of Richard O. Carlson, "the distinction between insiders and outsiders exists in the importance they assign to career and place."[1] Generally a career-bound superintendent looks upon tenure of more than ten years in office as detrimental to the continued progress of a school system. The career-bound superintendent has a commitment to change and improve rather than a commitment to adjust and adapt. The career-bound superintendent believes his stay can be too short to get things done or too long to maintain his effectiveness in bringing about change. Thus, career-bound superintendents look upon themselves as expendable. Carlson saw three discernible sub-types of career-bound superintendents: hoppers, specialists, and statesmen.[2] The hopper moves often from community to community; in that, he has no specific allegiance to one community or commitment to see that change is effected. The specialist stays as long as needed to complete a specific task and then looks for another assignment. The statesman's commitment is to stay on a job longer than either the hopper or specialist, and he is concerned with, and moves on, all facets of the educational program in a system or community. The statesman superintendent judges the success of his administration by the degree of his effectiveness in bringing about change and superior performances. He has a concern not only for all facets of the school program but also for the long-run consequences of his administrative acts. When he has the feeling he has exhausted all avenues to gain school improvement, given a set of unchangeable conditions, he resigns or creates such friction with the board of education that he is asked to resign.

There is an appropriate place in school administration for both the place-bound and career-bound superintendent. When a community wishes to change and improve its schools, the board of education seeks a career-bound superintendent. When a community wishes to stabilize the performance of its schools, is satisfied with the status of operation, and does not want further change immediately, usually the time is right for a school board to select a place-bound superintendent. What sometimes is not recognized is that these two types of superintendents call for widely differing personality traits and methods of executive performance.

The place-bound superintendent will function in a different manner and will tend to develop those personal qualities and professional skills which make the method

1. Richard Carlson, Executive Succession in Organizational Change (Danville, Ill., 1962), p. 8.
2. Ibid., p. 10.

of operation effective in terms of stated goals. The career-bound superintendent attempts to know how sensitive the board of education, community, and staff are to change, how much change is wanted, and how much he will have to fight to promote that change. The place-bound superintendent will give attention to present practices and rules to see how he may improve the mode of operation. He sees his strength in maintaining stability, tranquility, and rapport with staff while the career-bound superintendent will rely upon a strong policy-making board of education to support his position of change and improvement of the school's program. However, the career-bound superintendent realizes he must have support from all fronts—classroom teacher, administrators, and community, as well as the board of education. He is aware that successful management on all fronts is important if improvement and change are to be effected in the total program. More often than not, it is the teachers who first resist the efforts of the new career-bound superintendent. If he is successful in making progressive and effective changes in the educational program and in the teaching environment so that teachers succeed in attaining their personal and professional goals, he gains their support. However, winning the support of the teachers in the long run will cause him to lose the support of the school board who believe the superintendent cannot serve two masters—staff and the board of education.

To partly substantiate my position of being eligible for classification as a career-bound superintendent, I offer my record of experience over the past 33 years in six different school systems and in two states. My tenure as superintendent was in respective intervals of four, three, one, two, ten, and eleven years. The educational program in the six school districts ranged in community size from one with a population of less than 200 to one with a population in excess of 300,000.

The foregoing analysis in the types of superintendents was made for two purposes: to help explain my own viewpoints and prejudices on school administration and to point up the incongruity in a uniform training program for all school administrators.

Looking at a doctoral program in educational administration as conceptualized by a "career-bound" practitioner, I will also attempt to take into consideration factors which relate to the performance and success or failure of a "place-bound" administrator. In considering the doctoral program, I believe it desirable to examine: (1) movements in social change affecting school administration; (2) expectations of the superintendency by the teachers, administrators, service personnel, boards of education, parents, and the various publics; (3) problems and issues of the superintendency; (4) conclusions and recommendations.

First, I would like to review briefly some of the social movements during the past ten years which I believe have had a profound influence on the purpose and practices of public education, and thus directly or indirectly influence the self and public image of the superintendency.

ROLE OF SCHOOLS IN A CHANGING SOCIETY

The proponents of the philosophy that schools should be an instrument for social change rather than a mirror of society received support from many quarters during the 1960's, including the U.S. Office of Education, foundations, and extreme integrationists. There were, however, those people, including the middle class and those somewhat conservative in nature, who wanted the social institutions to meet the needs of the day—but not at their expense if change were in any way to adversely affect them. Naturally, the power structure would oppose any change that would not preserve and maintain the status quo in all aspects of society if it meant a shift or sharing of the balance of power.

Technological developments during the past decade created demands upon society and its institutions to promote change in expectations and procedures to accomplish these ends. There were those in the minority and low socio-economic groups who could see how the educated and those with technical training were able to participate in the increased standard of living. These groups wanted tomorrow's fruit yesterday. They come to believe that if they and their children were associated with the education of the white and upper middle class children, it would put them into the mainstream of the technological world. Many began to believe that education is something which is obtained solely through association, rather than something which must be earned even when there is maximum equality of opportunity. There is no denying that today equality of educational opportunity has to take on a change in meaning to meet the change brought about by technology. But the expectation that education does not have to be earned becomes unrealistic even for a twentieth century democratic society. There are those militant groups who believe in forced change even if it means disruption of the operation of the public schools and its administration and, if necessary, will commit violence and destruction in an attempt to gain their goal. The recent clamor by some groups to have the public schools assume responsibility for the solution of all political, social, and employment problems, be it at the local, state, or national level, raises anew the question as to what is the social responsibility of public education. Can the public schools serve a single purpose of either promoting change in the social structure or stabilizing the course in which society is going? Can it be that public schools serve a dual purpose: that of helping to perpetuate the cultural heritage and giving impetus to planned change which is essential to the growth and development of western culture and our proclaimed way of life?

The conflict between those who want the public school to be basically an institution of social change and those who believe that education should be concerned mainly with intellectual development and the perpetuation of western culture would, by itself, be disturbing enough for any institution. But it does not stand alone, for to it must be added the imperative demands by Congress and the courts for a new definition of equal opportunity and a redistribution of social, political, and economic power, growing out of the rising aspirations of the common man for the good life. These expectations, whatever that may mean, and the demands for changes in values, beliefs, ideals, and institutions are "invariably the effects of long and silent changes which have been felt but not fairly faced or fully understood," according to the sociologist, Robert E. Pars.[3]

The difference in opinions as to what should be the social purpose of the public school has special meaning

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3. Robert E. Pars, The Natural History of Revolution (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1929), p. xii.

to the career-bound and place-bound superintendent. The career-bound superintendent takes his cue from what it takes to have planned change for the improvement of the schools, while the place-bound superintendent takes his cue from what it takes to consolidate the gains made and to maintain stability in the operation of the schools.

CHANGING CONCEPT OF EQUALITY OF EDUCATION

The concept of equality of educational opportunity is inherent in the theory of public education and as a matter of public policy was expressed forcibly by Washington, Adams, and Jefferson. It was Jefferson who said, "A system of general instruction which shall reach every description of our citizens from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so will it be the latest of all the public concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest."

The new concept of "equality of educational opportunity" brings into focus the race problem in American education.[4] The vexing problems of race are inherently very old social and educational problems; but the past decade has witnessed an intensified legal and social attack on one aspect—segregation in education.

Not since the Civil War have Supreme Court decisions and acts of Congress dealing with racial issues been received with more mixed feelings and open dissent. Boards of education are perplexed as to what policies might appropriately reflect the new concept of equality of educotional opportunity and yet would be acceptable to a majority of the community. Superintendents of schools are equally perplexed as to how to chart new courses in action, especially when there is no generally accepted board policy position. Boards of education have yet to come to grips with what constitutes equality of educational opportunity, and that it may be more important to consider the total effect of the public schools than such single factors as racial integration of compensatory education.

Currently the leading educational policy question appears to be whether equal educational opportunity can be obtained only through some magic racial mix, or whether it can better be obtained by improving educational quality in existing schools. Placing emphasis on the latter course does not mean that the public schools should not be concerned with the movement toward social and racial integration as one facet of broadening the interpretation of equal opportunity for all children, be they rich or poor, black or white.

MORAL AND ETHICAL VALUE SYSTEM

During the past fifteen years, the United States has experienced a rapid shift in moral and ethical values. Much of this shift in the value system has had a corresponding effect on decision-making in public education. Social controversy has characterized this period in relation to significant value-laden issues such as integration, public housing, state and federal support of education, and provision of equal education opportunities. Thus superintendents of schools have had to develop policies and execute operational procedures not only in a milieu of increasingly incompatible educational expectations, but also one where moral and ethical values are in a state of flux. To ask the school administrator to provide professional leadership in education during a period of time of unknown and shifting moral and ethical values is like asking a pilot of

an airplane to steer on course when the ceiling is zero and his autopilot and radio system are out of order.

Dr. Karl Menninger believed that the intangibles in medicine are love, faith, and hope. This love and understanding is of special importance today, particularly when it comes to interpersonal and group relationships. If public education is to effectively perform its mission, it is imperative that superintendents develop a mature sense of moral responsibility, and that they are not afraid to deal vigorously and forcibly with educational problems in the context of basic moral and ethical values. I believe that among these basic moral and ethical values, love, faith, and hope are crucial determinants in the decision-making process of the superintendent of schools, just as Dr. Menninger believed they were crucial determinants in the nature of medicine and psychiatry.

ADVENT OF TECHNOLOGY

Change is inevitable and self-evident; it will take place whether planned for or not. What is new about change today is that there are greater opportunities for planned change. What the machine and industrial revolution did to accelerate change in the way of life of nineteenth-century man, planned change or technology will do in a more systematic way in the life of twentieth-century man.

Stemming from, or developing with, operational research techniques is a new generation of management concepts which is keyed to effect greater efficiency and, in turn, greater profit to industry. Generally, business has adapted the systems approach to management including sequential decision-making, descriptive organization models, feedback, competitive interaction, role playing, validation studies, statistical models and analyses, program budgeting, cost benefit and cost effectiveness analysis, data banks and information retrieval. Although most of these techniques for planning and monitoring project activity may be utilized without the computer, it must be noted that the rapid expansion of technology has been associated with computer hardware and software. In general, technological developments have revolutionized not only the management of business and industry, but have made possible planned change with instant feedback and monitoring.

What is true for science and industry in planning for change must be equally true for public education if it is to meet its responsibility in the years ahead. The school administrator in the next decade may be the same breed of cat, but he will have to learn new tricks with the computer in order to take advantage of planned change.

The introduction of technology makes possible the availability of a larger number of alternatives to decision-making, regardless of where or when a decision is to be made, or who is to make it. Although the computer is a logical machine, it cannot make substantive decisions. It is the basic value system held by the administrator that plays an important role in making wise choices. If we are to make the computer and systems development effective tools for decision-making in school administration, we must, according to Shepard B. Clough, let "basic values reflect in essence the choices which men have made out of a wide range of possibilities as to the way

4. James Coleman, "The Concept of Equality of Education," Harvard Education Review, Vol. 38, No. 1, Winter 1967.

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they live, the wants and desires which they try to satisfy, and the order in which they strive to achieve recognized goals."[5]

OTHER SOCIAL FORCES

In addition to the new interpretation given to equal education opportunity, the radical shift in basic moral and ethical values, and the advent of technology, there are many other social forces and movements at work today. Teacher negotiations, the role of the federal government in education, population increase, urbanization, international race to the moon, and nuclear power all have their effects on the nature of change in our society, and thus have a corresponding effect upon the changing role of education and its administrative function.

Each of these social movements places additional responsibilities upon public education to set a course for the preparation of its citizens to function effectively in a changing society, and to provide an atmosphere which offers internship for life in the future. Man has always had an abiding concern as to his own nature—his destiny, his ultimate loyalties, and his response to the society in which he is born but which, in many ways, is alien to him. What is unique about our democratic society is that we believe that man has the power to control change and to overhaul social institutions in the light of knowledge and at the same time hold on to basic values of our culture.

It is at this point that educational statesmanship is needed to help bring about desirable changes in the public schools, without violating basic moral and ethical values. Such a posture holds the superintendency of public education as a position of public trust. Decision-making on the part of the superintendent requires fidelity in the area of human responsibility to society, as well as a lively spirit of adventure. To do less would not do justice to the kind of world in which we want to live.

EXPECTATIONS OF THE SUPERINTENDENCY

It is within this frame of reference of the basic social trends of the past 100 years and the forces for change running rampant today that one should view the image, responsibility, and training of school administrators, and particularly the superintendent.

Daniel E. Griffiths in his descriptive study of the school superintendent holds that the development of the position of superintendent of schools took place in three stages.[6] The first period (1837-1910) was characterized by responsibility for instruction and advising the board. The second period (1910-1945) placed emphasis on the efficiency cult, or businessman superintendent. The third and present period is one of ferment characterized by some as the "man in the middle." It is self-evident that the nature of the superintendency has changed and will continue to change in the years to come.

From the earliest conception of the superintendency to the present time, the position has never been fully accepted by the public, boards of education, and classroom teachers. Each group still sees the superintendent and central office administrators as a threat to its own image and goal-seeking satisfaction. The superintendent of St. Louis, Missouri, in his annual report to the board of education in 1890, made the statement that he was merely a figurehead, his opinions were seldom requested, and most of his recommendations were ignored.[7] The St. Louis superintendent's report in 1913 carried a quote

from the city editor in which the superintendent was dubbed as "a pedagogic pope, absolutely infallible, unamenable to anyone or anything."[8]

The self-image of the superintendency as an efficiency expert reached its peak around 1930, although this same image is held generally today by the business community. Back in the early 30's it was Arthur B. Moehlman, Willard B. Spaulding, and Jesse Newton who led the attack for more emphasis on efficiency as a criterion for administrative decision-making. In spite of these vigorous attacks on the efficiency cult in administration, it was not until the early 1960's that the concept of staff participation in decision-making and community involvement in schools began to make a significant impact on school administration or school board policy.

Theory of administration began to make its appearance about twenty years ago. No single theoretical model, however, has become totally acceptable to anyone except the author or his students. In an attempt to get some general consensus on an acceptable program of training administrators, the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) was formed in 1947, and in 1950 the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) got under way.

This cooperative movement to improve the level of school administration was followed by the creation of the Committee for Advancement of School Administration (CASA) which tried to find, but really never developed, an acceptable policy in school administration as "something to steer by."

Little can be said definitely about what will be the image of the superintendency for the present or third period, except that there is a struggle for the educational leadership role previously held by the superintendency since 1830 with varying degrees of effectiveness. Presently there appears to be a power struggle among many groups for this leadership role. These groups can be classified generally as business corporations, federal and state administrative agencies, national and state school board associations, American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, graduate colleges of school administration, teachers' unions, professional organizations, left and right wing groups, integrationists, U.S. Supreme Court, block militants, and various community organizations and power structures of all shades and shapes.

The nature of the superintendency has changed, and will continue to change throughout the coming years. The superintendency will have to share its educational leadership role with increasing numbers of new groups. However, a system of administration in any large public school system is not something that can be torn down like a house and rebuilt with a new structure. At best, the system of administration can be remodeled and changed to meet the changes in living requirements for the family which consists of administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and the public. The overall administration of a school system is more like a human organism with its own potential

5. Shepard B. Clough, p. 113, Basic Values of Western Civilization (New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1960), p. 7.
6. Daniel E. Griffiths, The School Superintendent (New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1966).
7. Annual Report of Board of Education of St. Louis Schools (St. Louis: Board of Ed., 1913), pp. 251-255, as cited in Griffiths, p. 16.
8. Ibid.

far growth and development being shaped by the environment in which it grows and develops. School administration is performed by people to help people perform a mission determined by people, and evaluated and judged by people representing many publics. Generally, people approve change so long as it does not adversely affect their own position or well-being. Thus, any fundamental or important change in the role of the administrator must be related intimately to the changing role of public education, as well as to the self-concept of the administrator. However, the concept held by boards of education, staff, parents, and the public may force the administrator either to change his concept of his role or to resign his position.

In the future, the chief administrator of a public school system will have to work with a public of changing expectations, and in a climate of increasingly shared purposes. The superintendent will have to share goals with the professional staff, local board of education, parents, taxpayers, racially and culturally disadvantaged groups, as well as state departments of education, HEW, and a host of other organizations. A crucial test of effective administration will be the ability to coordinate the concern of all the groups and individuals for achieving of effective implementation of generally-agreed-upon purposes. Efficiency and achievement cannot be attained in any organization or institution unless all parties are reaching for the same goal. Production will reach its peak when the morale is high and all are working enthusiastically for the same end —personal and institutional satisfaction.

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS FACING THE
SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

There are a number of pressing problems, both internal and external, currently facing the school superintendent. Among these are setting acceptable and obtainable goals for the school, curriculum, flexibility of program, monitoring the system, evaluation, community involvement, leadership roles, communication, federal control, adequate financing of education, desegregation, race relations, prejudice, staffing, staff orientation and morale, board-staff relations, negotiations with staff organizations, merit pay, instructional and administrative technology, developing proposals to be funded by the U.S. Office of Education, working for their approval, and administering such programs once they are approved.

Many of the most pressing problems in school administration are external to the actual operation of the school system for which the superintendent is responsible. The superintendent interacts with these external social and political forces in many ways. Daily he meets in face-to-face contacts with many individuals and groups having widely differing reasons for wanting the schools to do something about problems they see as important. There are political, social, and economic overtones to whatever decisions the superintendent makes regarding these problems. Before he realizes what has happened in his attempt to solve these problems, he becomes a manipulator of persons and external environmental factors. It is at this point that the superintendent once again puts to test his own value standards in making decisions. Much as he would like to have a scientific formula on which to base his decisions, he is unable to feed into a computer all the factors to be considered, since related outside events can rarely be put into quantitative form.

The importance of trends of events outside of the schools is not so much in the trends themselves as it is

in the **changes** in the trends. Such changes must be perceived and evaluated in terms of possible effect on the purpose and function of public education. If the superintendent spends his time scurrying around collecting data or consensus but does not make choices in terms of value judgments, his efforts will have gone for nought. Regardless of the skills learned in administration, the success or failure of decision-making pertaining to external factors will depend a great deal upon the moral courage of the superintendent and the strength of his backbone.

There is also a myriad of internal problems and issues which confront the school administrator in varying degrees, and with which he is compelled to react in one way or another. These are usually the kinds of problems which create friction between teachers and administrators, teachers and the board of education, superintendent and board, and the school system and the community. The approach of the administrator to these problems and his skill in dealing with them tends to shape the mode of operation and the course of action of the entire school system.

In facing this multitude of external and internal problems, the superintendent must possess great conceptual skill—that is, the ability to see the school system as a whole, and to recognize the interrelationship of the various problems. He must be able to perceive direction in policy formation. He must possess the human skills to work effectively with groups. He must have the necessary administrative skills and techniques to get the job done. It is not only the multiplicity of the problems themselves with which the superintendent must be concerned, but also that he possesses the necessary skills to handle these problems in terms of his own personal goals and the expectations of the board of education and the other publics.

In view of all these problems, it is not surprising that a colleague wrote me recently, "I think the superintendency has become more complicated during the years since I have ceased to be a practitioner. I think it's getting to be something like a rodeo, but there is a difference. The bucking bronco is there all right, but people seem to expect the superintendent to ride him as if he weren't bucking at all." As one speaking from personal experience, I might add that it is not unheard of for the bronco to win!

CONCLUSIONS

The superintendent of schools is not a free agent: he does not set policy; he does not select the board of education; he cannot eliminate from the scene all individual staff members or organizations with incongruent goals who believe they have a shared purpose in the schools. What often he is forced to do is to make a large number of small decisions within a matrix of conflicting purposes. He must attempt to reconcile his own purposes with those expressed by others directly or indirectly connected with the school system, while at the same time remaining sufficiently committed to the overall purpose of public schools so that his day-by-day and minute-by-minute decisions will further that purpose. Moreover, he must accomplish all this under control of the veto power of a majority of an elected or appointed board of education. Thus it can be seen that training in purpose-setting, interpersonal relationships and power politics, as well as in administrative procedures, must be a part of the training of a superintendent of schools.

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Recent emphasis on training of the school administrator seems to be on scientific theory and study, and methods adapted from those of business management. This appears to be a fruitful approach except that the element of judgment in moral and ethical values is generally not given as high priority in business management as it should be in the decision-making process of administering public schools. If many individuals and groups are permitted to pressure for their own personal interests, the major purpose of public schools, that of serving boys and girls, will become secondary to the selfish purposes of special interest groups. If the superintendent sees his position as one of public trust, he is in a spot where he must demonstrate both the nature of his personal value system and the nature of his spine. The ultimate consideration in the decision-making process of the superintendent is how the optimum good life, as envisoned by a majority of the people, can best be realized.

The superintendent is often caught between conflicting roles as a democratic administrator and as a manipulator of human beings. In the long run, a career-bound superintendent can never hope to achieve an equilibrium between these two roles and at the same time bring about desired changes. A majority of superintendents are also usually in the dilemma of trying to reconcile their own beliefs with the competing and conflicting beliefs of members of their boards of education. Even with the most sophisticated use of a computer, no superintendent can at all times accurately predict probable outcomes of proposals for action. There is no way of putting into the program of a computer all of the relative and quantitative external and internal variables which may be possible factors in acceptance of an action program.

I perceive the ideal professional school of administration to be modeled somewhat after an insurance brokerage firm where from a wide choice of carefully-developed programs, the agent tailors a policy suitable to the changing conditions of a society as well as to the personal needs and desires of the prospective buyer. Every such individualized policy is based upon research and certain basic business principles. Likewise, there are certain administrative principles and procedural techniques which are basic and essential to the training of the school superintendent, regardless of his expectations and his individual concept of his role and function. The effective preparatory program must meet the individual needs of both the place-bound and the career-bound superintendent, as well as the subtypes: hoppers, specialists, and statesmen.

There are many primary and secondary roles which may be played by the practitioner superintendent. The primary role may be any one of numerous possibilities, or it may be a combination of these. The role Jack Culbertson suggests for the superintendent is one of being "a perceptive generalist."[9] Other authorities in the field, such as Egbert S. Wengert of the University of Oregon, observe the superintendent as a person who should "seek to modify the policies to be pursued by those who collectively make up the school 'system' where he works."[10] Daniel E. Griffiths sees the emerging role of the superintendent as one of monitoring the decision-making process and executive offices of the board of education.[11] Francis S. Chase, on the other hand, sees the administrator as an implementer of goals of education for our time.[12] The A.A.S.A. in its publication "The Unique Role of the Superintendent of Schools" says the major function of the

superintendent is "to provide for the best possible education in his community. This means creating the conditions in which other people get things done and above all in which the teacher in the classroom can perform to the best of his ability. It also means assisting the school board in the formulation of policies governing the school system."[13]

To this list I would add my personal concept of a major role of the superintendent—that of an innovator. I see the job of superintendency as tied to changes both in public education and outside of the school. I see innovation as the resultant of need for reappraisal of existing practices, and the life-blood of a dynamic, progressive school system. Through innovation comes experimentation in methods of human learning, and application of the results of research. I believe that innovation, including technological change, should be promoted and encouraged as a powerful force in the advancement of the cause of public education in America. If a superintendent is to cast himself in the role of innovator, he himself must be amenable to planned change. Only then can he hope to be successful in creating a climate conducive to fostering innovation throughout the school system.

Just as there is not general agreement among authorities in the field of school administration as to the primary role of the superintendent, so ...e is no general self-perception on the part of practitioners, classroom teachers, school boards, and communities. Perhaps this is as it should be when public education is so individualized at the state and local levels. It does, however, present far-reaching problems to the institution attempting to prepare school administrators for their varied future roles.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. In designing a doctoral program for educational administration, care should be exercised that the program is not built exclusively around any single theory of school administration.

2. The graduate program should include curricula designed for training specialists as well as generalists in school administration.

3. The instructional situation of the public schools should be regarded as the heart and purpose of the training of school administrators.

4. The training for each profession is unique to that profession and demands special treatment, and that for school administration is no exception. Contrary to some popular notions, the training for doctors of medicine does not appear to be an appropriate model for the training of school administrators.

5. Major components of training in school administration should be:
    a) Academic training in the behavioral and social sciences and in theories of learning and personality.
    b) Selected simulated experiences in school administration.

9. Jack A. Culbertson and Stephen P. Hencley, Preparing Administrators: New Perspective. (Columbus, Ohio, 1962), p. 152.
10. Ibid., p. 40.
11. Griffiths, op. cit., p. 94.
12. R. F. Campbell and James Lephan, Administrative Theory As a Guide to Action (Danville, Ill.: Interstate Printers and Pub., Inc., 1960), p. 191.
13. Educational Policies Commission, The Unique Role of the Superintendent of Schools (Washington, D. C.: NEA Pub., 1965), p. 3.

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c) Internship in a relatively large metropolitan school system with assigned responsibility for decision-making.

d) A testing period for moral commitment as a trustee of public education.

e) Opportunity to participate in team research on same major problem in education.

f) Seasonal refresher courses, workshops, and semi-nars.

6. A synthesis of the best elements from field observation and theoretical classroom procedure needs to be programmed into the training experience.

7. A college of school administration should have a research department in which new ideas are thoroughly tested before they are advocated as proposals warranting general acceptance.

8. In designing the instructional program for educational administration, consideration should be given to the need for school administrators to learn how to share policy determination with classroom teachers and the various publics of the community.

9. The training program should include experience in understanding behavior patterns of others and of self. Such techniques as simulation, game theory, and role playing are useful.

10. To be effective, inservice training programs should bridge the gap between administrative behavior and the changing cultural, political, and professional scene in which the administrator must function.

11. The faculty for educational administration should include staff members in the various disciplines and those with varying experiences as practitioners, as well as those specifically trained as professors of school administration.

12. The College of Education should provide field service as a means of appraising theory and practice, and as a basis for determining where innovation and administration practices need to be researched.

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Designing a Doctoral Program In Educational Administration

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of the human race, education has been a scarce commodity. This scarcity has been due to a lack of reliable information about the environment with which mankind has had to cope. It has been also related to the difficulty in transmitting knowledge from one person to another. Only a few individuals possessed the knowledge of a tribe or society; because of its value and scarcity, knowledge was a sacred possession. It could be transmitted only by person-to-person interaction.

Because it was scarce, knowledge was carefully rationed. It was a possession of the powerful and the wealthy, and sometimes the very religious. The practice of rationing knowledge has persisted to our own days. Today, subtle and covert means are used for maintaining an unequal distribution of the benefits of education. There are therefore close correlations, among states, between the possession of wealth and the median number of years of school completed. (However, a few states, like Kansas, have frustrated the statistician by purchasing more education than their economic status would normally predict.) Within states, there is a close correlation between the property valuation of a community and its expenditures for education. Our research in Michigan relates expenditures to program quality. Economic well-being is related to the manner in which knowledge is transmitted. Even within some school systems there is a relationship (as indicated by Sexton in Detroit) between the income level of neighborhoods and expenditures for education. These rationing procedures are cumulative over the generations and are not unrelated to the observed achievement differentials between white and Negro students in our schools.

We are now living in an era when knowledge is no longer limited in its availability. Scientific information, we are told, is doubling in each decade. Furthermore, rapid strides are being made in knowledge distribution procedures. First, advances in the technology of pedagogy made it possible for one teacher to work effectively with groups of students, instead of with individual advances in the teaching-learning process promise to increase the efficiency of instruction. Furthermore, the use of television, computer-assisted instructional procedures, automated libraries, and, ultimately, satellite-based information systems bring us closer to the millenium when knowledge will be as free as air and water, and when the rationing of knowledge will no longer be necessary. When the time arrives, it will be possible to educate each individual to the limit of his (no longer fixed) capacity.

Accompanying these improved procedures for transmitting knowledge is a revolution in the management systems upon which decisions are made to deploy personnel, to assign students to teachers, to allocate resources, and to make the other choices involved in the distribution of knowledge. The more equitable assignment of educational opportunity depends in part on the effectiveness of these management systems.

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

There is an article in the current issue of **Harper's** magazine which is worthy of a great deal of thought in both America and Europe. This article, "The American Challenge,"[1] maintains that the reason for American leadership in the world is not so much the superiority of its technology as the excellence of its management. America is pulling ahead of the European nations through its faith in management and its willingness to treat management as a scientific subject of study—analogous to the scientific examination of chemical or physical processes.

Historically, American educators may feel some pride in the development of administrative procedures. While we hear a good deal about the need for administrative decentralization, the accomplishment represented by the development of efficient, centralized urban school systems is not fully recognized. A report made to the Cincinnati Board of Education in 1935 points out the progress which had been made in the preceding 85 years:

> In April 1850 Cincinnati, then a city of 115,000 appointed its first school superintendent. At that time only 12 other cities in the United States had such an officer. The schools then without professional leadership were poorly organized and each school was virtually an independent district, bearing little, if any, relationship to any other district. Courses of study were lacking, methods of instruction varied with the individual teachers, and grading was unknown. . . .[2]

The report goes on to document the progress which was made by the development of a centralized educational system.

Two major factors have resulted in our present crises. First, there are the social forces which other speakers in this Conference have described. Second, societal expectations have escalated, so that for the first time in human history we are attempting to educate the entire population to a high qualitative level.

This task, the most formidable in the history of education, will require the finest skills which pedagogy and management can offer. New management systems, though developed for industry, have wide application in the field of education. These systems depend upon computers for storing and analyzing data. Beyond this, they involve operations research techniques for developing decision models, and providing a basis for implementing policy.

These procedures—systems analysis, operations research, PPBS, cost-benefit analysis, and the like present an opportunity and a challenge to universities. They also threaten to disturb the viable though tenuous relationship built up between the university and the world of practice. There is a danger that the "field" will leave the universi-

1. J. J. Servan-Schreiber, "The American Challenge," Harper's, July 1968.
2. Survey Report of the Cincinnati Public Schools made by The United States Office of Education (Cincinnati: The Cincinnati Bureau of Government Research, July 1935), p. 271.

ties for behind in both theoretical and practical approaches to administration, if the latter persist in believing that these new practices represent mere "godgetry."

However, the rapid progress by the field in developing and implementing the newer technologies serves a very useful purpose, in pointing out that both school system administrators and university professors have a role to play in the development of educational administration. Their roles are, however, (or should be) distinct.

The universities should provide a knowledge base for educational administration. This includes accumulating a store of knowledge about present administrative practices at home and abroad, as well as about emerging management practices in business and government which have implications for educational administration. Research, including doctoral research, should help provide knowledge about the nature of educational organizations and the variations in what is often called the "administration process." The knowledge base of the universities includes, of course, other aspects of education than administration, and especially includes the relationship between instruction and administration. For example, the recent work of Benjamin S. Bloom and others in early childhood education has very important administrative implications which are, I believe, not fully appreciated.

The universities should provide new administrative personnel for school systems. If education is to be a self-renewing process, young administrators should be equipped with the latest knowledge and with skills in the emerging managerial technologies.

By developing new theoretical and empirical knowledge the universities should provide a basis for educational administration as a profession. An occupation which relies upon the perpetuation of existing practice is not a profession—the cooperation of the universities is needed in this respect.

The universities should learn from the field by studying present administrative practice, its variation from one situation to another, and the differences between effective and ineffective procedures.

Educational practitioners provide **models** of administrative competence. Observers of leadership recognize that certain outstanding qualities can be learned about best through the observation of successful practitioners. Our experience in Chicago convinces us that the student's **identification** with an outstanding administrator is an essential element in the doctoral program for administrators, just as **identification** with a scholar is important for future professors.

School systems provide loci for internship. Certain types of skills can best be learned in a job situation. In order that the university concentrate on what it is best qualified to do, it should initiate a division of labor in which analytic skills are learned in the university while skills of application are learned in a practical situation.

In short, the development of doctoral programs in educational administration should be a joint university-field endeavor. Each institution has a unique contribution to make to the program. Since the concern of this conference is with the university's contribution, I turn now to this topic. I find the "systems" terminology useful in explicating this topic.

THE SYSTEMS APPROACH TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF DOCTORAL PROGRAMS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The importance of the systems concept becomes apparent when staffing arrangements are being made and when a curriculum is being developed. The interrelations between the staff, the curriculum, and other aspects of the student's total environment provide the stimuli for his learning experiences during his doctoral program.

The other reason for using the systems concept is, in keeping with cybernetic theory, to place an emphasis on the outputs and inputs of the system. Even in a relatively small organization, it is very difficult to determine the nature of all of the many student-student and student-teacher curriculum interactions. It is, however, possible to make some judgments about the overall effects (outputs) and to make some estimates of the effectiveness of the system, taking into account the characteristics of incoming students. The next three sections deal with outputs, inputs, and curriculum.

PROGRAM OUTPUTS

The concept of output is essential in terms of the development of an educational program. Two uses for the concept will be explored: The desired outputs or objectives of the program form the basis for selecting inputs and developing a program; and measured outputs provide the basis for the utilization of feedback in revising the program.

(1) Objectives or desired outputs. One of the first requirements when a new program is developed is to determine what types of product are required. For example, a doctoral program may be designed to produce individuals to fill a wide variety of roles. Decisions must then be made as to the qualities desired in the incumbent of each role which is defined.

The first decision, of course, is whether the program is designed to produce professors, administrators, or both. Since the tasks which professors are called upon to perform are on the whole different from those of administrators, a program for the one would not necessarily be suited for the other. Professors need to develop competence in teaching and writing, while administrators are more concerned with skills involved in financial management, hiring personnel, and negotiating with teachers' organizations.

There are many variations of these roles. University professors who are heavily involved in field services need different skills than do research professors. The role of the administrator is also becoming heavily differentiated. In addition to the traditional positions of superintendent and principal, there are an increasing number of staff people in state and local school systems whose duties may be in the area of planning, research and development, human relations, or data processing. Moreover, new organizations are coming into being—each defines roles which are quite different from the traditional administrative or university positions. An institution which is designing a doctoral program must therefore decide which types of positions it is training its students to fill.

Once the decision has been made as to the types of positions for which doctoral students are being prepared, a description of anticipated behavior associated with each role should be developed. Practicing administrators and

other individuals from outside the university should be consulted in the process.

One of the major problems ecountered at this point is the degree of specificity with which outcomes must be specified. For example, should we list in detail all the tasks of the future school principol, or should they be stated in more general terms? Since the evaluation of the program will depend upon an examination of these attributes, a fairly high degree of specificity in behavioral outcome descriptions is necessary.

(2) Output Evaluation. No educational system can be effective unless it incorporates procedures for the evaluation of outputs. Furthermore, every system has probably developed methods for evaluating its product—there are differences, of course, in the formality of evaluation. There are also differences in the degree to which feedback from output observation is used in changing inputs, and in changing processes. A complete system has a carefully built-in feedback mechanism.
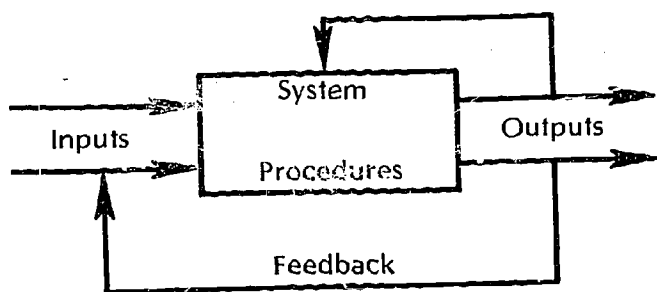
This is not the place to deol in detail with the evaluation of doctoral programs in educational administration. In o project financed by NIMH for the preparation of educational administrators we have undertaken ta do a comprehensive evaluation of our procedures. We are gathering data about groduates, largely through interviewing them and their colleagues in the jobs where they are placed. We hope to obtain data which will be of some generol value in the ossessment of such programs and which will be especially useful to us in the redesigning of our system. Other methods of assessment of outputs which we have used include an exominotion of the research output of those groduotes who are now professors, a study of subsequent coreer patterns of graduates, a polling of graduates concerning their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of our progrom, and the measuring of changes in their understanding of basic administrative concepts.

INPUTS

Usually, in discussions of doctoral programs, much more attention is given to curriculum than to inputs into the programs. Yet, evidence consistently indicates that the nature of the inputs determines to a considerable degree the quality of the output of an educational system. In the following discussion, I will separate the student input from faculty and other inputs. However, they are closely related, since in the social system which a doctoral program constitutes, students and faculty in joint interaction affect the nature of the educational product.

(1) Student inputs. The quality of students admitted to a doctoral program is a major determinant of the quality of the output. Hence, student recruitment becomes a matter of prime importance. A university which has

funds with which to support students, and which is free to develop a large pool of opplicants and to select the best candidates from the pool, is much further ahead than one which has no funds for student support and which must accept many part-time students in order to survive.

What criteria should be used in selection? These should include characteristics which are fairly well fixed at this point in life. Good character, desired personality traits, crd a reasonably high academic potential seem to be prerequisites for any professional program, particularly one in a sensitive area such as education. Interpersonal skills may be developed to some degree through sensitivity training. Furthermore, an outgoing personality may be more important for a practitioner than a professor, while there may be some difference between the two types of positions in the level of academic aptitude which is required. Previous academic performance is a guide to the candidate's ability to fulfill the requirements of the program. A commitment to education, as demonstrated by previous work in this or a related field is certainly necessary for future administrators.

In view of the need to recruit the most promising individuals for positions of leadership in educational administration, some observers have urged that the pool of potential recruits should be widened. We have trained some individuals without previous teaching experience for positions as researchers in universities. During the next academic year, we are embarking upon a program of broadening our pool of administrative trainees, by identifying promising candidates in business and government service as well as education. There are obvious risks in this process, one being the degree to which such individuals will be acceptable to the personnel of school systems. However, we believe the experiment worthwhile. It is conceivable, for example, that some staff positions in state and local school systems should often be filled by individuals who have been trained as professional educators.

Some criteria for admission can be reported by means of paper credentials. We require previous academic transcripts, graduate record examination results, and letters of recommendation. In addition, the candidate is required to submit o written statement describing his goals ord the means by which he proposes to achieve them. In the assessment of personal qualities, there is no substitute for a personal interview.

(2) Faculty inputs. The selection of faculty and the construction of curricula are closely related to the defining of objectives. A program which leans heavily to the preparation of professors will be different from one which is oriented toward the training of practitioners, and the faculty will be different. The faculty in an institution which is heavily involved in field studies may be somewhat different from the faculty of a primarily research institution.

Two central criteria in the selection of faculty are diversity and quality. Diversity includes the range of capabilities an institution needs in order to perform its functions. An institution which is preparing large numbers of doctoral candidates for both university and field positions will require a sizable number of faculty members of diverse qualifications.

Of a number of possible ways of defining the role of the professor, two seem to be relatively common. One of these is to allocate the professors' roles in a manner parallel to the functional responsibilities of the superin-

tendent. There would, therefore, be professors responsible for instruction in the areas of finance, personnel management, community relations, and school plant planning. The other definition corresponds to the social science discipline which underlies administration. For example, there would be professors knowledgeable in the field of organizational theory, the social-psychological aspects of administration, and the economics of education. Most of the larger institutions would prefer to combine the two modes of role definition. The University of Chicago, with its emphasis on theory and research, is largely committed to the latter mode. Other universities, more oriented toward the field of practice, will emphasize the former method of defining the roles of faculty members. It would seem to me, however, than an institution planning doctoral work in educational administration should include in its proposed faculty at least two or three professors with strengths in research and in the social science approaches to educational administration. Certainly, trainees for the professorship need to have models of active research on which to pattern their behavior.

The other criterion, that of faculty quality, is more difficult to define. In a professional field such as educational administration, quality cannot be defined entirely in terms of numbers of publications; however, it seems desirable that some members of each faculty be actively engaged in research and writing for publication. On the other hand, at the doctoral level, quality cannot be defined for all professors in terms of previous success in the field. However, the presence in a department of educational administration of some professors with an intimate knowledge of the world of practice guarantees a reality in the instructional process that might otherwise be missing.

THE CURRICULUM

The foregoing discussion has, I hope, helped to clarify the issues involved in the construction of a curriculum for a doctoral program in educational administration. The following points follow from the discussion:

(1) The selection of professors and the selection of a curriculum are very closely related. No matter how carefully curriculum guides and outlines are written, what happens in the classroom is largely contingent on the background of the professor who teaches the course. The most important curriculum decision at the graduate level is therefore the appointment of a professor.

(2) A related issue concerns the question as to whether it is necessary to include all required information and skills in a formal curriculum. In the first place, there should be room in any doctoral program for individualized programs of reading as a method whereby the student obtains information. In some cases, a reading course, permitting the student to interact mentally with the best minds in a given subject area may be far more educational than competence or no interest. For example, I taught at one time a course in school plant planning. We now require students to obtain information about school plant in less formal ways. (Incidentally, however, I believe that this is an area in which computer-assisted instruction, with the use of a cathode ray tube, will provide an ideal substitute for all but the best prepared professors in this field.)

The second point is that a division must be made between the skills acquired in class and the competences which will be obtained in subsequent on-the-job training.

At the University of Chicago we may have gone too far in the direction of assuming that a competent student, well-versed in theory and concepts, will be able in a very short period of time to acquire the necessary practical skills of administration. In this case, however, well-structured internships may be far preferable to attempting to teach practical skills in formal classroom settings.

(3) A third point is that the graduate school curriculum in a professional school must be broadly defined to include a wide range of experiences. For example, I believe that it is desirable for the future research professor to serve an apprenticeship with a professor who is involved in personal research or who is directing a research project. This apprenticeship experience should be defined as part of the curriculum. Internships, field studies, and informal seminars are also part of the total curriculum as is, in a less well defined sense, the set of informal relationships students have with their professors and their peers. The staff associate program at the University of Chicago, initiated by Francis S. Chase, provides many settings within which students and faculty members work together on projects. Surely this is an important part of the total curriculum.

(4) The curriculum in educational administration should not be confined to the courses specifically listed under this subject in the university catalogue. In fact, a university which provides excellent courses in sociology of organizations, public administration, and the politics and economics of education, provides a much broader offering in administration than the university which does not offer such courses. Hence, one aspect of planning should be the establishment of strong interdepartmental relationships, cutting across departmental lines. This process is a little easier when social scientists are involved in studying phenomena in education, as is, for example, Peter Blau of the University of Chicago. In some cases, doctoral programs should span special fields. For example, students may well take a doctoral program in educational administration and comparative education—to the benefit of the student and of the professors in the two fields.

We believe that the administrator who graduates from the Ph.D. program needs to have a knowledge in depth of research techniques. Some graduates will be professors; others will be directors of research institutes. All, however, should be intelligent consumers of research. It is difficult for a person to consume research if he has not had previous formal training in research technology. However, this training need not be in quantitative research, although we feel that every graduate should have a basic training in statistics. In many cases, historical or documentary research, interviewing skills, or skills in observational techniques will be more valuable to the educational administrator than advanced statistical competence.

OTHER INPUTS

Finally, in these days of technical change, the faculty alone does not provide an adequate input into a doctoral program. There must, of course, be an adequate library, including books and periodicals in the social sciences as well as in educational administration. Computer facilities are needed, for the support of research. Additionally, however, computers should be used to provide experience in the new technologies of education. We are negotiating the installation of computer terminals for use in keeping our subscription lists, student files, and financial accounting. This installation will probably be economically ineffi-

cient, in thot it will probobly result in on expense which is greater thon our present cost of operoting these services. However, every doctoral student in odministrotion should hove ot least some exposure to the potentiol in the new technology. We plon to extend the use of our focilities to include the use of o computer for instruction in some of our course work.

Finolly, the speciol orrongements for o doctorol progrom are exceedingly importont. An environment which provides offices for odvonced graduote students neor the offices of foculty members provides opportunities for interoction and for informol instruction which might otherwise be obsent. Smoll seminar rooms for close confrontotion in small groups ore oiso essential. Spoce, in other words, provides the environment within which the mon-mochine educotionol systems of the future will be designed ot the graduote level, os well os throughout the other levels of educotion.

SUMMARY

These proposols do not deol with oll the importont problems which Dr. Shepoisier cutlined. They do, however, provide some suggestions. More ond better theories ore necessory for the administrator to be oble to comprehend the complexity of the environment with which he deols. New stoff roles are needed, so thot the odministrotor will hove both more totol knowledge to deol with his problems ond more time to think obout their solution.

The new technologies provide on odditionol bosis for improving decision-moking. In the lost onolysis, however, selection still remoins the most importont foctor in order thot the superintendent moy still deol courogeously ond consistently with problems involving morol ond ethicol issues. Since the universities ploy on importont role in the selection of key odministrotors, their function remoins on importont one.

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New Designs
For Adult Education Doctoral Programs

INTRODUCTION

There are two major subdivisions in my paper. In the first section, I discuss the four components that must be examined in the development of any graduate program. In the second part of the paper I outline what I consider to be the basic constituents and conditions of a graduate program in adult education. Throughout the paper, basic issues which, like threads, run through many facets of our discussion, must be faced, understood, and, if possible, resolved constructively. This is a position paper, of course. As a position paper, it is written from a set of values and assumptions. I shall try to make these as clear as I am able throughout my paper.

The four components which are discussed in the first section of the paper are, the university, the particular field of study, the faculty, and the student. The purpose of identifying these components is to provide me the opportunity to present my positions on the purposes of a university, the nature of adult education as a field of study, the roles and quality of faculty required, and the conditions for educational experiences as they pertain to the students as learners. It appears so apparent to me that anyone who is going to present a design for graduate education must deal with these aspects that I think it superfluous to explain why I begin my paper with a consideration of these four components. I would think it sufficient to say that how one perceives these components will dictate the graduate program design.

THE UNIVERSITY

First on my list is the university. What do I have in mind when I speak of a university? It is not a simple matter to give a definition of a university that we all would accept; for each of us has his own conception of the purposes, functions, and structures that for him define a university. This point should not be evaded. We should not make the mistake that we are all talking about the same institution when we use the term, university. To assume that we have the same concept of a university in mind, may lead us to unresolvable confrontations. To argue for a particular program on the nature of the program alone may fail to bring the arguments together because the conflicts arise from the divergent aims we perceive a university should have. Even if agreement is readily obtained, I would still take the position that there is need to examine a program against the purposes we believe a university should have.

If I am to become specific and tell you what I believe should be a design for a graduate program, then it is necessary for you to know what I believe are the purposes, functions, and structures of a university.

A university is an institution which subserves the development of associations among the tyros and experienced scholars in their searching out of knowledge and their restructuring of existing information. It is paramount that the beginning and the advanced scholars within a university be free of those restraints which would prevent the searching for and the restructuring of information.

The societies or publics outside of the university must protect and secure these forms of freedom in order to protect themselves from the tyrannies of unexamined ideas and unquestioned beliefs. We must come to understand that the experiencing of the searching and restructuring is the essence of a university education. Many people often and mistakenly confuse the fulfilling of individual wants and the demands of specific publics as being the purposes of a university. The wants and demands which are placed within the arena of open and freely structured inquiry can be handled by a university meaningfully and with profit for all. A university thrives when the societies it is asked to serve are developing in a manner that advances integrally the welfare of their people. A university deteriorates when individuals' wants and the demands of societies supersede the primary purposes of searching and restructuring of those areas of inquiry that the scholars deem to be basic questions.

A university does serve the societies in which it has its being. Its pursuits and inquiries would be sterile were it not to interact with the various publics both local and distant. Such sterility would lead to stagnation and ultimate decay. But what the university must guard against being is a handmaiden to these publics. In becoming a handmaiden, the university loses its freedoms and its loss of freedoms is as destructive to a university as its policy of isolation.

How then does a university serve the publics? The answer is obvious: by doing that which it is uniquely best qualified to do. What is it uniquely best qualified to do? To serve as a vehicle by providing the opportunities for youth and age through the reality-bound use of imagination to search for knowledge and to restructure information.

The understanding of freedom in the American university has become of urgent importance. A failure to see its paramount position may do irreparable damage to our universities. Excess and divergence of many forms have occurred in our university. I am confident they will continue to occur. However, given the freedoms and the mechanisms that must be in concert with those freedoms, the forces of excess and divergence will be disciplined by the very forces that make excess and divergence possible in the first place. There is evidence to support this position. The universities that have experienced confrontations on their campuses are those of outstanding reputation among our American universities. The issue is not the problem of curtailing freedom. Although there is, at some universities, a surprisingly large number of faculty who would wish to curtail freedom as the solution to the issue. The problem is not an excess of freedom. The problem has been primarily a serious omission in the administrative systems of these universities to provide responsible and responsive mechanisms for the expression of freedoms. This is a very important point. It is a point that may escape those faculty who fail to understand the dynamic nature of freedom. Failures on the part of both the students and faculty to understand the nature of freedoms and the open systems through which these freedoms

breathe the air of life moy prove to be the greotest chal-
lenges to our American universities.

I sholl return to these point; in loter sections when I
discuss the relotionsliips between faculty ond students.

THE FIELD OF ADULT EDUCATION

It is not a novel opproach to define odult education
by first defining adult and then education, but it has
tradition ond merit. The problem, os you will soon dis-
cover, is thot this particulor preredure does not lead to
o closure. It does allow us to examine certoin bosic
issues. From these I sholl try to put together whot I
believe to be an occeptoble conceptualizatian of odult
educotion.

I hove attempted elsewhere to define adult education
by viewing it in a psychological context. I tried to estob-
lish, os mony before me hove shown for other purposes,
thot the child's ottention to learning of subject motters
is directed through the love-object relotionship. Human
beings go through specific stoges of development and the
socio-psychologicol relationships change bosically ond dro-
maticolly from stage to stoge. In normal potterns the
child's independence grows with his expanding experiences.
In odolescence the ego-ideol comes into existence. This
mechonism ollows the child to begin to move owoy from
identificotion os the central process of leorning viewed
psychologically. The ego-ideal becomes the model which
provides standords for ond focuses interests on the learn-
ing of subject matters.

In my earlier poper I wrote obout the transition of
youth to adulthood in the following manner:

In the final stage from youth to monhood and
womonhood, the model, os the play costumes
before it, must be given up. The mon or womon
must stond olone and foce the world from his or
her own individuol identity. It is now expected
thot the young adult know, confirm, ond adhere
to his or her own set standards ond that there has
been developed o functioning copacity for censure
of self and others ond an obility to employ intelli-
gent odaptotion. . . . This indicates a direct hon-
dling of subject matter in which no bridge between
the leorner ond the leorning is required.[1]

At the time I wrote the obove moteriol I thought it to
be a simple ond clear statement of whot seemed to me
to be a sound position bosed on the extensive work and
thinking of many authorities in developmental psychology
and psychoonalytic psychology. I have seen very few
instances in which this contribution received even o hear-
ing. Notwithstanding, ond conceivably becouse of it, I
ogoin offer my definition of adult in the context of odult
education.

The odult having his own standards, ospirotions, ond
expectotions bosed upon his own recognized identity estob-
lishes thot which he wishes to leorn and is oble to go
directly to the subject motter. The social context is sig-
nificant to his actions but they do not serve os psycho-
logicol bridges to his engogement in learning.

If I hove been successful in providing some form of a
definition of odult, we ore now reody to turn our ottention
to education.

One must bor the temptation to define education in
terms of ogencies ond institutions. To do so, ond it has
been done frequently in adult educotion, would lead us
away from the central issues involved in defining educotion.

It is unfortunate to see odult educotors stort their dis-
cussions by first identifying that there is informal and
formol odult educotion. This type of discussion skirts the
central issues entirely. The question before us is the
meoning of educotion in the expression, odult educotion.

There is o cluster of terms which oppear together but
which need to be differentioted when one speoks of educa-
tion. Leorning and educotionol experiences ore two such
terms. These help to define education, but they ore not
synonymous with education. Education involves leorning,
ond experiences ore integrol segments of education. Educa-
tion is the purposive structuring ond organizing of experi-
ences. Experiences provide growth to the extent thot they
hove continuity and expansion of subject motter. The
consequences of these experiences leod to reconstruction
of experiences ond relationol understondings.

Often educotion leods to sociol oction but sociol oction
does not hold necessorily o reciprocal relotionship to edu-
cotion. Sociol oction may provide mony educative experi-
ences but unless it is organized to do so, it does not serve
as educotion. Formotion of understondings ond disposi-
tions ore the central volues of education. It is important
to realize that overt oction is not the only thing that
counts.

Adult educotion moy take place in o wide voriety of
ploces ond deol with any one of o multitude of subjects.
The educotion dimension is not defined by the physical
setting. It is the dynomic attributes identified obove that
define education.

As a field of study in the doctorol program we ore
directly concerned with the field os on oreo of study.
This meons our emphasis is on research ond not service
in the sense of preparing professionals to meet the demonds
of current needs. This is a point which con be reodily
misunderstood becouse of the press of our society's needs.
In a graduote progrom our purpose is to observe, onolyze
ond develop evidence ond theory to exploin that which
we ore exomining ond studying. If by this process we
develop excellent procticing professionols, oll to the good.
It would be my expectation that were we to carry out our
progrom in hormony with our expectations, the chances
of producing strong procticing professionols would be high.
But it must be remembered thot this is not our direct gool.

The doctorol degree must not become a high-level
proctitioner degree. It is a scholorly degree ond its value
and merit will be opprecioted to the extent thot we con
mointain its scholorly attributes. There are other degrees
which can be developed to meet the needs of the pro-
fession.

THE FACULTY

If I were to select the component which occupies the
most crucial position in the structuring of a doctorol pro-
grom, it would be the foculty without any hesitation on
my part. I do not imply by taking this position that I om
unaware of the forces the central university structures
and culture opply in the selection, attraction, ond mointe-
nonce of the faculty. The faculty ond the university, if
not one ond the same, ore integrally reloted. Realizing
the noture af this relotionship gives us an appreciation of
the greot omounts of time presidents and chancellors
spend in moking speeches on the philosophy and goals
of their universities. True, there are other reosons, such

1. Robert D. Boyd, "Psychological Definition of Adult Education." Adult
Leadership. Volume 15, No. 5, November, 1966.

as reassuring the alumni, soliciting funds and quieting the fears of various publics. But it should not be overlooked that these officials of the university are also going down on record for prospective faculty. The image the university projects to the academic society is integrally tied to the selection and attraction of faculty.

In a certain sense the relationship of faculty and university is circular. The nature of the university which I argued for in the first section of this paper is not divorced from certain positions I will take in this section on faculty. However, I find it much more meaningful to bring our focus to the university department level rather than keeping it at the overall university level. My reason for selecting the university department level is very simple. Appreciating certain human failures, I believe the best decision can be made here concerning faculty and the nature of the areas of inquiry. I define best on the basis that those who are scholars in a particular discipline are the most knowledgeable about who is competent. Since I believe this to be a defendable position from which to operate, I shall discuss faculty from the organizational structure of the university academic department.

I find it helpful to conceptualize the organizational patterns of university academic departments into two general types. The first I call the core pattern. The second I refer to as the individual pattern. There are probably few pure cases of either type. However, my observations have led me to believe that either one or the other pattern is dominant in any given situation.

The core pattern operates on the assumption that the faculty has the knowledge to specify the common content areas and the sequences of courses by which the content of these areas of study are given to the students. A faculty which proposes a core pattern has as one of its central objectives the integration of areas of study into a program of study. It is their goal that they will be able to define for themselves as a faculty and the students in their department, precise areas of competency for the graduating students. In simple terms, they believe they know what their product will be at the completion of their program. They know this even before they know their students.

The individual pattern operates on the assumption that each member of the faculty is a scholar in a given field of study. He is, therefore, competent to advise students on a program of study. Established courses are only one vehicle to this end. A faculty which proposes an individual pattern has as one of its central objectives the freeing of the student to develop for himself an integrated program of study. Except in the most general terms, it is impossible for such a faculty to determine beforehand the goals for their entering students. The products of such a graduate program cannot be defined in terms of specific competencies. The competencies of an individual graduate can only be identified on an individual basis.

Both patterns seek competent scholars. The core pattern seeks faculty in terms of its program, while the individual pattern seeks faculty of potential and of outstanding scholarship. There are courses in both patterns, but there is a difference in the ordering of priority between the two patterns. The core pattern operates generally in fitting professors to courses. The individual pattern uses courses as a means to bring professors and students together to explore specific areas of inquiry. In the former pattern, courses generally outlive the professor; in the latter pattern,

the seminar is employed extensively while listed courses, fixed in the rigidity of administrative structure, are left as historical markers, testimony to exploration.

The individual pattern needs a university that has academic strength in a variety of departments. The university is in many respects the base of the student's operations. In the core pattern the department occupies a much more central position in the student's university life and program.

Although I find it most fascinating to examine in detail the interpersonal dynamics of the two patterns, I believe it would be tangential to the focus of this paper. It is essential to understand and appreciate the reality that certain personalities are more comfortable in one pattern than in the other. This is true for faculty and students. Some scholars are able to tolerate faculty research committees over an extended period of time but are unwilling and opposed to department programming. Other professors seek the structures of department programming.

There is not a question of absolute values embedded in this dichotomy. It is a question of which pattern you wish to accent. Each of us has his preference. The task is to make these as open and clear as is possible.

I do believe it is appropriate at this point to briefly discuss the concept of the generalist, especially as it pertains to adult education. The generalist is frequently counterposed to the specialist. This is done because we are thinking about these types in terms of content. We look at them in terms of the type and amount of content. This is probably a legitimate way of conceiving the differentiation, but I believe it misses the crucial distinction. The distinction is a function of integration. The generalist has mastered the processes and has achieved the ability to integrate. He has learned to integrate the intrinsic natures of various content to see relationships and gestalten. This is a specialization. It is a different kind of specialization than most of us think of when we employ the term of specialization.

I have met few scholars who are able to do this successfully or who even attempt to do it. Therefore, I would be most suspicious of any university department which has as its goal the development of generalists. I can accept the goal of developing specialists in the conventional use of that term, for this is a reasonable goal to achieve. I have only hunches on how to help students become generalists and I am not aware of any educator who has operationalized a graduate program to achieve this goal.

THE STUDENT

I shall take the opportunity of using the references to students as a transition to the fourth component which I have previously identified to be the student. The majority of students who have entered doctorate programs in adult education over the last eight years have been from cooperative extension services and general extension. Within the last few years students have also come from adult schools, community colleges, and social agencies. Few have come from undergraduate programs directly into doctoral programs in adult education.

There are many conditions associated with this phenomenon. The students are generally well into their thirties before they enter the doctoral program. Often they are deeply committed to specific agency-based adult education. They are service oriented to a far greater extent than research oriented. Many of them have been either program administrators or administrators. They expect to return

to a similar agency from which they have come and be given a position at a higher level because they have their doctorate.

It is obvious that these conditions do provide a challenge to any faculty that subscribes to the purposes I stated for the university earlier in this paper. I believe the challenge should be accepted and not avoided by setting admission procedures that bar those who come with motives which appear to be in disharmony with the purposes of the university. The problem is not the conflict of motives and purposes. The problem is whether both the faculty and the students can accept each other's purposes in good faith and to the growth of each.

There are certain problems which must be avoided. Among these is the interlocking directorate. A university must be autonomous. A program of study for any student must not be directed by the department of public instruction for the state, the extension division, or any other agency.

The demands put on a university to provide professional levels of attainment cannot be avoided in our society. To face this demand does not mean one lowers standards. As I discuss in the last section of this paper, there are three major phases to graduate study. The first phase gives the student an opportunity to demonstrate his willingness to accept the challenges of growth experiences and his capacity for growth. The second phase requires him to meet the unique demands of his university professional program. The third is provided to give the student the opportunity to demonstrate his independence of mind and his professional competencies. These phases provide the means for transacting among the university, the study, and society. These transactions must be carried out in autonomous and responsive relationships.

Faced with these problems daily, I developed a set of statements to try to clarify my own position on these matters. I would like to share these statements with you at this time.

1. First, I believe an individual has the right and responsibility to determine in concert with those others directly involved, the direction and extent of his acts in accordance with his knowledge of the realities and his capabilities to handle the demands of those realities.

2. Information without which knowledge cannot be achieved, should at all times be available to the individual.

3. The capacity of an individual to develop knowledge and to handle the demands of reality should not be prejudged.

4. The freedom to develop abilities from one's capacities should be the aim of education.

5. The administration of education should itself be an integral part of a liberal education.

6. The realities of interpersonal relations can be defined in such a way that those having the capacities can develop the abilities to understand and meet the demands of social realities.

7. Open inquiry freely entered into by all individuals is essential to the defining of the demands of reality and the solution or fulfillment of those demands.

8. A professor does not have the right to determine which system of knowledge a student shall adhere to in the student's course of study.

9. A professor is free to profess any system he so chooses and, so far as any one course is concerned, he may require the student to know that system.

10. It is the student's major advisor who, in concert with the student and with the active help of other faculty, sees that the student masters one system of knowledge and is sufficiently knowledgeable of the others.

THE DOCTORAL PROGRAM

There are three phases to the proposed doctoral program. Each will be described in sequence in this section.

The first phase may be termed the admission phase. A student may enter on probation or on non-conditional acceptance to do graduate study. There are three forms of probation, namely, grade point below acceptance level (3.0), deficiencies, and uncertainty of commitment on either the part of the student or the faculty. The probation status is removed in accordance to three conditions as follows:

1. Completion of 9 graduate credits taken concurrently with a grade point average at or above 3.0 (on a four-point scale).

2. Completion of the deficiencies with acceptable grades.

3. Decision concerning the initial uncertainties, either to go on with the program or to terminate the program. The removal of any condition leading to the probation status then moves the student to the non-conditional acceptance status.

During the first phase the student should come to know the conditions and requirements of graduate study. The student should become professionally acquainted with the graduate faculty and should identify those with whom he would like to do graduate work. If he did not know initially the area of study that he would like to pursue he should make a decision on this matter during the first phase of his program. Once this has become clear to him, he should contact the professor with whom he would like to do his graduate program.

There are three procedures he must take to move from the first phase to the second phase. The student must get three recommendations from three professors in the university, one of whom must indicate a willingness to be his major advisor. This is not a contract but a condition of reassurance. The student must pass a four-hour writing examination. He must take the Wechsler Individual Intelligence Test. The results of this may be used to counsel the student into or out of graduate study.

The student's petition following the completion of the above three requirements will be reviewed by a faculty committee of the department which passes on the admission to graduate study.

In the second phase, the student takes three types of courses. The first type are those courses which treat the content of his particular field of study. The second type are those courses which provide some depth in those disciplines which are directly relevant to the student's field of study. The minor is included in this group of courses. The third type of courses give the student the methodologies basic to inquiry in his field of study.

In addition to courses the student has a systematic and integrated series of working experiences. There are three types: apprenticeships, teaching assistantships, and research assistantships. The choice of experience is determined by the student's professional plans. If he is going into program administration he will be placed in on apprentice relationship to an experienced program administrator. If he plans to teach after graduation he will be

given a teaching assistantship. If he wants experience in research work, he will be placed in a research project.

There is a minimum requirement of 36 credit hours beyond the master's degree and these hours are included in phases one and two, exclusive of deficiencies. There is a five-year limit between the time of admission to the doctoral program and the time of the preliminary examination. If the student has not taken his preliminary examination within this period, he and his committee must petition for a fixed period of continuation. Failing to comply with this requirement results in the student being dropped as a doctoral candidate.

The preliminary examination is scheduled for two consecutive days, for eight hours each day. The examination is drafted by the student's committee and is graded by them. The purpose of the examination is to determine whether the student is prepared to commence work on his dissertation. There are two opportunities to pass the examination. Failing both the student is dropped as a doctoral candidate.

In the third phase the student takes only seminars and research credits. In addition he is given experiences in one of the following types of positions:

1. As an intern, if any form of administration is his professional goal.

2. As an instructor, if his professional goal is to teach.

3. As a research associate, if he wishes to go into research following the completion of his doctoral program.

At the completion of his dissertation he must circulate an abstract of it to all members of the department. Five members compose a quorum for an oral examination. Three members are his committee and two are selected by the dean of the graduate school on the basis of his work outside of his department. Any member of the department may attend and take part in the oral examination.

I have sketched in some detail the general format of the program. The two major characteristics of the program are that the selection and sequence of courses are unique to the individual student and the program is a joint enterprise between the student and his committee. I appreciate that there are many program and administrative details which I did not identify. My purpose was to describe the major aspects of the format of the program. The rationale for this type of program was discussed in in one of the following types of positions:

J. D. McCOMAS*
and
J. P. NOONAN

Summary

Designing new doctoral programs in education or modifying existing ones is a complex task. Time and financial resources limited the dimensions of doctoral programs which could be considered during the conference. Notably missing among the program areas presented in this publication are special education, occupational education, educational psychology, as well as historical and philosophical areas which lend vital support to all doctoral areas in education. Attention should be directed also to the need for those designing or modifying programs to be able to utilize economics, computer science, psychology, anthropology, sociology, and other disciplines which may have appropriate contributions to make in doctoral programs in education.

The relationships which could be developed with selected disciplines in the preparation of university and junior college teachers need to be a salient consideration. Soon after the conclusion of this conference the College of Education and the Department of Physics at Kansas State University developed a joint program in College Teaching—Physics. Several full-time students since have been admitted to the jointly pl[...] and supervised program.

Recurring references were made throughout the conference as to the latitude possible in designing new programs contrasted with the variety of difficulties encountered in reshaping existing doctoral programs in education. Flexibility and open-endedness must be a hallmark of new programs, for the tendency of many initially creative programs is to institutionalize them once a faculty concurs on a curriculum or program. Too, in the refinement of both old and new programs there is a temptation to become more prescriptive; thus, leaving less and less opportunity for the existing program to recognize the prior experiences of the student and the unique goals which the student hopes to realize through his program of preparation. There is the danger of equating courses with competencies or experiences implied by them. Obviously, competencies and experiences may be gained through a variety of courses and activities. Dr. Ralph Tyler cautioned the Kansas State faculty in the preconference session that professors tend to think the doctoral student's program cannot be complete without the professor's own particular course. Hence, some programs result in "professor building" rather than "curriculum building."

Faculties implementing new programs should not hastily attempt to specify the total curriculum for the respective doctoral specialization in education. They may wish to use existing seminars and courses during the first few months in order to spend the extensive time needed for intelligent planning and to experiment with tentative curriculum components. Doctoral students should be involved in the designing of programs. However, there is a need for projected planning of all courses and major experiences which are to characterize the program; otherwise, courses and experiences may be added in a "willy-nilly" fashion without due consideration as to how the parts contribute to the whole.

Administrators too must realize that faculties planning new programs may have limited experience and vision and that outside resource personnel may be able to raise questions and make suggestions which will preclude the faculty planning programs based upon that faculty's limited experiences.

As indicated by Albrecht, the local graduate school has its role to play and its contributions to make in the design or reshaping of doctoral programs in education. The subsequent supervision of the program by the graduate school and the college of education faculty will be more effective if indeed they are partners in the design as well as the implementation of programs.

THE ED.D. OR PH.D.?

It is not a question of the Ed.D. versus the Ph.D. A variety of considerations must be given by the local institution in determining whether one or both degrees should be offered. Most will agree that the label the degree bears is not significant but rather it is the philosophy, quality content, and goals of courses and experiences which accompany the degree to be awarded which make contrasting differences.

Local considerations must be given and biases or trends of professional organizations to prefer one degree over another need to be considered. Perhaps it is fortunate that the language requirement for Ph.D. degree programs is becoming optional at more and more universities and will force faculties to distinguish salient differences between the degrees, for over time the unique features of each have become less apparent.

ASSESSMENT AND SCREENING

Most faculties would be hard pressed to justify some of the criteria which they use in determining whether or not to allow students to enter doctoral programs. Cutting scores on the Graduate Record Exam have not proven to be valid predictors of the student's subsequent success in the program. Faculties must search for (and perhaps even develop) diagnostic procedures which hold more promise than current practices which are usually both superficially subjective and arbitrary. Self assessment procedures by which the doctoral student can help to identify his own strengths and weaknesses seem worthy of further study and research. A focus on the quality—not mere quantity of the prior experiences of the student should be an important role of assessment and screening and in planning the programs of students admitted for study.

Among questions the faculty should seek to ascertain in determining the admission or rejection of the student into the doctoral program is not can he or she complete the program, rather does he or she give indication of being the kind of student the institution would like to have as a representative of the program?

While a heavy emphasis on assessment should be given to entering students, there is a continuing need for it on

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the part of faculty and the student for the duration of the student's program if it is truly to be an individualized program. Identifiable weaknesses may be corrected through additional courses, individual study, assigned research and through carefully planned practica and internships. Typical qualifying and final examination procedures have failed to provide the comprehensive assessments that faculties need to make regarding student competencies and the effectiveness of the program completed. Too often those judgments which are made focus only on the student and not the faculty and program of preparation.

THE FACULTY

The quality of doctoral programs is directly related to the quality of students and faculty. Therefore, colleges should weigh with equal care the qualifications of those who teach courses and supervise research in doctoral programs. Current practices for admission to doctoral faculties may mitigate against the bright new professor who in many respects may be better prepared and have research competencies which exceed those of senior staff. Professors must themselves be students of that which they teach. Doctoral programs become known for the quality of instruc-

tion as viewed by students, through research, professional activities of faculty and not incidentally by how their graduates perform in their initial assignments.

Faculty should see doctoral students as partners in the teaching-learning process not merely the recipients of it. Much of the success of the doctoral program will depend upon the scope and quality of the interaction between the professor and doctoral student which occur in the less structured dimensions of the program and to the degree to which the student may have an opportunity to share in the life of the college and its programs. Prospective faculty members cannot appreciate the frustration of college courses and program development until they have seen the "hang ups" encountered through the interface which occurs among professors and between disciplines. The doctoral student has a right to see that universities too are subject to internal academic politics, personality conflicts, and a tendency for one professor to consider what another views as trivia as a matter of greatest principle for which he demands the right to defend. Full participation in departmental and college activities is essential if the doctoral student is to gain the insight and experiences needed. A faculty which is unwilling to provide such opportunities, to say the least, is less than secure.

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