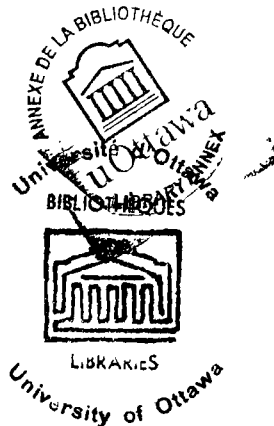


THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PARADIGM
FOR THE STUDY OF TEACHER
PREACTIVE DECISION MAKING

by Ruth Whitehead

Thesis presented to the School of
Graduate Studies of the University
of Ottawa as partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Philosophy



Ottawa, Canada, 1975



Ruth Whitehead, Ottawa, Canada, 1975

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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Ruth Yvonne Whitehead was born November 21, 1932, in Toronto, Ontario. She received the Bachelor of Religious Education degree from the London Bible Institute and Theological Seminary, London, Ontario in 1958, the Bachelor of Arts degree from the University of Western Ontario, London in 1962, and the Master of Education degree from the University of Ottawa, Ottawa in 1970.

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INTRODUCTION

While a substantial body of literature supports the view that the classroom teacher provides the key to quality education, very little attention has been given to the process by which the teacher makes decisions which are crucial to effective classroom performance. The limited number of studies and articles specifically related to the decision-making process in the teaching task clearly reveals the lack of definitiveness of the process in both its structure and application. The development of a framework for viewing and analyzing teacher decision making would be profitable for both the teachers themselves and for other personnel responsible for the professional development of teachers.

The classroom teacher provides the key to quality education. Canadian educational commissions support this view.

The teacher is the keystone of the educational arch: in the final analysis, the fulfillment of educational aims rests with him.¹

[...] the training and improvement of teachers lie at the heart of educational reform.²

¹ Royal Commission on Education, Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario, Toronto, King's Printer, 1950, p. 564.

² Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education, Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, Vol. 2, Printer for the Government of the Province of Quebec, 1965, p. 261.

It is in the classroom - however defined - that the process of education comes to life [...]. For this reason the quality of the teacher's daily activities with learners is the crux of process.³

The report of the provincial committee on aims and objectives of education in the schools of Ontario states:

It must be accepted that regardless of all else, no educational system will accomplish what it is designed to do without an adequate supply of highly competent and dedicated teachers.⁴

An analysis of the tasks performed by teachers should be of vital concern to those involved in education. Many writers have acknowledged the lack of effort in this regard. Dreeban remarks that:

[...] teaching is still carried on primarily according to uncodified rules of thumb and through accumulated individual experience amounting to little more than lore. At the same time there probably exists enough knowledge and experience stored in individual heads to provide the basis for sophisticated technologies - were that knowledge and experience ever brought together, codified, tested for efficacy, and communicated to teachers both in training programs and on the job.⁵

Wilson suggests that teaching activities consist, in part, of poorly defined, diffuse elements. Thus role

3 Commission on Educational Planning, A Future of Choices, A Choice of Futures, Edmonton, Alberta, Bulletin-Commercial Printers Limited, 1972, p. 193.

4 Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives in the Schools of Ontario, Living and Learning, Toronto, Ontario, The Newton Publishing Company, 1968, p. 17.

5 R. Dreeban, The Nature of Teaching, Glenview, Illinois, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970, p. 87, 88.

conflicts readily emerge "because of the absence of clear lines of demarcation whereby the role-player knows when he has done his job"⁶.

Bruner acknowledges the lack of effort in this regard when he observes that:

There is a surprising lack of research on how one most wisely devises learning episodes for children, at different ages and in different subject matters.⁷

Macdonald⁸ argues that what is needed for teaching is an occupational redefinition - that is, a new and scientific attempt to define and describe the teaching task.

It is argued that although teaching is a complex process there exists a task component that can and should be studied. Attempts have been made to analyze the teaching task and to label its parts. Jackson⁹ suggests two main components when considering the teacher's task. The first, he labels

6 B. R. Wilson, "The Teacher's Role - A Sociological Analysis", British Journal of Sociology, Vol. 13, No. 1, 1962, p. 25.

7 J. S. Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction, Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1966, p. 54.

8 J. Macdonald, The Discernible Teacher, Ottawa, Ontario, Canadian Teachers' Federation, 1970, p. 13.

9 P. W. Jackson, "The Way Teaching Is", in The Way Teaching Is, Washington, D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Center for the Study of Instruction, National Education Association, 1966, p. 2.

"preactive"¹⁰ which refers to those activities in which a teacher engages when preparing for teaching. The second, he labels "interactive"¹¹ which refers to those activities in which a teacher engages when actually involved with the learners. These categories can be referred to respectively as the planning phase and the implementation phase of instruction. Stolurow¹² refers to these as pre-tutorial and tutorial phases of the teaching process.

To date, much of the research has been of an observational nature and has concentrated on the interactive activities of teaching¹³. Jackson observes that:

Much that the teacher does before and after class, as an instance, must be considered if we are to obtain a complete description of his professional activity. The teacher in an empty classroom may not appear to be a likely object of study, but during these solitary moments he often performs tasks and makes decisions that are vital to his overall effectiveness. We know very little at present, about this important aspect of his work.¹⁴

10 Ibid., p. 2.

11 Ibid.

12 L. M. Stolurow, "Two Phases of Instruction: Pre-tutorial and Tutorial", in M. D. Merrill, ed., Instructional Design: Readings, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971, p. 156.

13 The work of M. Hughes, B. O. Smith, N. Flanders, J. Kounin, A. Bellack, E. Amidon and H. Taba, is representative of this emphasis.

14 Jackson, Op. Cit., p. 10.

The preactive phase of teaching is of major concern to educators in the province of Ontario. Currently, the efforts of the Curriculum Branch of the Ministry of Education are aimed at encouraging local autonomy.

It is now the responsibility of each school to design a particular course of studies that reflects the overall approach and philosophy stated in the guideline, but whose choice of vehicle or subject matter reflects the perception the teachers form of the interests and needs of their own students.¹⁵

To this end the Ministry prepares guidelines which are emerging on a systematic basis in various subject areas and grade levels. These guidelines are ministerially authorized statements concerning the nature of the program in the publicly supported schools of the province¹⁶.

The teachers are now faced with responsibilities that necessitate an extension of their decision-making practices. They no longer adopt a program for classroom use but are expected to adapt the general statements of philosophy and approach found in the guidelines to the needs and interests of specific children in a given setting¹⁷. Thus teachers in the province of Ontario are required to make curriculum decisions.

15 R. Welch, Address to the Chief Educational Officers and Senior Program Officials of Ontario School Boards as part of The Seminar on Program Development, Ontario Room, MacDonald Block, Toronto, Ontario, January 17, 1972, p. 7.

16 Ibid., p. 8.

17 Ibid.

The readiness of teachers to assume this responsibility is in question as Connelly contends:

Without an adequate understanding of how teachers make curriculum choices and without adequate mechanisms for educating teachers in their roles as choice-makers, it is irresponsible romanticism to delegate curriculum-development authority to teachers.¹⁸

This thinking is substantiated by the results of a study conducted in Ontario in 1972 where it was found

[...] that while teachers were favorably disposed towards a broad range of educational outcomes for their teaching subjects, unspecified circumstances were leading them to operationalize learning behaviors much more limited in scope than they themselves would wish, inadequate in terms of the potential benefits inherent in the subjects, and at variance with modern demands that the secondary school concern itself with the education of the whole person.¹⁹

Decisions made by the teachers during the preactive phase of teaching constitute essential components of curriculum and instructional planning. Writers in the field of curriculum define these terms. Goodlad and Richter make a distinction between a curriculum and curriculum as a field of study. They

¹⁸ F. M. Connelly, "The Function of Curriculum Development", Interchange, Vol. 3, No. 2-3, p. 170.

¹⁹ D. Connelly, Instructional Objectives of Teachers of the Principal Subjects at Grade Twelve Level in High Schools, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Ottawa, 1972, p. 184.

state that a curriculum is "a set of intended learnings" or "what is to be learned by individuals, developed in learners, or produced in society through or as a consequence of education"²⁰. Curriculum, as a field of study, "focuses on what is involved in selecting, justifying, and arranging" the intended learnings²¹.

These definitions of curriculum assume a distinction between curriculum and instruction. Curriculum, as presented above, is intended learnings. Curriculum planning involves all aspects of choosing and organizing these intended learnings. Instruction is the process of carrying out that plan or the implementation of the plan. Instructional planning involves selecting strategies to put a curriculum into operation. This distinction between curriculum and instruction is consistent with Johnson's²² view that curriculum is a statement of intentions which guides instruction. Curriculum provides the input to instructional planning and the output of instructional planning is actual classroom instruction.

20 J. Goodlad and M. Richter, Jr., The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, Los Angeles, California, University of California and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1966, p. 11.

21 Ibid., p. 13.

22 M. Johnson, "The Translation of Curriculum into Instruction", Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 1, No. 2, May 1969, p. 116.

Goodlad and Richter²³ contend that both the curriculum of an educational institution and the processes used to develop it can be observed, described, and analyzed.

Many empirical studies related to teacher decision making examine the actual practice of the classroom teacher to determine the degree of congruency between literature and practice but few examine the process of decision making as it applies to teacher planning.

Schwab's²⁴ introduction of the concept of deliberation, a means whereby the practical and the theoretical blend, has resulted in current investigations of teacher decision making related to program development²⁵. In a recent paper²⁶ choices are categorized as intuitive and decision-governed, both

23 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 12.

24 J. Schwab, and W. Harper, The Practical: A Language for Curriculum, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1970, p. 36-39.

25 D. Walker, "A Study of Deliberation in Three Curriculum Projects", Curriculum Theory Network, Monograph Supplement, 1971, p. 118-134; S. Fox, "A Practical Image of 'the Practical'", Curriculum Theory Network, No. 10, Fall, 1972, p. 45-57; and The Teacher Deliberation and Choice Project (OISE), M. Connelly, Principal Investigator, are examples of this investigation.

26 D. Roberts and M. Connelly, "The 'Conceptualization/ Practice Interface': A Potentially Useful Notion for Exploring the Relevance of Graduate Study in Curriculum", Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Association for Curriculum Studies, Edmonton, Alberta, June 4, 1975.

proceeding from the self-image²⁷ of the individual. This self-image is defined as the comprehensive view the person has of himself and his role and is composed of knowledge elements and elements of understanding of the practical situation²⁸. Through deliberation which is a shared experience the teacher, it is claimed, develops the habitual capacity to act deliberately²⁹. The subject under discussion in this present study is related to the above concept of the teacher's self-image.

Authoritative opinion relating to teacher preactive decision making can be found in the work of curriculum writers. Goodlad and Richter³⁰ developed a conceptual framework for viewing and analyzing curriculum devision making at all levels of the educational hierarchy. Myers³¹, utilizing the structural framework developed by Goodlad and Richter, incorporates into his model, the persons involved, their area of influence, and their role in the total decision-making process. This decision-making process relates to the

27 Ibid., p. 3.

28 Ibid., p. 4.

29 M. Connelly and B. Dienes, "The Teacher as Choice Maker in Curriculum Development: A Case Study", Working copy of a paper prepared at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario, February, 1973, p. 12.

30 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 65, 68.

31 D. Myers, Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, Dayton, Ohio, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970, p. 6.

teacher's role within the total hierarchical structure. The actual process by which an individual teacher makes planning decisions is an area of inquiry that has wide implications for programming and one that has been overlooked by many researchers and theorists.

This study has a primary and a secondary purpose. The primary purpose is to develop a theoretically-based paradigm to facilitate research on teacher preactive decision making extending the model proposed by Myers. In the context of this study the terms paradigm and model are used interchangeably consonant with the reasoning of Van Dalen³² and Beauchamp³³. This paradigm or model will concentrate on the decision-making process in which the individual classroom teacher is involved when planning or during the preactive phase of teaching.

The secondary purpose of this study is to examine the number and kind of criteria by which teachers assess their preactive decisions when determining organizing centers for student learning. The major areas of decision making agreed upon by most writers in the field of curriculum relate to the selection of objectives for student learning and the selection of some means to attain the objectives. Objectives can

32 D. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research, rev. ed., New York, McGraw-Hill Inc., 1962, p. 65.

33 G. Beauchamp, Curriculum Theory, 2nd ed., Wilmette, Illinois, The Kagg Press, 1968, p. 26.

be defined as statements of what students are to know, to do, or to believe. The means to these ends have been defined in the literature by a variety of terms. For this study the means will be referred to as organizing centers for learning. The term organizing center was introduced into the literature by Herrick³⁴ and reintroduced by Goodlad³⁵ and Myers³⁶.

The organizing center can be defined as a focal point for learning or a description of the stimulus to which a student or students are to respond. This part of the study will examine the number and kind of criteria used by primary teachers in the province of Ontario to assess their preactive decisions when determining organizing centers for student learning. The rationale for the examination of this dimension of the paradigm will be presented at the conclusion of chapter one.

Pertinent literature on teacher decision making within the context of the work of selected writers in the areas of curriculum, decision making, and organizations is reviewed in

34 V. Herrick, "Organizing Centers", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 111.

35 J. Goodlad, "The Organizing Center in Curriculum Theory and Practice", Theory into Practice, Vol. 1, No. 4, October 1962, p. 215.

36 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 29.

chapter one along with a statement of the problem. The paradigm is developed in chapter two. It represents a synthesis of selected writings of Simon³⁷, Herrick, Goodlad, and Myers. Simon's work provides an examination of individual and organizational decision making. He defines an organization as "the complex pattern of communications and other relations in a group of human beings"³⁸. This definition allows for the inclusion of schools and school systems. Herrick, Goodlad, and Myers' writings provide the curriculum input to the paradigm. The implications for research drawn from the paradigm are then presented.

Chapter three outlines the design of the study. It describes the decision-making theory applicable to the assessment segment of the paradigm together with the hypotheses deriving from the theory. Also included in the chapter is a description of the sample, the inventory used to obtain data, and the methodological and data analysis procedures.

In chapter four the results are summarized and analyzed. Finally, a summary of findings and their implications is presented and conclusions are formulated.

37 H. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed., New York, The Free Press, 1957, xlviii-259 p.

38 Ibid., p. xvi.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents conceptualizations of the role of the classroom teacher in the total decision-making process in education drawn from selected curriculum writers and researchers with the objective of developing a framework for further investigation. Section two examines decision-making theory as the needed basic consideration for the development of a comprehensive view of the preactive decision-making role of the classroom teacher. The relationship of organizational theory, in particular, the thinking of Parsons as it relates to teacher preactive decision making is explored in section three. The chapter concludes with a statement of the problem.

1. Curriculum Decision Making.

The importance of curriculum models for this study lies in the fact that they provide a meaningful framework for viewing teacher preactive decision making. Curriculum models can be classified in terms of teacher preactive decision making as exemplified by the following categories: 1) models that isolate planning decisions; 2) models that isolate planning decisions and assign decision-making responsibilities to specific personnel; 3) models that isolate planning decisions, assign

decision-making responsibilities to specific personnel, and show how the decisions are to be made.

This section will identify examples of each of the above curriculum model classifications to provide an overview of the field of curriculum revealing its contribution to the study of teacher preactive decision making as well as its limitations. The model proposed by Myers belongs in the third classification. A detailed presentation of Myers' model exemplifying the third classification will reflect the need for the extension of his work with which this study is concerned.

The early writings of Tyler, Taba, Herrick and Goodlad belong in the first classification. Each of these writers attempts to isolate teacher planning decisions. Tyler's four questions which contain the basic elements of teacher planning are:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?¹

¹ R. W. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Chicago, Illinois, University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 1.

These questions isolate three elements or areas of decision for the planner. These are the selection of objectives, the selection and organization of learning experiences, and the selection of some means for evaluation.

The areas of decision found in Tyler's questions are evident in Taba's seven planning steps². Taba's steps provide a breakdown of objectives into diagnosing needs and selecting objectives as well as a breakdown of learning experiences into content and experience. Taba³ comments herself on the similarity between her steps and Tyler's questions.

Herrick⁴ presents five questions that teachers must ask when planning. He also calls attention to the relationship of his five questions to Tyler's four.

Goodlad⁵ lists four areas of decision making within the teacher's span of control in regard to curriculum and instruction; namely, 1) the content; 2) the learner; 3) the learning process; and 4) the materials. Goodlad and

2 H. Taba, Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, New York, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962, p. 12. See Appendix 1.

3 Ibid.

4 V. Herrick, "Concept of Curriculum Design", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 19, 20. See Appendix 1.

5 J. Goodlad, School, Curriculum, and the Individual, Waltham, Massachusetts, Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966, p. 195.

Richter⁶ refer to these areas as elements in sets of decisions involving the determination of the ends sought - the objectives or purposes, the determination of the means, and the determination of evaluation — the process of checking backwards to determine whether or not the means achieved the desired ends.

McClune, after analyzing these writings of Tyler, Taba, Herrick, and Goodlad, makes this observation:

By examining the various aspects of the three decision areas addressed by Goodlad, one can identify the same basic tasks involved in making curriculum decisions as suggested by Tyler's four questions, Taba's seven steps, and Herrick's five questions. They differ somewhat in their specificity and in the areas of emphasis.⁷

McClune⁸ concludes that the specific areas of teacher decision making are the following: 1) determining objectives; 2) selecting and organizing content; 3) selecting and organizing learning experiences; and 4) determining evaluation procedures and instruments.

6 J. Goodlad and M. Richter, Jr., The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, Los Angeles, California, University of California and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1966, p. 13.

7 R. McClune, Jr., The Development of an Analytical Framework and Survey Questionnaire to Identify and Classify the Instructional Planning Activities of Elementary Teachers, unpublished doctoral thesis, Case Western Reserve University, 1970, p. 34.

8 Ibid., p. 35.

The second classification of models includes those which identify the areas of decision making as well as the personnel involved in making the decisions. The Goodlad-Richter conceptual system (Figures 1 and 2) fits into this category⁹. Figure 1 identifies the decisions that must be made and Figure 2 identifies the personnel who have the responsibility for making the decisions. The combination of Figures 1 and 2 would produce a comprehensive pictorial representation of the decisions and personnel involved in planning for curriculum and instruction.

This system is developed consistent with the reality that decisions are made at several levels of remoteness from the learner. Three levels are defensible, according to the authors¹⁰. The level of decision making furthest from the learner is the societal level consisting of personnel who have politically assigned responsibility for making educational decisions. The instructional level is the level closest to the learner consisting of personnel made up of the professionals within the school. The intermediate level is the institutional level where decisions are made by school staffs under the leadership of principals or administrators.

9 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., 65 p.

10 Ibid., p. 7.

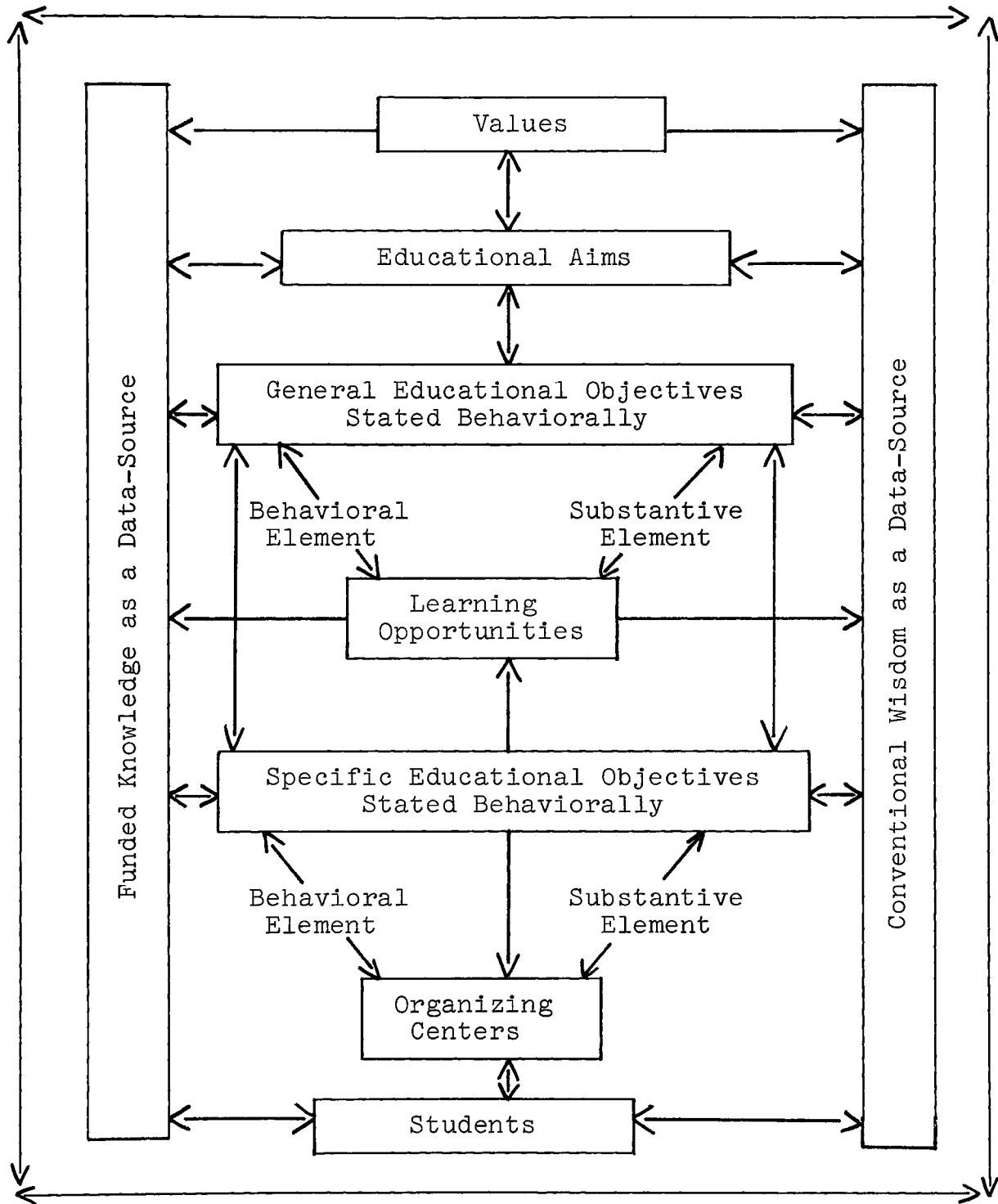


FIGURE 1

SUBSTANTIVE DECISIONS AND DERIVATIONS IN A CONCEPTUAL SYSTEM
FOR CURRICULUM PROPOSED BY GOODLAD-RICHTER

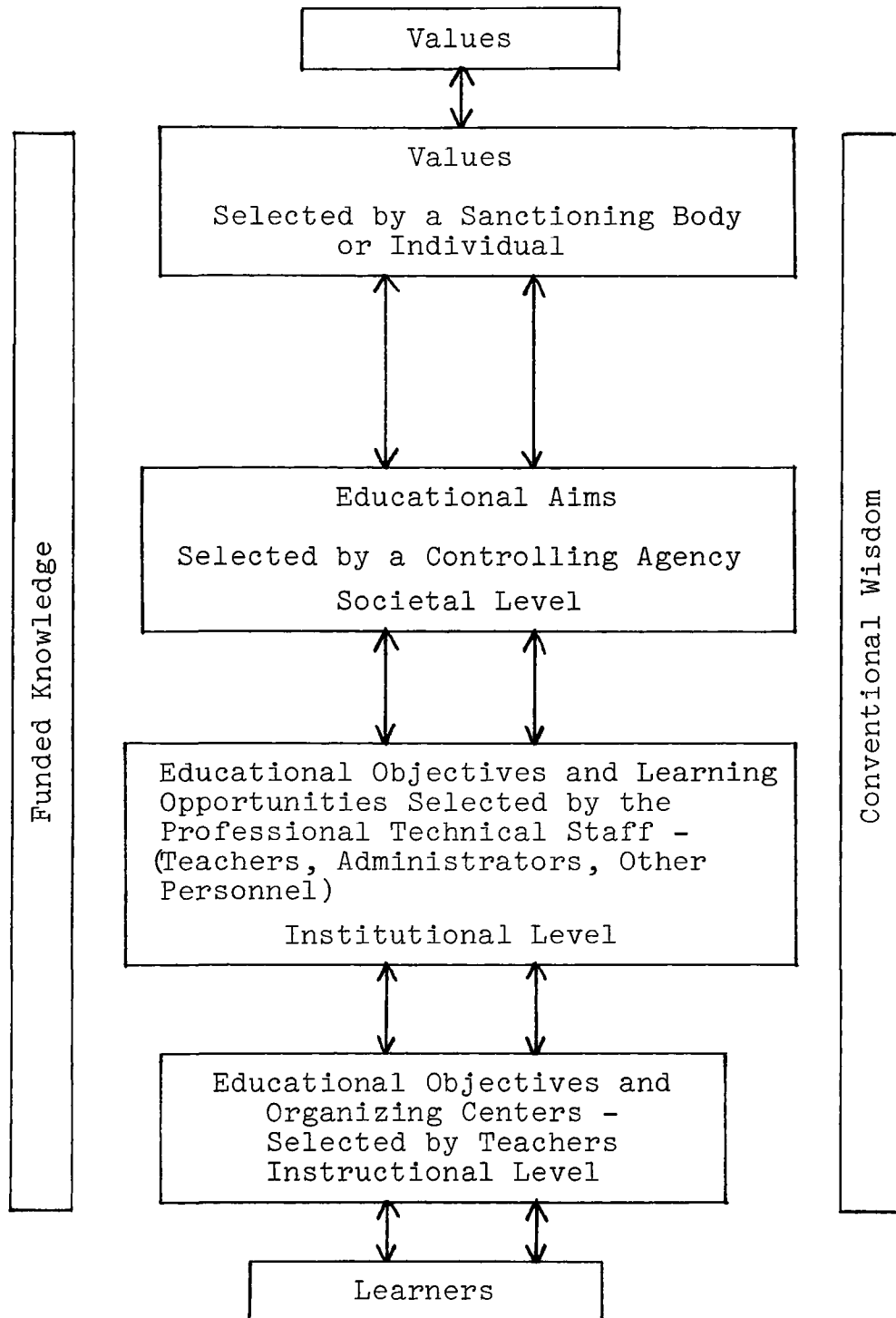


FIGURE 2

CURRICULUM DECISIONS, LEVELS OF AUTHORITY AND RESPONSIBILITY, DERIVATIONS, EVALUATIONS, DATA-SOURCES AND TRANSACTIONS IN A CONCEPTUAL SYSTEM FOR CURRICULUM PROPOSED BY GOODLAD-RICHTER

A conceptualization reveals the relationship that exists among the elements of decision making. The vertical arrows in Figure 1 suggest the downward derivation from values to aims, to general objectives, to specific objectives. The diagonal arrows suggest the derivation of learning opportunities and of organizing centers. Learning opportunities and organizing centers can be equated with Tyler's concept of learning experiences, a term purposely omitted in the Goodlad-Richter system¹¹. Evaluation is seen in this system as the reverse of derivation or the process of checking backwards.

The teacher is placed at the instructional level. Two responsibilities in regard to teacher decision making are significant at this level. The teacher translates educational aims into precise educational objectives and selects organizing centers for learning.

An organizing center for learning is a specific learning opportunity set up for identifiable students or for a student. An organizing center for learning may be a book, field trip, question, topic, or problem that serves as the catch-hold point through which a specified behavior is to be developed.¹²

The organizing center is derived directly from the educational objectives and thus objectives constitute the primary source for their selection.

11 Ibid., p. 19.

12 Ibid., p. 18.

The third classification of models includes those which identify the areas of decision making, the personnel involved and the process by which the decisions are made. Myers' model (Figure 3), which is based upon the Goodlad-Richter system, fits into this category.

The three levels of decision making suggested by Goodlad and Richter are included in Myers' model. These are the societal, the institutional, and the instructional which Myers equates with the Board of Education, institutional committees, and teachers, respectively. The model is hierarchical in that decisions made at the societal level influence decisions made at the institutional and instructional levels.

Consistent with the Goodlad-Richter system, Myers assigns specific responsibilities to each hierarchical level. At the societal level the board is responsible for assessing and voicing the values of the community and translating these values into educational aims. At the institutional level, teachers are responsible for refining the institutional purposes and developing instructional objectives. Myers uses the terms values, aims, purposes, and objectives to denote levels of specificity in regard to educational ends while Goodlad and Richter employ the terms values, aims, and objectives, omitting the use of the term purposes. Both models identify certain decisions that must be made and the personnel responsible for the making of these decisions.

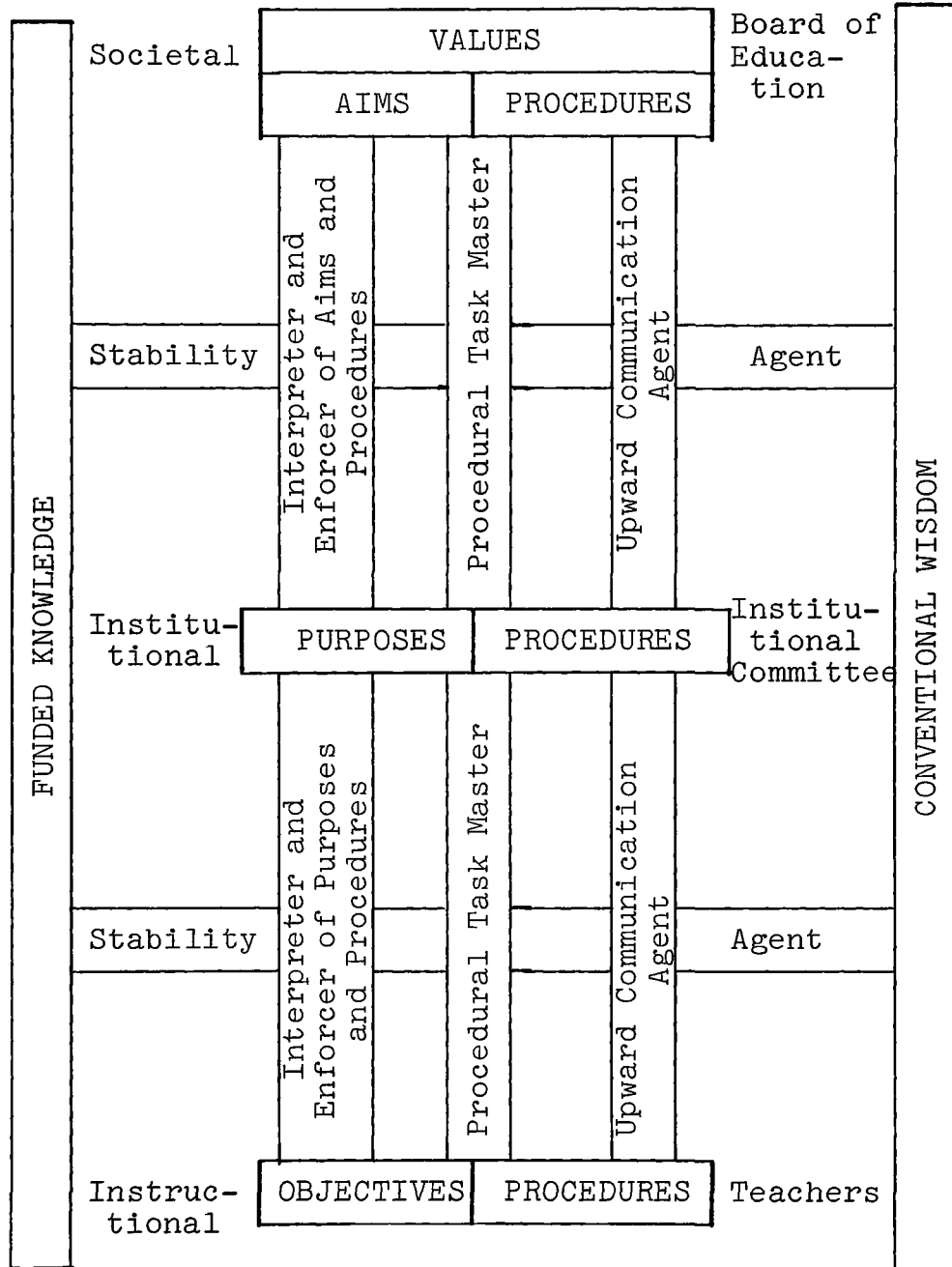


FIGURE 3

SKELETAL OUTLINE OF THE ROLES OF ADMINISTRATORS BETWEEN [AMONG] THE THREE DECISION-MAKING LEVELS FOR CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION PROPOSED BY MYERS

The right hand side of Myers' model purports to house the added dimension of process in decision making. Each hierarchical level is assigned responsibilities related to the decision-making process.

At the societal level the board is responsible for determining educational aims and developing procedures for the decision making of the professional staff. Procedures as defined by Myers "represent a particular way of proceeding to solve a problem"¹³. Thus the board determines the problem-solving procedures to be employed but does not make the decisions¹⁴.

At the institutional level societal procedures are translated into institutional procedures and criteria are developed¹⁵. Procedures at this level could suggest particular books to be read or meetings to be attended whereas criteria are value statements in regard to programming for a particular school or group of schools¹⁶. Statements concerning the school's position in regard to streaming, nongrading, and the integration of subject matter would be classified as criteria according to Myers' definition.

13 Ibid., p. 19.

14 Ibid., p. 12.

15 Ibid., p. 22.

16 Ibid., p. 24.

At the instructional level procedures and criteria are not developed or refined; rather they guide the teacher in making instructional decisions. The teacher may, in fact, develop procedures for the learners but the learner level is not in evidence in Myers' model.

Two teacher activities are suggested by Myers¹⁷ at the instructional level. The first activity is the development of instructional objectives drawn from the institutional purposes and the second activity is the determination of organizing centers that most effectively accomplish the instructional objectives.

Myers' model includes the areas of decision making, the personnel involved and the process by which decisions are to be made at each level of the educational hierarchy. The lack that is evident in Myers' work is in his limited application of the term process.

The process of decision making has been examined by many theorists and writers. Griffiths¹⁸ states that there is a need to clarify our terminology. A decision is essentially a judgment which affects a course of action according to Griffiths. Thus:

17 Ibid. p. 32.

18 D. E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959, p. 75.

The concept decision-making process is therefore construed to mean not only the decision but also the acts necessary to put the decision into operation.¹⁹

Simon concurs with Griffiths when he sums up his thinking in regard to the decision-making process as follows:

A general theory of administration must include principles of organization that will insure correct decision-making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective action.²⁰

The decision-making process involves the process of choice as well as the process of action following from that choice. Much of the thinking in decision making has emphasized the acting or doing process to the neglect of the process of choosing²¹. Myers' model is illustrative of this thinking. At each level guidelines or procedures that provide decision-making constraints are developed. Specific personnel are assigned the responsibility for determining these procedures, for enforcing these procedures, and for delegating decision-making responsibility²². Myers admits to the action emphasis

19 Ibid., p. 76.

20 H. A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed., New York, The Free Press, 1957, p. 1.

21 Ibid.

22 D. Myers, Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, Dayton, Ohio, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970, p. 33-45.

in his model when he states that the "proposed decision-making framework does not purport to provide guidelines for making all decisions [...]." ²³. The purpose of the framework is to clarify the decision-making roles of boards of education, institutional committees, teachers, and administrators, in curriculum and instruction ²⁴. The emphasis in Myers' model is on the action process in decision making.

The process of choosing is the dimension of decision making that has not been investigated in the context of these curriculum models. The actors, their roles and the relationship among these roles is evident in the model proposed by Myers. The teacher at the instructional level develops objectives derived from institutional purposes and then determines appropriate organizing centers to meet the selected objectives. All of this is done within the context of the procedures and criteria. A knowledge of the factors involved in making these choices would contribute to an understanding of the decision-making process.

In this section three classifications of curriculum models have been presented and illustrated. The first classification identified the areas of teacher decision-making. The second classification, exemplified by the Goodlad-Richter

23 Ibid., p. 34.

24 Ibid., p. 14, 34.

system, added the levels of decision making revealing the relationships among the levels. The third classification, exemplified by Myers' model, added the action component of the decision-making process. In the next section the choice component of the decision-making process will be considered.

2. Individual Decision Making.

An investigation of the choice component in decision making necessitates an examination of the literature related to the process of decision making from the point of view of the individual, in this case the teacher, who is involved in making the decision. This section views decision making from the perspective of the individual and will include a discussion of the concept of rationality and the means whereby individuals compromise in the choice process.

Rationality is a term introduced by Simon²⁵. He states that a decision is rational when the best alternative for reaching a goal is selected²⁶. Thus "the task of rational decision is to select that one of the strategies which is followed by the preferred set of consequences"²⁷.

25 Simon, Op. Cit., p. 61.

26 Ibid., p. 75.

27 Ibid., p. 67.

Two areas of choice are involved: the selection of strategies and the selection of goals. The teacher in the classroom during the preactive phase is faced with these tasks of selection. The set of consequences or objectives are selected as part of the planning process and strategies or organizing centers are selected to meet the stated objectives²⁸.

From the point of view of the teacher rationality can be qualified in several ways²⁹. A decision is considered objectively rational if it results in behavior that maximizes predetermined goals. It is subjectively rational if the goals are maximized as far as the individual's knowledge will permit. It is consciously rational to the extent that the decision-making process is a purposive or conscious effort on the part of the individual. It is deliberately rational when there is a deliberate attempt to adjust means to ends. It is personally rational when it reflects the goals of the individual.

A teacher who takes time to find the best means to accomplish predetermined goals for learning makes decisions which could be considered consciously, deliberately, and personally rational. When the teacher brings personal expertise to bear on the decisions to be made the resulting

28 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 32.

29 Simon, Op. Cit., p. 76.

decision could be considered subjectively rational. When teachers in the preactive phase of teaching become concerned with the best means to accomplish predetermined ends their decisions can be considered rational to some extent. The highest degree of rationality is the ideal in decision making and this level has been labelled objective rationality³⁰. A decision is objectively rational only when it results in behavior that maximizes predetermined goals³¹.

Inherent in this process of objectively rational decision making is the ability of the individual to determine all of the possible strategies, all of the possible outcomes resulting from each strategy, and the comparative value of each of the outcomes. Thus actual behavior falls short of objective rationality in these three ways according to Simon:

1. Rationality requires a complete knowledge and anticipation of the consequences that will follow on each choice. In fact, knowledge of consequence is always fragmentary.

2. Since these consequences lie in the future, imagination must supply the lack of experienced feeling in attaching value to them. But values can be only imperfectly anticipated.

3. Rationality requires a choice among all possible alternative behaviors. In actual behavior, only a very few of all these possible alternatives ever come to mind.³²

30 Ibid.

31 Ibid.

32 Ibid., p. 81.

An individual is unable to compute the consequences of the alternatives. Simon states that "there is a complete lack of evidence that, in actual human choice situations of any complexity, these computations can be, or are in fact, performed"³³. The computations referred to are those that would be necessary in the model of economic man weighing the consequences of each alternative — all alternatives being known — before making a choice.

What does man do when faced with alternatives from which a selection must be made? In Simon's view,

[...] the key to the simplification of the choice process [...] is the replacement of the goal of maximizing with the goal of satisficing, of finding a course of action that is 'good enough'.³⁴

The concept of satisficing predicts that an individual continues to search for alternatives until he finds one which meets all of his minimum standards. Finding such an alternative, he is not expected to search further in the effort to maximize his choice.

These minimum standards are the criteria by which the selection of an alternative is made. Teachers search for alternative organizing centers during the preactive phase of teaching. The criteria by which teachers assess their choice

³³ H. Simon, Models of Man, New York, Wiley, 1957, p. 246.

³⁴ Ibid., p. 204.

of organizing center have been referred to in the literature by Tyler³⁵, Herrick³⁶, and Goodlad³⁷.

Factors influencing general teacher planning decisions have been the subject of several studies but none of these studies has translated these areas of general influence into specific assessment criteria for selecting organizing centers for student learning³⁸. Resources, learner characteristics,

35 R. Tyler, "New Dimensions in Curriculum Development", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 48, No. 1, September 1966, p. 27.

36 Herrick, "Organizing Centers", Strategies of Curriculum Development, Op. Cit., p. 109.

37 Goodlad, Op. Cit., p. 205-208, also in J. Goodlad, Learning and the Teacher, Washington, The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1959, p. 39-60.

38 P. H. Taylor, "An Exploratory Study of Teachers' Perceptions of Planning Courses", British Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 40, Part 3, November 1970, p. 253-260, is one such study as well as McClune, Jr. Op. Cit., 170 pages, and the research done by D. Jeffares, A Descriptive Study of Teacher Decisions in Curriculum Development, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Alberta, 1973, 233 p.

and subject matter appear consistently in these studies as sources influencing teacher decision making³⁹.

Tyler's list of criteria applies to the selection of learning experiences. A learning experience refers to "the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react"⁴⁰. Tyler's⁴¹ criteria refer to the learner as well as the environment.

Herrick's and Goodlad's lists of criteria apply to the selection of organizing centers. An organizing center, as defined earlier in this study⁴², refers to the environmental side of Tyler's concept of learning experience. Goodlad and Richter, incorporating the thinking of Herrick and the earlier

39 Taylor found that British secondary school teachers wanted to know the materials and resources to use, the subject matter to be taught, the interests of the pupils and the aims of the program before making planning decisions. McClune found that elementary school teachers made constant reference to the learner, institutional policies, and materials and resources, when planning. Jeffares rank-ordered the categories of influence on grades four, five and six teachers in the province of Alberta as follows: 1) instructional resources; 2) curriculum elements; 3) learner characteristics; 4) teacher characteristics; 5) instructional procedures; 6) evaluation.

40 Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Op. Cit., p. 41.

41 Tyler, "New Dimensions in Curriculum Development", Op. Cit., p. 27.

42 Supra, p. xviii and p. 8.

work of Goodlad⁴³, propose that a good organizing center for learning:

1. Provides student practice in the behavior sought.
2. Provides student practice in the behavior sought within the substantive realm to which institutional commitment has been made.
3. Is economical of time (e.g., in that it contributes to the simultaneous attainment of several instructional objectives in little more than the time normally employed for attainment of one).
4. Is economical of human and material resources.
5. Encompasses ability floors and ceilings of the group.
6. Builds on what has gone before and prepares for what is to come.
7. Buttresses organizing centers designed for the development of other organizing elements.
8. Has educational significance in its own right.
9. Is comprehensive in that it includes several catch-hold points for differing student abilities and interests.
10. Has capacity for movement — intellectual, geographic, chronological, or other.⁴⁴

The application of these criteria to the selection of organizing centers for learning would result in the attainment

⁴³ Goodlad, School, Curriculum, and the Individual, Op. Cit., p. 205-208.

⁴⁴ Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 58.

of objective rationality in teacher preactive decision making. Objective rationality is the ideal and thus it can be assumed that teachers satisfice in their selection of organizing centers. Therefore the application of these criteria in the selection of organizing centers is limited. The concept of satisficing is the means whereby individuals compromise in the decision-making process.

In this section the process of decision making from the point of view of the individual has been explored. Simon refers to the importance of the individual when he states that:

In the study of organization, the operative employee must be the focus of attention, for the success of the structure will be judged by his performance within it.⁴⁵

Several conclusions can be drawn from this study of decision making viewed from the perspective of the individual. The goal for individual decision making is rationality requiring the selection of "that one of the strategies which is followed by the preferred set of consequences"⁴⁶. Objective rationality adds the dimension of maximizing given values in a given situation⁴⁷. An individual satisfices rather than maximizes thereby applying a minimum standard or number of criteria to each decision that must be made.

45 Simon, Administrative Behavior, Op. Cit., p. 3.

46 Ibid., p. 67.

47 Ibid., p. 76.

The context of individual decision making is the organization. The next section will examine the relationship between the individual and the organization in the decision-making process.

3. Organizational Decision Making.

This section will attempt to analyze the thinking of theorists in regard to the organizational influences on the decision making of the individual. Simon states that:

Insight into the structure and function of an organization can best be gained by analyzing the manner in which decisions and behavior of [...] employees are influenced within and by the organization.⁴⁸

This section will therefore include a discussion of the decision-making process when viewed from the perspective of the organization followed by a discussion of the decision-making process when viewed from the perspective of the individual within the organization.

Parsons⁴⁹ introduces the idea of levels within the structure of the organization. He refers to these levels as the technical, the managerial, and the institutional. This

⁴⁸ Ibid., p. 3.

⁴⁹ A. T. Parsons, "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organization", in A. Halpin, ed., Administrative Theory in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Collier-Macmillan Canada, Limited, 1958. p. 41.

classification was determined on the basis of the function of the various levels within the organization⁵⁰.

The function of the technical level is the actual production of goods or provision of services⁵¹. This level refers to the actual processes of teaching within the context of educational organization and can be equated with the instructional level proposed by Goodlad and Richter⁵² as well as Myers⁵³.

The managerial level has the responsibility for mediating between the technical level and those who use its products or services as well as for procuring the resources necessary for carrying out the technical functions⁵⁴. This level can be equated with the institutional level proposed by Goodlad and Richter⁵⁵ as well as Myers⁵⁶.

The function of the institutional level is to provide societal legitimation and control⁵⁷. This level proposed by

50 Ibid., p. 41-45.

51 Ibid., p. 41.

52 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p.68.

53 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 12.

54 Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 43.

55 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 68.

56 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 12.

57 Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 44.

Parsons can be equated with the school board function at the societal level in the other two models. The principal of a school performs the tasks of mediator and administrator at the managerial level in the model proposed by Parsons⁵⁸, as co-ordinator at the institutional level in the model proposed by Goodlad and Richter⁵⁹, and as mediator between the instructional and institutional levels in the model proposed by Myers⁶⁰. Thus the structure of the organization imposes responsibilities which can be viewed as constraints on decision making.

Blau and Scott state that the function "of the organization is to limit the scope of the decisions that each member must make"⁶¹. Griffiths contends that "one of the chief causes of confusion in the network of human relationships in an organization is the lack of clear policy"⁶². Effective policy, according to Griffiths, would indicate "who is to make a decision, what the decision is to be concerned with, and some information as to how the decision is to be made"⁶³. These

58 Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 43.

59 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 68.

60 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 35.

61 P. Blau, R. Scott, Formal Organizations, San Francisco, California, Chandler Publishing Company, 1962, p. 36, 37.

62 D. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, New York, New York, Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1959, p. 109.

63 Ibid.

theorists agree that organizational constraints on decision making are a function of organizational responsibility.

These constraints should not be viewed in a restrictive sense. Actual practice is rarely restrictive according to Parsons⁶⁴ who claims that at the point of articulation between organizational levels there is a qualitative break in the straightforward continuity of line authority. In effect, people do not tell people at the next level down what to do. At each level people are expected to exercise competence and accept responsibility which is not simply delegated from above. The functions at each level differ and are not "'lower-order' spellings-out of the 'top' level functions"⁶⁵.

Classroom teachers function at the instructional or technical level and have a responsibility to make decisions related to their particular group of students. These decisions must conform with the overall organizational goals and be consistent with general policy decisions made at higher structural levels⁶⁶. Thus teacher decision making requires a degree of competence on the part of the teacher as well as a willingness to accept responsibility for the decision-making task. These two characteristics, competence and responsibility,

64 Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 46.

65 Ibid.

66 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 32.

are the distinguishing marks of the person at the technical level who has reached "the full professional level of competence"⁶⁷ according to Parsons.

The organization by its structure and policy imposes constraints on the decision making of the individuals within it. These constraints are rarely restrictive but rather serve as guidelines for effective decision making. Individuals are expected to exercise competence and responsibility within the framework established by the structure and the policy of the organization.

Decision making can be viewed from the perspective of the individual within the organization as well as from the perspective of the organization itself. Rationality of decisions — that is, their appropriateness for the attainment of specified goals — is the aim of all decision making. The organization is committed to organizational rationality — that is, decisions that are oriented to the goals of the organization⁶⁸. Individuals are committed to personal rationality — that is, decisions that are oriented to the goals of the individual⁶⁹. The individual and the organization strive for

⁶⁷ Parsons, Op. Cit., p. 46.

⁶⁸ Simon, Administrative Behavior, Op. Cit., p. 76, 77.

⁶⁹ Ibid., p. 76.

objective rationality, — that is, "the correct behavior for maximizing given values in a given situation"⁷⁰. To achieve objective rationality congruency must exist between individual and organizational goals.

Rationality does not determine individual behavior. The individual has flexibility in terms of decision making within the framework of rationality. Congruency between individual and organizational goals could exist without the individual having either the ability to accomplish the goal or the necessary facts related to the accomplishment of the goal. Thus the individual within the organization can achieve objective rationality

[...] only to the extent that he is able to pursue a particular course of action; he has a correct conception of the goal of the action, and he is correctly informed about the conditions surrounding his action.⁷¹

Simon⁷² refers to these conditions as limits to objective rationality. Thus objective rationality can be approached to the extent that these limits are removed.

Two persons, given the same skills, the same objectives and values, the same knowledge and information, can rationally decide only upon the same course of action.⁷³

70 Ibid.

71 Ibid., p. 241.

72 Ibid.

73 Ibid., p. 39.

These ideal conditions for the achievement of objective rationality are beyond the realization of any organization. If, however, objective rationality can be approached to the extent that limits are removed then the organization must be concerned with the factors that determine the individual organization member's skills, values, and knowledge. An alteration of these personal inputs to the decision-making process should directly affect the degree of objective rationality within the organization.

In the curriculum planning model proposed by Myers⁷⁴ these individual inputs are assumed. No mention is made of the skill required by the teacher in making planning decisions. The teacher's knowledge of institutional purposes, criteria, and procedures is assumed. No other areas of required knowledge for planning are presented. The goals or aims of education are refined in the institutional purposes and the teacher's task is to develop consistent objectives. No reference is made to the possibility of inconsistency between the goals of the teacher and the goals of the organization. A complete model would include individual and organizational decision making as well as an analysis of the relationship between the individual and the organization in the decision-making process.

⁷⁴ Myers, Op. Cit., p. 35.

In this section the organizational influences such as structure, function, and policy were seen to affect the decision making of individuals within the organization. The individual has personal input into the achievement of organizational goals. This personal input was seen to be in terms of knowledge, values, and skills. A complete description of decision making should include two perspectives of the process; namely, that of the organization and that of the individual within the organization.

4. Statement of the Problem.

This chapter presented a review of the pertinent literature on curriculum decision making, individual decision making, and organizational decision making.

The literature on curriculum decision making suggested the need for an extension to the model proposed by Myers. This extension would include the choice dimension as well as the action dimension of the decision-making process in curriculum.

The literature on individual decision making revealed that the ideal of rationality is never attained and thus the individual satisfices rather than maximizes in the decision-making process. Alternatives, goals, and criteria were seen to be significant components of a decision-making conceptualization.

The literature related to decision making within the organization revealed that the organization sets limits on decision making by its goals, structure, and policy. The individual within the organization is limited further by personal skills, knowledge, and values which are inconsistent with those of the organization. Skills, knowledge, and values were viewed as the personal input of the decision-making process.

Contemporary research on teacher preactive decision making is relatively sparse. In the curriculum studies reported, and the models presented, little attention has been given to the choice component of the decision-making process. In all the curriculum studies examined, teacher decision making is viewed as a plan for action.

The basic assumption of this study is that a complete conceptualization of teacher preactive decision making would include all dimensions of the decision-making process. Hence the primary purpose of this study is to develop a theoretically-based paradigm for the study of teacher preactive decision making extending the model proposed by Myers.

The secondary purpose of this study is to determine the degree of congruency between the literature and practice in the province of Ontario by determining the number and kind of criteria that teachers use when assessing organizing centers for student learning. This study relates to one dimension of

the paradigm; namely, the assessment dimension. This dimension of the paradigm was selected for further investigation in an attempt to determine its applicability to teachers in the province of Ontario. Assessment criteria appear consistently in the literature as reviewed on pages seventy-four to seventy-eight. Goodlad claims that, "Organizing centers are productive or nonproductive to the extent that they satisfy certain specific criteria"⁷⁵. Selected criteria were applied in the development of organizing centers in a study conducted in California⁷⁶. No evidence, however, can be found to support the Goodlad-Richter list of criteria for the assessment of organizing centers. Myers points up the need for the proposed congruency check.

An effort has been made to develop criteria for selecting organizing centers. Herrick and Goodlad have begun such an effort, but little work has been done beyond this point even though it would be of immediate use to teachers.⁷⁷

The paradigm extending the model proposed by Myers is developed in the following chapter.

⁷⁵ Goodlad, School, Curriculum, and the Individual, Op. Cit., p. 205.

⁷⁶ Goodlad, "The Organizing Center in Curriculum Theory and Practice", Theory Into Practice, Vol. 1, No. 4, October, 1962, p. 215-221.

⁷⁷ Myers, Op. Cit., p. 30.

CHAPTER II

PRESENTATION OF THE PARADIGM

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section presents the input of the teacher to the pre-active decision-making process and represents the major contribution of this study to the model proposed by Myers. The input section is supported by research studies as well as selected writers in the fields of curriculum and decision making. Three major areas of input are outlined providing the three subsections, skills, goals, and knowledge, each of which is considered in detail.

Section two examines the actual choices that teachers make during the preactive phase of teaching. The criteria by which these choices are assessed are presented in section three. Sections two and three find basic support in the work of Herrick and Goodlad, incorporating the related components of the Myers' model. The diagrammatic representations of these three sections provide the elements for the development of the paradigm proposed in this study for the investigation of teacher preactive decision making.

1. The Input.

Input may be defined as those perspectives brought to the task of decision making by the individuals involved. These

perspectives constitute the personal dimension which is assumed to be congruent with organizational demands in the model proposed by Myers¹. If objective rationality, however, is the goal of the organization then personal and organizational perspectives must be allied as closely as possible. Thus personal as well as organizational perspectives become a critical area of study.

In this section three dimensions of personal input will be presented. These dimensions are found in the work of Simon² when he suggests that objective rationality can be approached to the extent that certain personal limits are removed. These limits are lack of ability or skill, inconsistent goals, and limited knowledge. It can be inferred then that personal input to the decision-making process is in terms of individual skills, goals, and knowledge. Each of these dimensions will be considered from the perspective of teacher preactive decision making.

A. Skills

Curriculum theorists have contributed to our knowledge of the planning skills necessary for the classroom teacher. Tyler suggests the selection of objectives, the selection and

1 Supra, p. 29.

2 H. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed., New York, The Free Press, 1957, p. 241 and Supra, p. 28.

organization of learning experiences and the determination of evaluation procedures³. Taba⁴ isolates content, learning experiences, evaluation measures, teaching strategies and objectives as key areas of concern for teacher planning. Goodlad and Richter⁵ suggest the selection of educational objectives and organizing centers as the necessary teacher planning activities with evaluation as a constant and on-going process.

McClune⁶ analyzes selected writings of Tyler, Taba, Herrick, and Goodlad, plus fifteen others in the field of curriculum, and he concludes that there are four basic tasks which teachers perform. These are: formulating instructional objectives; selecting and organizing content; selecting and organizing learning experiences; and identifying and providing

3 R. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Chicago, Illinois, University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 1.

4 N. Wallen et al., The Taba Curriculum, Development Project in Social Studies, Palo Alto, California, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969, p. 75.

5 J. Goodlad and M. Richter, Jr., The Development Of A Conceptual System For Dealing With Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, Los Angeles, California, University of California and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1966, p. 65.

6 R. McClune, Jr., The Development of An Analytical Framework and Survey Questionnaire to Identify and Classify the Instructional Planning Activities of Elementary Teachers, unpublished doctoral thesis, Case Western Reserve University, 1970, 170 p.

evaluation procedures. These tasks were further substantiated in McClune's research by the results of a field study⁷.

The selection of objectives and the provision of evaluation procedures are consistently described in the literature as appropriate tasks related to teacher planning. The term organizing center is defined by Goodlad as "the total situation to which the student is called upon to respond"⁸. The organizing center is thus the end product of teacher decisions in regard to content, resources, and methods⁹. The use of the term organizing center combines the teacher tasks of selecting and organizing content and selecting and organizing learning experiences into one component. The three activities in which teachers are engaged during the preactive phase of teaching, then, are the determination of objectives, the determination of organizing centers, and the determination of a means of evaluation. These three activities are presented in Figure 4 and discussed in turn in the following paragraphs.

7 Ibid., p. 120.

8 J. Goodlad, "The Organizing Center in Curriculum Theory and Practice", Theory into Practice, Vol. 1, No. 4, October 1962, p. 215.

9 Ibid.

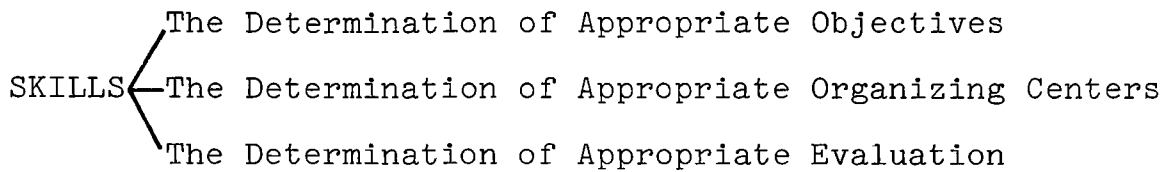


FIGURE 4

The word appropriate is significant in Figure 4. Appropriate determination implies that skill is required by the person involved in the determination.

a) Objectives. — Appropriate objectives are those developed from institutional purposes, consistent with learner needs and interests, combining both behavioral and substantive elements¹⁰. The first two criteria refer to the source for the determination of objectives and the third criterion refers to the construction of the objectives. The criteria for the determination of appropriate objectives are presented in Figure 5. Each of these will be considered in turn.

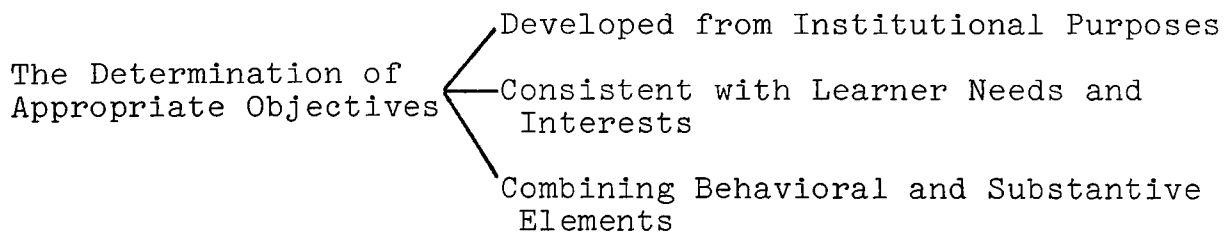


FIGURE 5

¹⁰ Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 4-11, 28-40; also in Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 52-58.

The concept of the derivation of objectives is found in the models proposed by Goodlad-Richter and Myers¹¹. In these models specific decisions are assigned to each hierarchical level in education, but the decisions made at each level are derived from those decisions made at a higher level. Thus objectives determined at the instructional level are further refinements of institutional objectives or purposes which in turn are derived from societal aims.

Tyler¹² suggests that the three sources for the development of objectives should be the learners, subject specialists, and society. Goodlad-Richter¹³ and Myers¹⁴ refer to these referents as data-sources which provide input to decision-making at all levels. It would seem, however, that society and subject specialists would have greater impact for decision making at the institutional or societal level than at the instructional level. An awareness of the expectations of society and subject specialists is required on the part of the teacher but if teacher objectives are derived from institutional purposes the concerns of society and subject specialists to a large extent should be met.

11 Supra, p. 6, 7, 10.

12 Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 4-21.

13 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 63, 64.

14 D. Myers, Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, Dayton, Ohio, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970, p. 35.

The proximity of the teacher to the learner provides a unique opportunity for the teacher at the instructional level to gain insight into learner needs and interests. These sources of information have increased significance in the determination of objectives for the classroom teacher and thus constitute a separate category in the paradigm.

The third category relative to the determination of appropriate objectives is concerned with the actual construction of the objectives. Objectives refined for classroom use are frequently named behavioral. The term behavioral refers to those objectives containing both behavioral and substantive elements. Tyler states that:

The most useful form for stating objectives is to express them in terms which identify both the kind of behavior to be developed in the student and the content or area of life in which this behavior is to operate.¹⁵

Tyler¹⁶ criticizes objectives which are stated in the form of generalized patterns of behavior which fail to indicate more specifically the area of life or the content to which the behavior applies. He considers it unlikely that efforts to aim at such highly generalized objectives would be successful.

Opinions in regard to the appropriate degree of precision in stating behavioral objectives have covered a

15 Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 30.

16 Ibid., p. 28-30.

wide spectrum. Some writers, like Macdonald-Wolfson¹⁷ and Eisner¹⁸ see behavioral objectives as inadequate and restrictive. Others, like Popham¹⁹ and Clark²⁰, offer a persuasive argument for behavioral objectives expressed as precisely as circumstances permit. Still others²¹, following a clear appraisal of both the benefits and the deficiencies of behaviorally stated objectives, encourage their use as the most meaningful method available.

This subsection has shown that the teacher in the classroom has the task of developing objectives which are in line with institutional purposes, consistent with diagnosed learner needs and interests, and which combine behavioral and

17 J. Macdonald and B. Wolfson, "A Case Against Behavioral Objectives", The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 71, No. 3, December 1970, p. 119-128.

18 E. Eisner, "Educational Objectives: Help or Hindrance?", The School Review, Vol. 75, No. 3, Autumn 1967, p. 280 and 253.

19 J. Popham, "Objectives and Instruction", in J. Popham, E. Eisner, H. Sullivan and L. Tyler, Instructional Objectives, Chicago, Illinois, Rand McNally, 1969, p. 32-64.

20 C. Clark, Using Instructional Objectives in Teaching, Chicago, Illinois, Scott Foresman and Company, 1972, 167 p.

21 R. Ojemann, "Should Educational Objectives be Stated in Behavioral Terms?", Part II, The Elementary School Journal, Vol. 68, No. 5, February 1968, p. 234; N. Gronlund, Stating Behavioral Objectives For Classroom Instruction, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1970, 58 p.

substantive elements at a meaningful level of specificity. This task requires skill.

b) Organizing Centers. — For an organizing center to be considered appropriate certain criteria must be met. These criteria, outlined earlier in this study²², proposed by Goodlad and Richter, incorporate the thinking of Herrick and Tyler. These criteria may be classified as suggested by Figure 6.

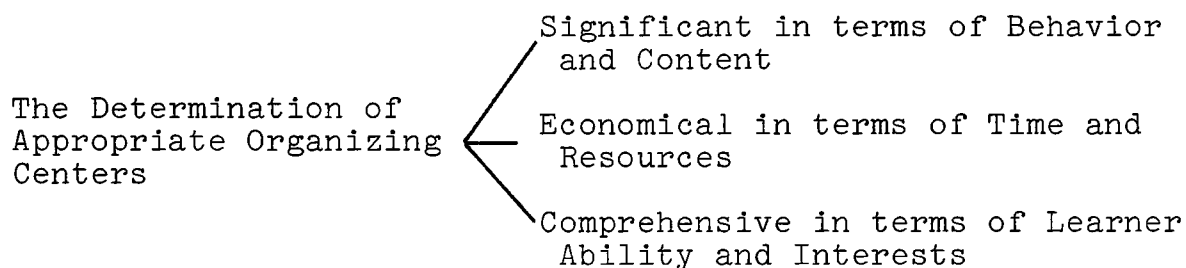


FIGURE 6

An organizing center is considered behaviorally significant if it provides the student practice in the behavior specified by the objectives. Content significance refers to the worth of the material itself in relation to educational principles as well as prescribed course outlines.

An organizing center is economical in terms of time if the time expended by the students and teachers while involved in the activity can be justified in terms of society's

22 Supra, p. 21; Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 30.

expectations and educational demands. A film may well be substituted for a field trip, for example, unless the field trip accomplishes significantly more objectives than attained by the use of the film. Economy of resources can be defined as making the best use of materials as well as personnel within the educational community.

An organizing center is comprehensive in terms of student ability and interest if it provides a learning stimulus for all ability levels and interests found within the classroom. Comprehensiveness includes both a vertical and a horizontal dimension. Vertical comprehensiveness refers to the sequencing of organizing centers — building on what has gone before as well as providing a foundation for that which is to come. Horizontal comprehensiveness refers to the relationship among the organizing centers set up for student learning at any given point in time.

This subsection has shown that the teacher in the classroom has the task of determining organizing centers which are significant in terms of behavior and content, economical in terms of time and resources, and comprehensive in terms of student ability and interests. This determination of appropriate organizing centers requires skill.

c) Evaluation. — Evaluation is appropriate when it measures what it sets out to measure. It is a process for determining the effectiveness of the organizing center in producing

the results prescribed by the objectives. As such it acts as a check on the validity of the basic hypotheses of the instructional program and checks the effectiveness of the instrumentation²³. Figure 7 presents the determinants of appropriate evaluation.

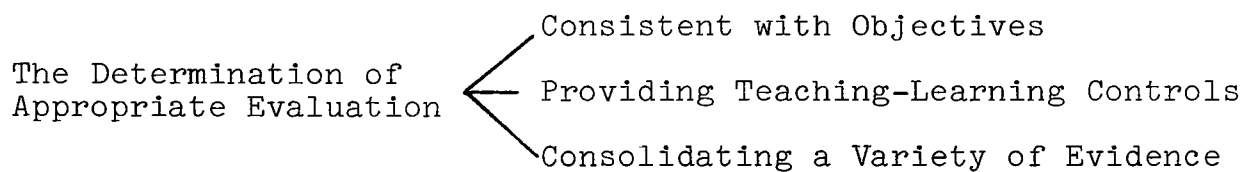


FIGURE 7

Appropriate evaluation is consistent with the objectives established for learning. Without a knowledge of the objectives of an educational program it is impossible to judge its adequacy. All evaluation is made in terms of what is considered important to achieve. If evaluation is appropriate when it measures what it sets out to measure, and if what it sets out to measure is determined by the objectives, then appropriate evaluation demands an acute awareness on the part of the evaluator of the task to be accomplished.

23 Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 68, 69.

Appropriate evaluation provides the means to assess the teaching-learning process. Bloom, Hastings and Madaus²⁴ suggest that evaluation should be concerned not only with the assessment but also with the improvement of teaching and learning. Quality control is effected by determining "at each step in the teaching-learning process whether the process is effective or not, and if not, what changes must be made to ensure its effectiveness before it is too late"²⁵, as well as "ascertaining whether alternative procedures are equally effective or not in achieving a set of educational ends"²⁶. This thinking is consistent with Tyler when he states that evaluation is

[...] a process for finding out how far the learning experiences as developed and organized are actually producing the desired results and the process of evaluation will involve identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the plans.²⁷

Thus the determination of appropriate evaluation implies that the quality of the teaching-learning process is not only assessed but also potentially improved.

24 B. Bloom, T. Hastings, G. Madaus, Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning, New York, McGraw-Hill Inc., 1971, p. 7, 8.

25 Ibid., p. 8.

26 Ibid.

27 Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 68, 69.

A variety of evidence must be sought if evaluation can be deemed appropriate. Variety may be viewed in terms of a multiplicity of ends to be measured or a multiplicity of measuring devices. Both views are significant in this case. The ends to be measured may be the process of developing the program, the practice or implementation of the program, or the pupil's understanding of the program. All three areas require evaluation but a variety of means of acquiring evaluation information is also necessary. Cumulative measures for a variety of assessment areas are required to provide evaluation that is considered appropriate.

This subsection has shown that the teacher in the classroom has the task of determining a variety of means to evaluate the process, the practice, and the pupil. These means must be consistent with the stated objectives providing the potential for quality control in the teaching-learning situation. This task requires skill.

An analysis of the skill dimension of personal input to the preactive decision making of the classroom teacher has revealed three task areas; namely, the determination of appropriate objectives, the determination of appropriate organizing centers, and the determination of appropriate evaluation. Figure 8 is a cumulative representation of this skill dimension of personal input.

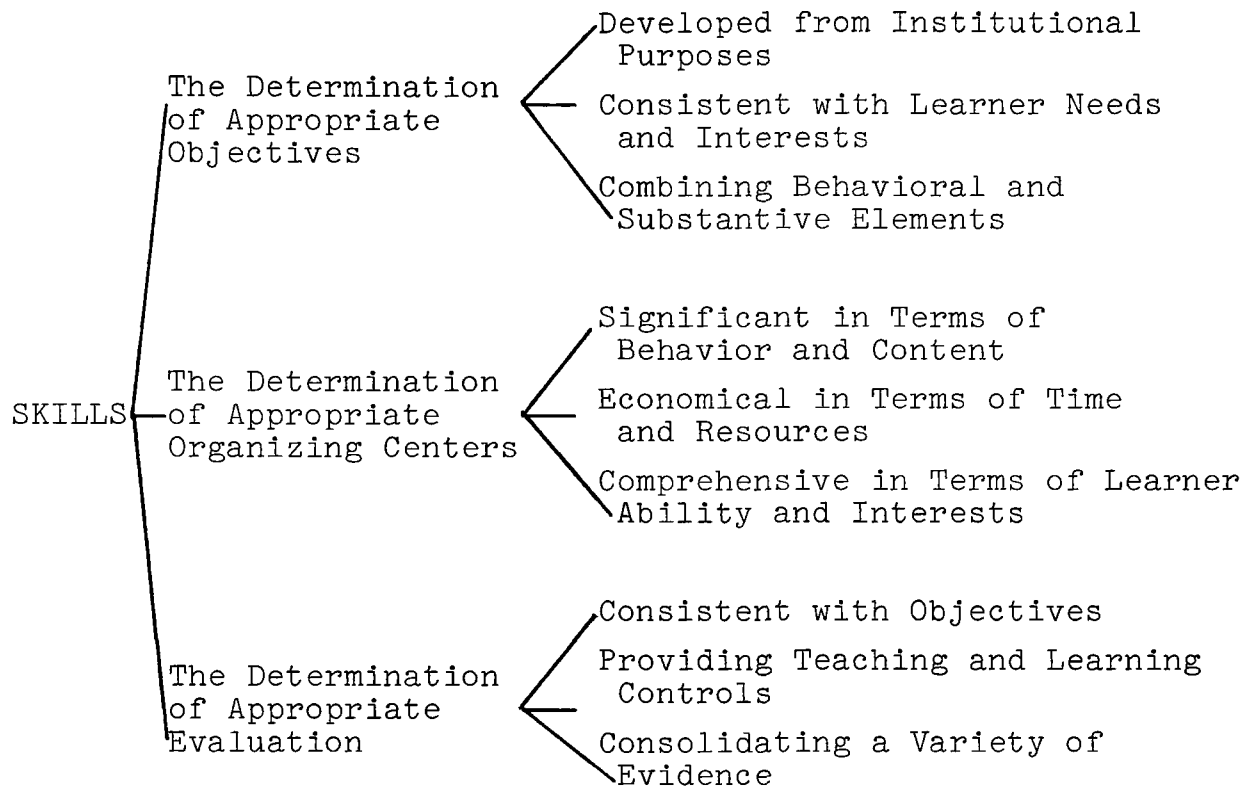


FIGURE 8

There may be no lack of rationality in the preactive decision making of the classroom teacher. The problem may be that his skills in the determination of appropriate objectives, organizing centers, and evaluation are not sufficiently developed to enable him to plan effectively²⁸.

28 Simon, Op. Cit., p. 241.

B. Goals

The second dimension of teacher input is in terms of goals or values. Simon²⁹ refers to this dimension when he suggests that a limit is imposed on rationality by an individual's goals or values that are inconsistent with those of the organization.

According to Myers³⁰, aims or goals are determined at the societal level, translated into purposes at the institutional level, and into objectives at the instructional level. The basic goal dimensions, however, remain constant and provide the framework for the derivation at each subsequent level. It is within this framework therefore that inconsistencies may occur between the goals of teachers and the goals of the organization.

Downey³¹ presents a comprehensive analysis of the tasks of education. He defines task as "an organization's function or mission"³². This function or mission is found within the organization's statement of aims or goals. Thus in his attempt

29 Ibid.

30 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 35.

31 L. Downey, The Task of the Public School as Perceived by Regional Sub-Publics, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Chicago, 1959, 251 p.

32 Ibid., p. 3.

to determine the tasks of education Downey analyzed educational goal statements from the time of Horace Mann to the time of his research project in 1959. When redundancy was eliminated, the resulting synthesis was ordered into the following comprehensive statement of the basic tasks of education delineated in Figure 9^{32a}.

32a L. Downey, The Task of Public Education, Chicago, Illinois, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960, p. 24.

A. Intellectual Dimensions

1. POSSESSION OF KNOWLEDGE: A fund of information.
Concepts.
2. COMMUNICATION OF KNOWLEDGE: Skill to acquire and transmit.
3. CREATION OF KNOWLEDGE: Discrimination and imagination,
a habit.
4. DESIRE FOR KNOWLEDGE: A love for learning.

B. Social Dimensions

5. MAN TO MAN: Cooperation in day-to-day relations.
6. MAN TO STATE: Civic rights and duties.
7. MAN TO COUNTRY: Loyalty to one's own country.
8. MAN TO WORLD: Inter-relationships of peoples.

C. Personal Dimensions

9. PHYSICAL: Bodily health and development.
10. EMOTIONAL: Mental health and stability.
11. ETHICAL: Moral integrity.
12. AESTHETIC: Cultural and leisure pursuits.

D. Productive Dimensions

13. VOCATION-SELECTIVE: Information and guidance.
14. VOCATION-PREPARATIVE: Training and placement.
15. HOME AND FAMILY: Housekeeping, do-it-yourself, family.
16. CONSUMER: Personal buying, selling and
investment.

FIGURE 9

DIMENSIONS OF THE TASK OF PUBLIC EDUCATION:
A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK - by L. DOWNEY

A review of the current educational goal statement for the province of Ontario³³ leads to the conclusion that this goal statement is more redundant than original when compared with the work of Downey. Therefore each of the goal categories proposed for the paradigm in this paper represents a change from Downey's framework in form rather than substance. In this paradigm Downey's four categories are reorganized into three: the development of the child; the place of knowledge; and the application of learning. Figure 10 outlines these categories, each of which will be examined in detail.

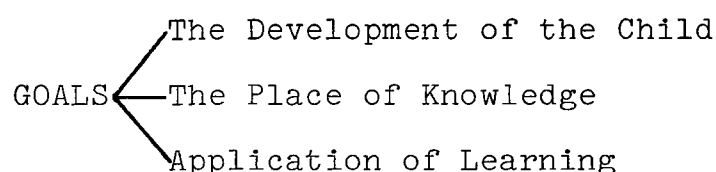


FIGURE 10

a) The Development of the Child. — The role of education in the development of the child is of concern to those responsible for determining educational aims and objectives. The development of the child can be viewed from three perspectives: his relationship to others; his relationship to himself; his relationship to his environment. These

³³ Ministry of Education, "Goals of Education: Providing an Equal Opportunity For All", feature in New Dimensions, Toronto, Ontario Ministry of Education, Vol. 7, No. 7, May-June 1973, p. 5.

relationships are presented in Figure 11 and discussed on the following pages.

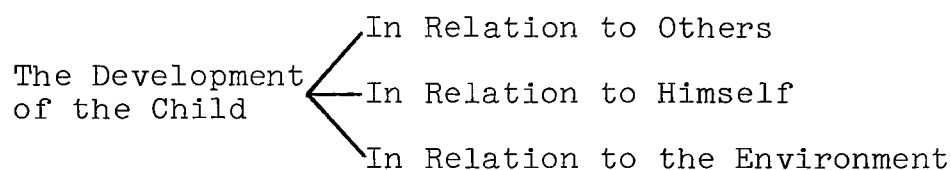


FIGURE 11

The child's relationship to others is referred to in Downey's work as the social dimension (Figure 9, Item B). In essence this category deals with the relationships that develop within the context of the child's expanding social experience. The child's social experience begins in his home, then in the school, the neighbourhood, the community, the country, and the world. In each of these contexts man's relationship to man is significant. Expressions of goals espousing this dimension are found in statements such as the following:

Education must prepare the individual for life in our society. Thus students should be encouraged to gain insight into the functioning of society as well as of the individual's role within it. This insight is developed not through passive learning, but through interaction with others.

Education should encourage individuals to develop an appreciation of the ethics of their society and the conduct prescribed by such ethics.

Education must assist individuals to gain an understanding [...] of persons belonging to social and cultural groups different from their own.³⁴

One of the dimensions of the task of education is to make provision for the personal development of the child. This development can be viewed in the context of the physical, emotional, ethical and aesthetic domains. These categories are found in Item B in Downey's conceptual framework. Statements of aims relating to personal growth are exemplified by the following:

³⁴ Ibid.

Education must make a major contribution to the intellectual, social, emotional, physical, moral, and cultural development of each individual.

Each individual must be encouraged to develop such attributes as intellectual curiosity, awareness, sensitivity, perseverance and a desire for excellence.

Education must respond to each individual's need to develop a positive sense of self, including a desire for competence, and continuing self-development and self-evaluation. The development of this sense of self-worth will enhance the individual's ability to understand and examine his own interests, abilities, and goals and to reassess them in the light of the need to adapt to an ever-changing environment.³⁵

The development of the child in relation to his environment also refers to the aesthetic dimension in Downey's framework. This dimension of the task of education focuses on the world in which the child lives. The current concern for ecological protection places a new emphasis on the development of the child in this regard. The aesthetic thrust is in reference to the child's love of beauty in his surroundings as well as in art, music, and the lives of others.

A goal statement expressing concern for the development of the child in relation to his environment is illustrated by the following:

35 Ibid.

Each individual should be given an opportunity to develop an appreciation of his cultural heritage, of the environment in which he lives, of art, music, and literature, of the place of mathematics and science in the world's daily work, and of the importance of commerce and industry in the life of nations.³⁶

b) The Place of Knowledge. — The second goal category in this paradigm refers to the area of knowledge and its place in education. Education has an explicit responsibility "to lead individuals in the acquisition of knowledge"³⁷. This knowledge category or intellectual dimension can be viewed in terms of the acquisition of facts and concepts, the development of skills, and the development of attitudes. This category is outlined in Figure 12.

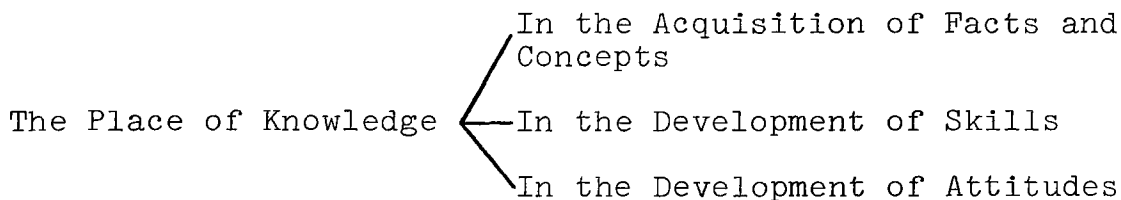


FIGURE 12

The acquisition of facts and concepts is a fundamental aim of education. Downey refers to this purpose as the possession of knowledge (Figure 9, Item A, No. 1). Statements

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.

of aims relating to this goal are exemplified by the following:

Each individual must be encouraged to acquire, to the limit of his individual physical, mental, and emotional capacities, the basic knowledge [...] needed to comprehend and express ideas through words, numbers, and other symbols.³⁸

The development of learning skills is an essential base for the acquisition of new information. The development of communication skills is essential for the communication of information. The creation of new knowledge is dependent upon the skills of discrimination and imagination. Each of these skills is found in Downey's framework, Item A, No. 2 and 3.

The relationship between the development of skills and the development of attitudes is found in the following educational aim:

Each individual should develop skills in the processes of inquiry, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Students who acquire such skills will be inspired to continue learning throughout their lives.³⁹

The desire for knowledge is an attitude that can be encouraged within the context of education. This attitude toward life-long learning can be encouraged by the acquisition of skills and also by the provision of a positive learning environment. Education is responsible for providing

38 Ibid.

39 Ibid.

fundamental information, for encouraging the development of basic learning skills, and for providing an environment which encourages a desire for knowledge which results in continuous learning. These areas of concern relate to the intellectual or knowledge dimension of the task of education.

c) The Application of Learning. — The third goal category in this paradigm refers to the practical application of learning. This category sums up the productive dimensions in Downey's framework. The application of learning is viewed in relation to vocational preparation and selection, family living, and consumer needs as shown in Figure 13.

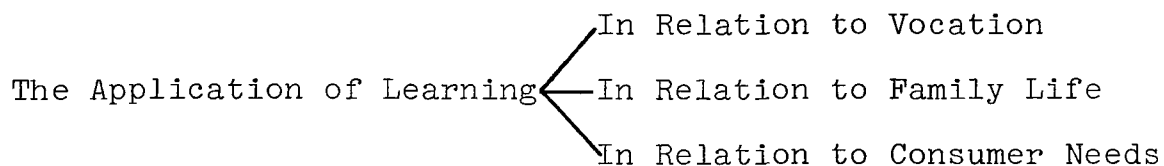


FIGURE 13

One of the responsibilities of education consistently appearing in statements of aims and objectives is to

[...] assist individuals to develop the skills and abilities that will enable them to take advantage of those opportunities that are open to them for a satisfying and productive life.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ Ibid.

One component of that life is vocational. Education has accepted the responsibility of aiding individuals in the selection of a vocation as well as the responsibility of preparing them for the vocation selected.

Family life education is designed to equip individuals to live effectively in the present as well as in the future. Education has accepted responsibility in regard to providing knowledge and developing competencies in individuals that will result in satisfaction in home and family living.

Consumer education relates to the conduct of the economic life of society. Downey's review of the literature revealed a degree of educational commitment to the teaching of economic principles⁴¹.

This section has presented a framework for classifying the goals of education. This framework is conceptualized in Figure 14.

⁴¹ Downey, The Task of the Public School as Perceived by Regional Sub-Publics, Op. Cit., p. 45, 51.

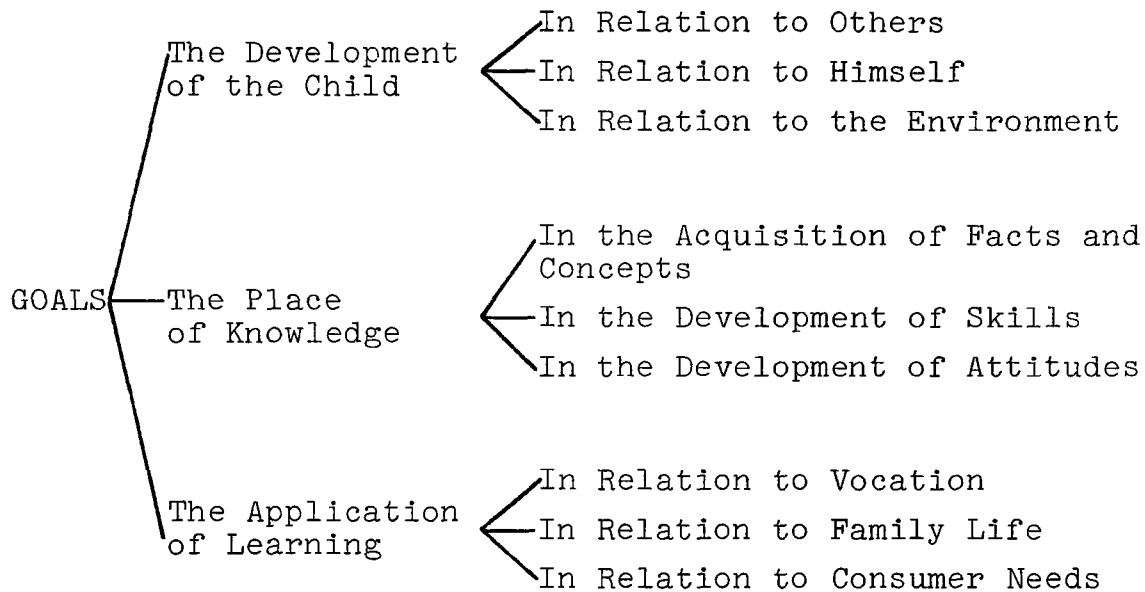


FIGURE 14

It is contended that the translation of these goals into purposes and objectives at the institutional and instructional levels of the educational hierarchy is accomplished within the proposed framework. Thus inconsistency between the classroom teacher's objectives and those of the school, board, or province will be found within the areas suggested. It is also contended that the individual teacher has a value system from which personal assumptions regarding children, knowledge, and the practical application of learning are determined. These assumptions, not often verbalized, provide the basis for all planning decisions. If a teacher plans and acts on assumptions contrary to those of the

organization, then, according to Simon⁴², rational decision making is less likely to occur. Thus the personal goals of the classroom teacher provide significant input to the process of teacher preactive decision making.

There may be no lack of rationality in the preactive decision making of the classroom teacher. The problem may be that the teacher's goals for education are inconsistent with the goals specified at a higher hierarchical level.

C. Knowledge

The third dimension of teacher input relates to the knowledge that an individual possesses of all the factors related to the decision⁴³. For the teacher that knowledge resides in three areas; namely, knowledge of institutional decisions, knowledge of organizing centers, and knowledge of the learners. Each of these categories outlined in Figure 15 will be discussed on the following pages.

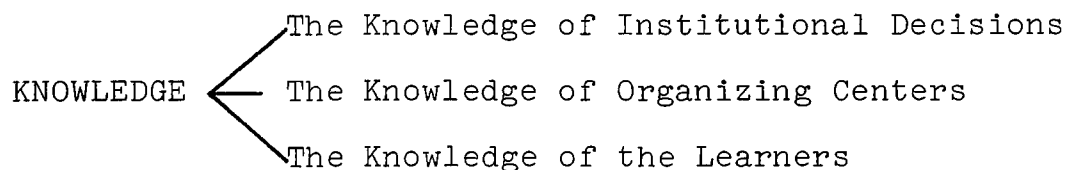


FIGURE 15

⁴² Simon, Op. Cit., p. 241.

⁴³ Ibid.

a) Institutional Decisions. — Institutional decisions provide the framework within which teaching decisions are made. Myers argues that an efficient system, one that has "unity and a sense of harmony or synergy"⁴⁴ requires consistency of decision making from level to level. The teacher at the instructional level is required, therefore, to make decisions consistent with those made at the institutional level. The teacher's knowledge of institutional decisions will be influential in determining the extent to which the classroom operation is consistent with the total educational policy.

Institutional decisions, according to Myers⁴⁵, are the purposes, criteria, and procedures determined at the institutional level. These are shown in Figure 16. A knowledge of these decisions provides the context for teacher decision making.

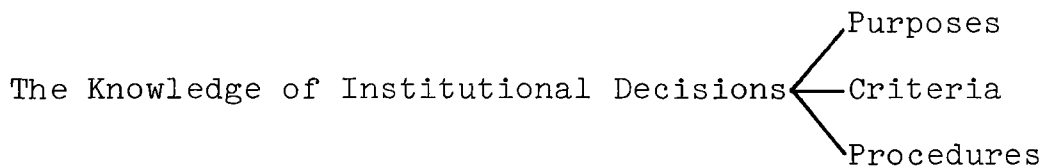


FIGURE 16

⁴⁴ Myers, Op. Cit., p. 20.

⁴⁵ Ibid., p. 32.

A knowledge of institutional purposes is essential in order for a teacher to develop instructional objectives consistent with the goals of education. Institutional purposes are goal statements determined by the school. They are derived from societal aims but are more precise and relate directly to the school involved. At this point teacher knowledge of institutional purposes is emphasized as opposed to teacher skill in the derivation of instructional objectives from institutional purposes. Successful derivation is dependent upon knowledge.

According to Myers⁴⁶, criteria are value statements in regard to programming for a particular school. Criteria are statements concerning the school's position in regard to such matters as streaming, non-grading, or the integration of subject matter.

Procedures relate more directly to the teacher in the sense that they determine the route that the teacher should take in making the decisions. According to Myers⁴⁷, procedures might suggest particular books to be read or meetings to be attended that relate to the task of planning for classroom activity.

⁴⁶ Ibid., p. 24.

⁴⁷ Ibid.

Purposes give direction to planning. Criteria and procedures determine the boundaries for teacher preactive decision making. Knowledge, in regard to these decisions, is essential for rational decision making on the part of the teacher when planning for instruction.

b) Organizing Centers. — The second area of knowledge essential for rational decision making relates to the spectrum of organizing centers that are available to accomplish specific objectives. Organizing centers represent a synthesis of resources, methods, and content⁴⁸. A knowledge of each of these components related to the context of education is required on the part of the classroom teacher as shown in Figure 17.

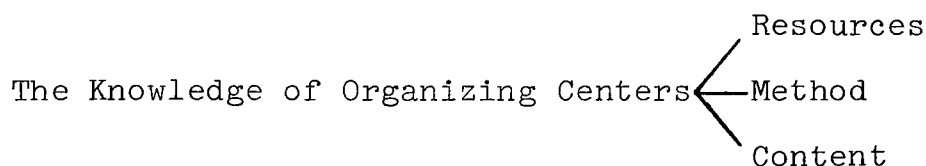


FIGURE 17

J. Goodlad, School, Curriculum, and the Individual, Waltham, Massachusetts, Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966, p. 215.

Resources can be environmental or manufactured. The Bussis-Chittenden Report⁴⁹ states that one of the weakest areas in teacher knowledge is the potential for learning that exists in environmental materials. The writers suggest that:

On an intuitive level, many think that the gathering of rocks and leaves, the care of live animals, or play with sand and water are all worthwhile activities. But it is in justifying such activity, particularly for the upper elementary grades, that teachers are least articulate and vulnerable to attack. It would appear that part of the trouble stems from the fact that many teachers do lack firm knowledge and genuine appreciation of the learning value of these experiences.⁵⁰

Manufactured resources are more readily available to teachers in the form of programs, kits, and textbooks. A knowledge of the potential for learning embodied in these materials is essential to their effective utilization. "All too often, for example, the teacher's only knowledge of something (be it puzzle, logic blocks, or a Language Master) comes from a manual [...]"⁵¹. The teacher "is responsible for understanding in what ways the material lends itself to legitimate educational ends"⁵².

⁴⁹ Anne M. Bussis, and E.A. Chittenden, Analysis of an Approach to Open Education, Interim Report of a study conducted by Educational Testing Service in cooperation with participants in the Follow Through program of Education Development Center, New Jersey, Educational Testing Service, 1970, 82 p.

⁵⁰ Ibid., p. 33.

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 32.

⁵² Ibid., p. 33.

It is not sufficient for teachers to be aware of the materials that are available. As mentioned above, the utilization of these materials for learning is of utmost importance. The range of methods which a teacher possesses and the potential of these methods will determine to some extent the effectiveness of the teacher's decision making.

Knowledge of content or subject matter also provides a key to effective planning. The teacher who possesses depth and breadth in terms of subject matter is more able to make choices that are relevant and legitimate for inclusion in classroom programs.

The combination of resources, method, and content determines the organizing center to be selected by the teacher for an identifiable student or group of students. The teacher's knowledge in regard to each component of the organizing center will determine the effectiveness of the choice in terms of potential for student learning.

c) Learners. — The third knowledge component relates to the learners. McClune⁵³ states that many writers in the field of curriculum suggest that a teacher must be aware of the needs and the interests of the learners in order to plan effectively. Thus Figure 18 views knowledge of learners in terms of needs and interests.

53 McClune, Jr., Op. Cit., p. 59.

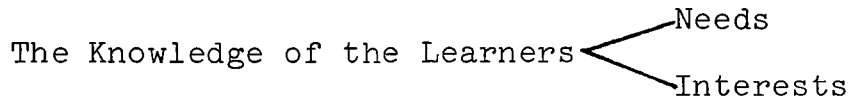


FIGURE 18

Needs can be assessed in terms of the physical dimension, the emotional dimension, the social dimension, and the intellectual dimension of the student. Psychological studies provide the teacher with principles which can be applied generally to meet the needs of students in these areas during each phase of development⁵⁴. The responsibility rests with the teacher to have a knowledge, not only of this general information, but also of facts regarding the particular needs of the particular students for which the planning is being done.

Goodlad⁵⁵ states that schools can provide only opportunities for learning. The student, in the final analysis, is the person who decides whether or not he will learn. The person planning for learning must utilize the interests of the potential learners in order to plan effectively. This procedure necessitates a knowledge of group and individual interest areas on the part of the classroom teacher.

⁵⁴ Tyler, Op. Cit., p. 4-11.

⁵⁵ Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 19.

The knowledge dimension of teacher input encompasses the areas of institutional decisions, organizing centers, and the learners themselves. These three areas are outlined in Figure 19.

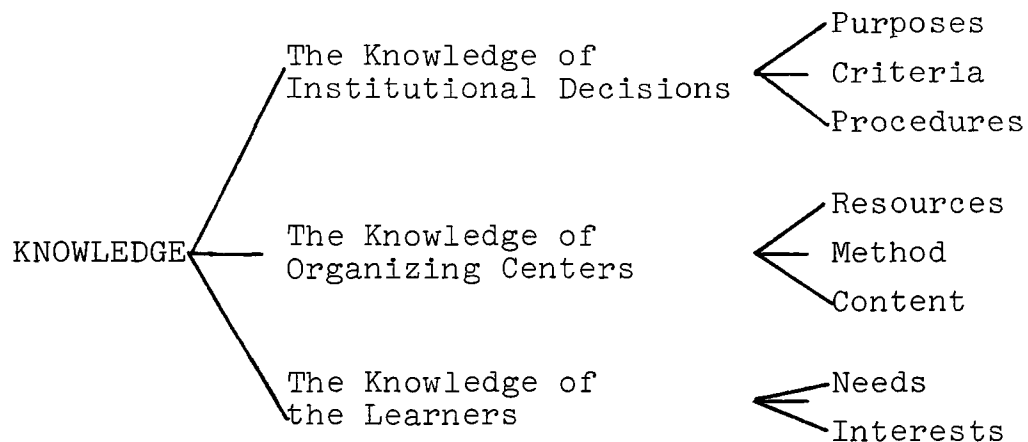


FIGURE 19

There may be no lack of rationality in preactive decision making on the part of the classroom teacher. The problem may be that the teacher's knowledge of the factors related to the decisions is incomplete. It is the contention of this study that incomplete knowledge of institutional decisions, organizing centers, or the learners inhibits rational teacher preactive decision making.

Each teacher brings to the planning session a unique combination of skills, goals, and knowledge. This combination represents teacher input to preactive decision making.

Figure 20 provides a comprehensive analysis of the teacher input presented in this study.

The skills proposed in Figure 20 represent a condensation of the planning tasks outlined by McClune. In his study he analyzes selected writings of Herrick, Tyler, Taba and Goodlad plus fifteen other curriculum writers and proposes four teacher planning tasks. These are condensed to three in this study by employing the term organizing center which encompasses two of the four task components and which is consistent with Myers' model.

The goals proposed in Figure 20 represent a reorganization of the conceptual framework proposed by Downey. The personal and social dimensions of Downey's work are amalgamated into one dimension in this study. This dimension refers to the goals related to the development of the child.

The knowledge dimension proposed in Figure 20 is based on Myers' model which encompasses much of the work of Goodlad and Richter. Myers provides an elaboration of the institutional decisions, utilizes the concept of the organizing center introduced by Herrick and employs the data source of the learner as input to decision making at the instructional level as proposed by Goodlad and Richter. These ideas are introduced in the knowledge component of teacher input to decision making as shown in Figure 20.

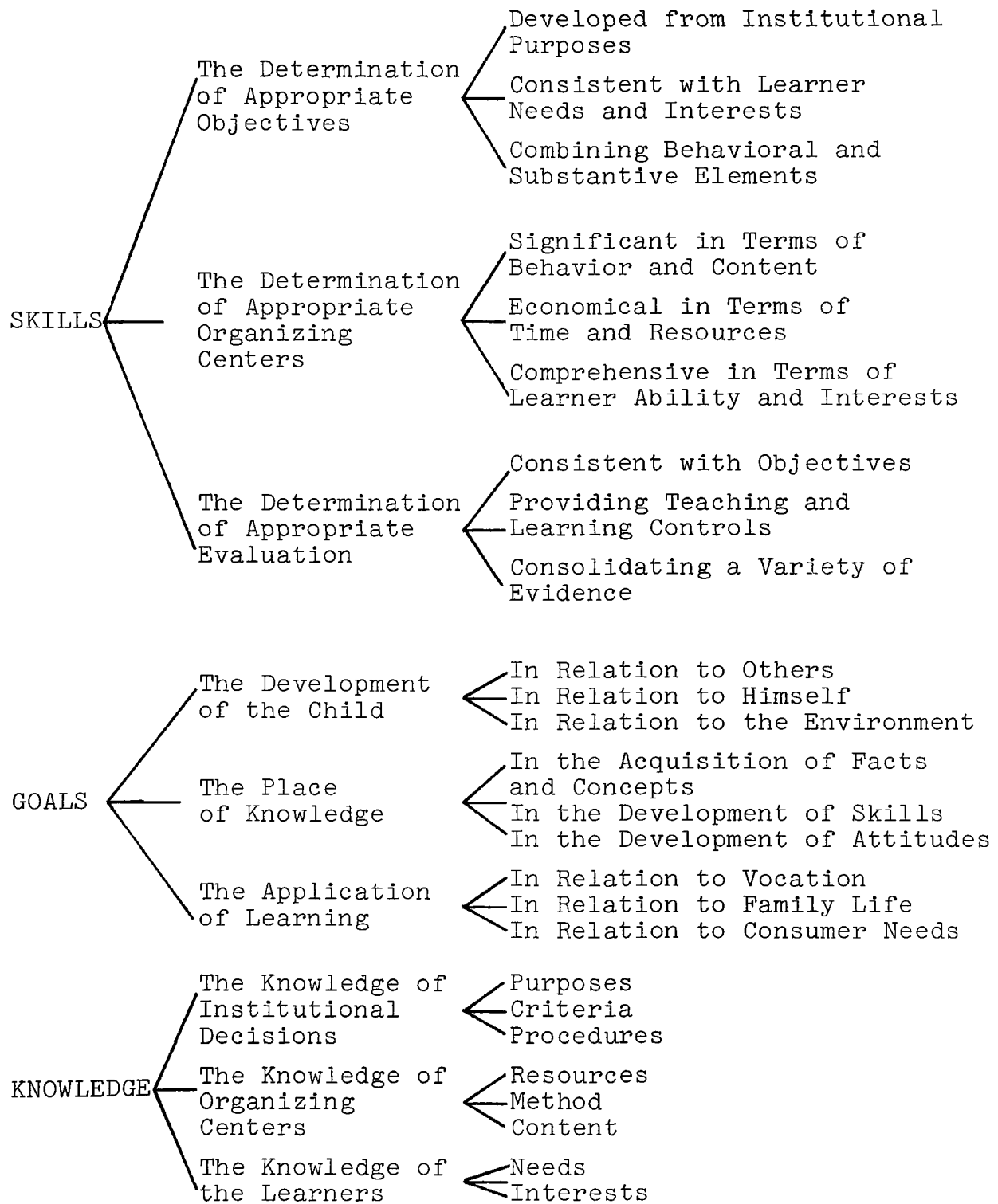


FIGURE 20

TEACHER INPUT TO PREACTIVE DECISION MAKING

This personal input has far-reaching implications in regard to the effectiveness of the choices made by teachers during the preactive phase of teacher activity. This section has outlined in detail the contribution of each of these areas of teacher input to the decision-making process. In the next section the preactive choices made by teachers will be investigated.

2. The Choice.

The choices made by teachers are specified in the model proposed by Myers. He suggests that teachers decide on the objectives for instruction and the organizing center to be used to accomplish the specified objectives⁵⁶. Each of these choices will be discussed briefly.

A. Objectives

According to Myers⁵⁷ teachers use the procedures and criteria that are determined at the institutional level but develop instructional objectives from institutional purposes. The procedures and criteria are the givens which provide the parameters within which teachers make their choices. The

⁵⁶ Myers, Op. Cit., p. 32.

⁵⁷ Ibid., p. 23-25.

development of objectives involves an act of decision or choice.

The instructional objectives are further refinements of institutional purposes and as such are developed from them. In some situations aims are non-existent and the personnel at the institutional level are forced into a situation where they must assume what the community, the teachers, and the students desire. In some situations institutional purposes are non-existent and the teachers at the instructional level must translate broad aims into useful objectives on which a classroom program can be built. The higher level ordering of aims and purposes provides a direct link between Myers' model and the paradigm presented in this study.

B. Organizing Center

The second choice for the teacher involves the determination of an organizing center to meet the particular objectives. Earlier in this study an organizing center was defined as "the total situation to which the student is called upon to respond"⁵⁸ or as "a specific learning opportunity set up for identifiable students or for a student"⁵⁹. An

⁵⁸ Supra, p. xviii; also in Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 8.

⁵⁹ Supra, p. 8; also in Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 8.

organizing center is a focal point for learning. Herrick suggests that these focal points are often "whatever a teacher and a class can get their hands on and their minds around to enrich the quality of classroom living"⁶⁰. The process of identification of organizing centers is thus difficult. Herrick⁶¹ suggests a classification of centers under the headings of ideas, materials, displays, places, and people. These organizing centers represent a starting point - an opportunity "to get a toehold on profitable learning"⁶². The organizing center is a means to an end and should not be looked upon as an end in itself.

The choices made by teachers, then, are in two areas. The first area of choice involves the development of objectives to meet the needs and interests of the specific students involved. These objectives are developed from the institutional purposes. The second area of choice involves the determination of an organizing center to meet the objectives selected. Both of these choices are decisions made during the preactive phase of teacher activity and ideally are the result of rational decision making on the part of the teacher-decision

60 V. Herrick, "Organizing Centers", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 111.

61 Ibid., p. 111, 112.

62 Ibid., p. 112.

making based on appropriate skills, consistent goals, and broad knowledge.

Figure 21 shows the elements of choice in combination with personal input in teacher preactive decision making. For purposes of clarity only the main headings in the input section are included. This figure reveals the proposed relationship between input and choice in preactive decision making. The choice of objectives and organizing centers are dependent upon the skills, goals, and knowledge brought to the task by the individual teacher. The choice of organizing center is dependent upon the objectives determined for instruction. The organizing center or focal point for learning represents a combination of resources, method, and content. The assessment of the organizing center is the final dimension of the paradigm and will be considered in the next section of this study.

3. Assessment.

This dimension of the paradigm provides the key to the selection of organizing centers. If organizing centers are, in fact, a means to an end, and have relatively minor significance in and of themselves, then the criteria for judging these centers take on special significance. The effectiveness of selected strategies is often determined by evaluation after implementation. If criteria for assessment

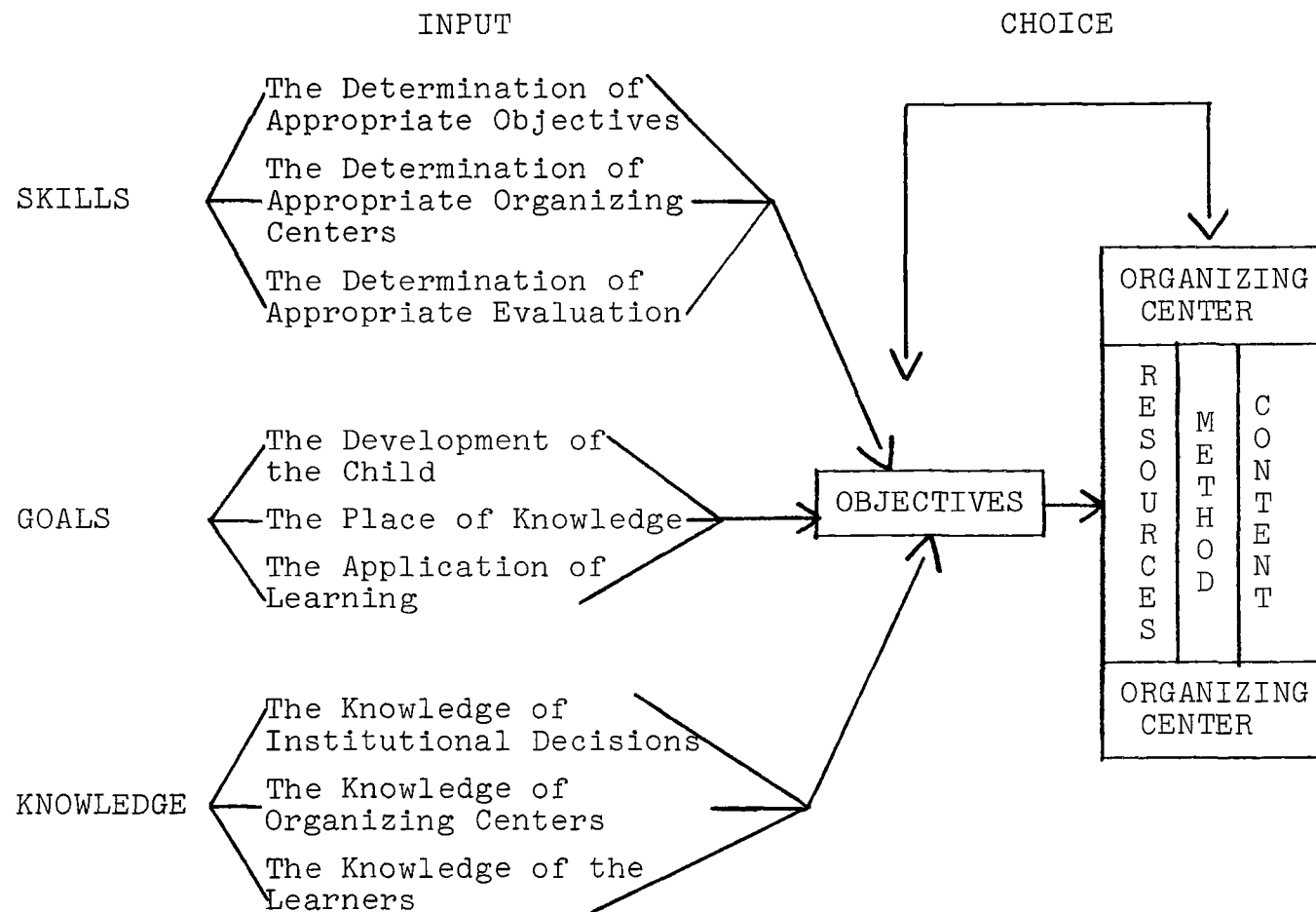


FIGURE 21

TEACHER INPUT AND CHOICE IN PREACTIVE DECISION MAKING

were available and utilized, then the effectiveness of the strategy could be assessed prior to implementation.

Assessment criteria have been proposed by Tyler⁶³, Herrick⁶⁴, and Goodlad⁶⁵. Goodlad's criteria, utilized by Myers⁶⁶, are included in this paradigm. In this section each item will be presented and discussed.

The first criterion states that the "good organizing center for learning provides student practice in the behavior sought"⁶⁷. This item provides the link between the organizing center and the objectives. The objectives specify the behavior and the organizing center provides for the development of competence. An organizing center can thus be judged by the potential it provides for the development of predetermined behavior. A good organizing center must be behaviorally significant.

63 R. Tyler, "New Dimensions in Curriculum Development", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 48, No. 1, September 1966, p. 27.

64 Herrick, "Organizing Centers", Op. Cit., p. 109.

65 Supra, p. 21.

66 Myers, Op. Cit., p. 31.

67 Goodlad and Richter, Op. Cit., p. 58.

The second criterion states that the "good organizing center for learning provides student practice in the behavior sought within the substantive realm to which institutional commitment has been made"⁶⁸. Content is an essential component of the organizing center. The teacher must be able to justify the inclusion of specific content in terms of local or provincial course guidelines. A good organizing center must be substantively significant.

The eighth criterion is related to one and two. It suggests that the good organizing center "has educational significance in its own right"⁶⁹. Instances could be cited where students might be given practice in the behavior sought by the objectives using content found in the guidelines but where the methodology employed would be questionable within a publicly supported institution. A good organizing center must be educationally significant.

The third and fourth criteria refer to economy of time and resources. A good organizing center "is economical of time"⁷⁰ and "of human and material resources"⁷¹. Each objective does not have a subsequent organizing center. One

68 Ibid.

69 Ibid., p. 59.

70 Ibid., p. 58.

71 Ibid.

organizing center can be set up to accomplish several objectives thus making reasonable use of available time. Human resources include all personnel within the school as well as the community. Materials include all non-human resources available in the school as well as the community. A good organizing center must make the best use of time, personnel, and resources.

The fifth criterion states that the "good organizing center for learning encompasses ability floors and ceilings of the group"⁷². This criterion relates directly to the ninth which states that the "good organizing center for learning is comprehensive in that it includes several catch-hold points for differing student abilities and interests"⁷³. The interests and abilities of all students in the group must be considered when selecting an organizing center. A book, a field trip, or a display should be judged in terms of the varying abilities and interests exhibited by class members.

The seventh criterion states that the "good organizing center buttresses organizing centers designed for the development of other organizing elements"⁷⁴. The sixth and tenth are closely related to the seventh. They suggest that the

72 Ibid.

73 Ibid., p. 59.

74 Ibid.

"good organizing center for learning builds on what has gone before and prepares for what is to come"⁷⁵ as well as having "capacity for movement - intellectual, geographic, chronological, or other"⁷⁶.

These three criteria suggest comprehensiveness in terms of horizontal and vertical movement. Horizontal movement refers to the planning of organizing centers to provide for the reinforcement of learning skills⁷⁷. Vertical movement refers to the planning of organizing centers to provide for the sequencing of learning skills⁷⁸. Horizontal movement is exemplified by criterion seven which relates to the coordination of simultaneous learning opportunities provided for the learner in any given school program. Number six introduces the concept of vertical movement by suggesting that continuous learning should be facilitated. Number ten relates to the scope provided by the organizing center to move the learner beyond the particular situation into other areas of investigation. This criterion suggests both horizontal and vertical movement. Thus comprehensiveness can refer to more

75 Ibid.

76 Ibid.

77 Supra, p. 42.

78 Ibid.

than time and resources. A good organizing center must be comprehensive in terms of vertical and horizontal movement as well.

The organizing center must be screened before implementation. These criteria provide the screen. According to Goodlad the "good organizing center is the ripe fruit of rational planning"⁷⁹.

Figure 22 presents the complete decision-making paradigm proposed in this study. It is cumulative in that it combines the dimensions of input, choice, and assessment, each of which was considered in detail in this chapter.

This paradigm is an extension of Myers'⁸⁰ work and could be placed in the instructional rectangle of his model. The personal input dimension in this paradigm places emphasis on the decision component of the decision-making process⁸¹. Choice and assessment are the action components and as such find support in Myers' model. This paradigm includes both decision and action thus providing a complete model for teacher preactive decision making at the instructional level.

Chapter three will present the research design employed in this study to investigate the degree of congruency

⁷⁹ Supra, p. 10.

⁸¹ Supra, p. 13. The lack in curriculum models was considered to be the process of choosing as opposed to acting or doing. The paradigm developed in this study includes both processes.

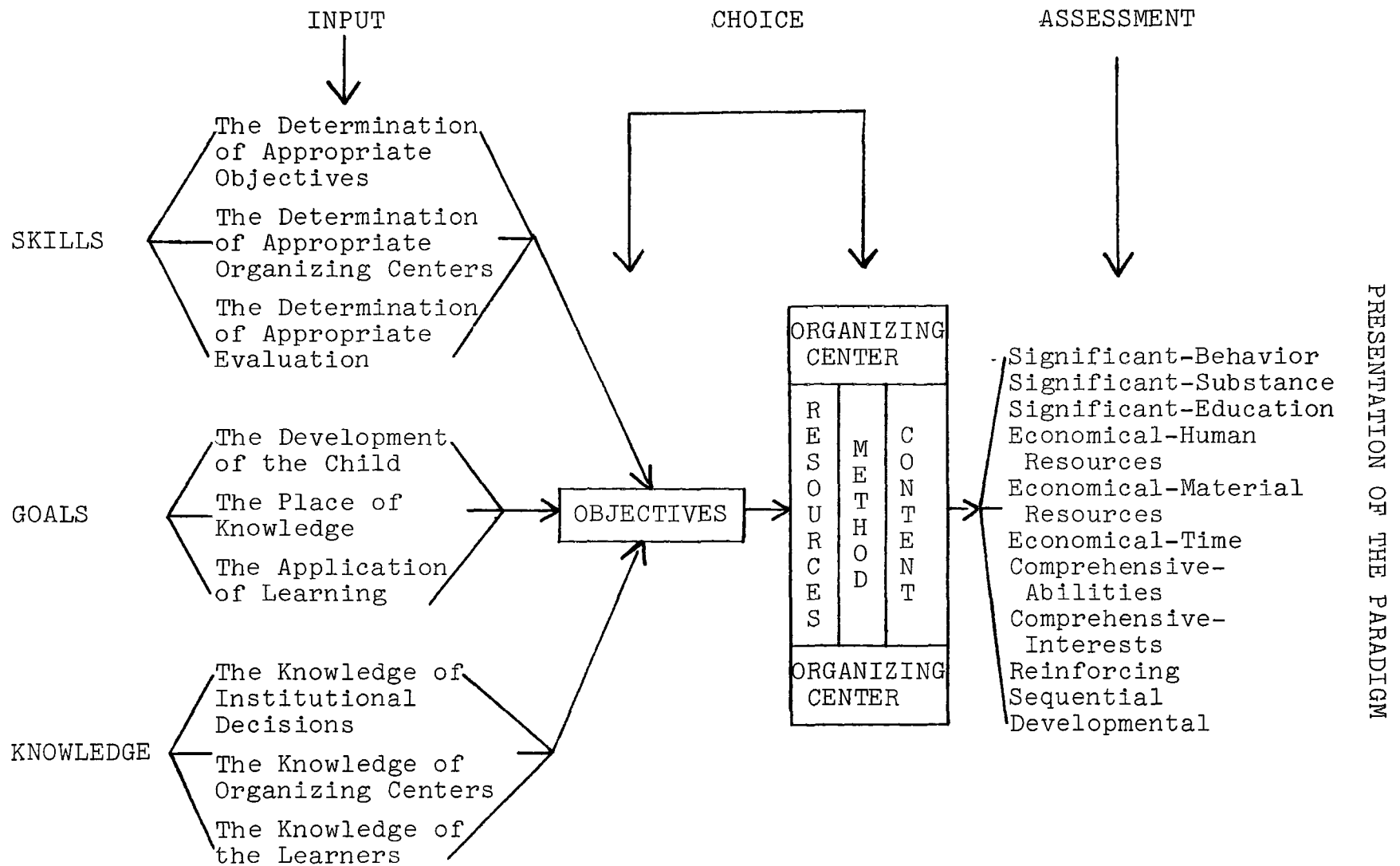


FIGURE 22

PARADIGM OF TEACHER PREACTIVE DECISION MAKING
(Adapted from Simon, Herrick, and Goodlad
extending the model proposed by Myers)

which exists between the literature and actual teacher practice in the province of Ontario. This part of the study examines the assessment component of the paradigm and as such relates only to one dimension of teacher preactive decision making. The justification for the selection of the assessment dimension of the paradigm for further study was discussed at the conclusion of chapter one.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The objective of this part of the study is to examine the degree of congruency between the assessment criteria presented in the paradigm and teacher practice in the province of Ontario. This chapter consists of five sections: the question for study; the description of the study sample; the development and validation of the questionnaire used in the collection of the data; the methodological procedures which include the plans for the distribution and return of the inventory; and the procedures employed in the analysis of the data.

1. Question for Study.

As discussed in chapter one, the importance of Simon's work lies in the fact that it provides a meaningful framework for the study of decision making when viewed from the perspective of the individual within the organization. Simon¹ suggests that objective rationality, the goal of decision making, refers to a decision that results in behavior which maximizes pre-determined goals. Maximizing goals requires complete knowledge of the alternatives as well as complete knowledge of the

¹ H. Simon, Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed., New York, The Free Press, 1957, p. 76.

consequences of the alternatives on the part of the decision maker. He acknowledges that this demand for complete knowledge is unrealistic and that individuals when faced with a decision satisfice rather than maximize. Satisficing refers to finding a course of action that is "good enough"². Thus an individual searches for alternatives until one is found that meets all of his minimum requirements.

The concept of satisficing suggests that individuals have a set of criteria by which they assess the alternatives in the process of making a decision. Teachers select organizing centers for student learning from a wide range of alternatives. Hence this part of the study asks the following question: Do teachers in the province of Ontario have a minimum number and kind of criteria that must be met when selecting an organizing center for student learning?

To answer this question the procedure outlined in the remaining sections of this chapter was initiated and carried out. Section two which follows describes the study population and sample.

² H. Simon, Models of Man, New York, Wiley, 1957, p. 204.

2. Sample of the Study.

The population of this study included all public elementary schools containing primary (grades 1 to 3) classrooms in the province of Ontario. These schools are listed in the provincial directory³.

The province of Ontario is divided into ten geographic regions by the Ministry of Education. The number of schools and the teacher population vary considerably from region to region. Therefore ten schools containing primary classrooms were randomly selected from each of the ten regions, constituting a sample of one hundred schools.

The subjects of the sample included all primary teachers employed in the one hundred schools selected for this study. These teachers are certified by the Minister of Education but they represent a wide range of experiential background and academic preparation.

All subjects received a questionnaire to be completed and returned by mail. The development and validation of that questionnaire is discussed in detail in the following section.

³ Ministry of Education, Directory of Education, Toronto, Ontario, Ministry of Education, 1973/74, 224 p.

3. Development and Validation of the Questionnaire.

The instrument used to obtain data was a five-page questionnaire (see Appendix 2) developed from the cumulative list of assessment criteria proposed by Goodlad-Richter⁴, re-introduced by Myers⁵ and incorporated into the paradigm developed in this study⁶. The questionnaire identified twelve assessment criteria which represent an expansion of Goodlad-Richter's ten by sub-dividing two of the original items. It was designed to identify the number and kind of criteria teachers employ when selecting organizing centers for learning during the preactive phase of teaching.

For purposes of clarity and ease of identification a five-fold classification of organizing centers was introduced, consistent with the work of Herrick⁷. Each type of organizing center was defined and from personal experience the respondent

4 J. Goodlad and M. Richter, Jr., The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, Los Angeles, California, University of California and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1966, p. 58, 59.

5 D. Myers, Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, Dayton, Ohio, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970, p. 31.

6 Supra, Figure 22, p. 79.

7 V. Herrick, "Organizing Centers", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 111, 112.

was asked to record an example to match the category. The twelve assessment criteria were applied to each type of organizing center. The respondents were asked to rate on a five-point scale the degree to which they consider each of the twelve criteria when assessing a specific organizing center.

In addition to the five-page questionnaire a personal data sheet was enclosed in the mailing. The information obtained from the data sheet presented an overview of the academic and experiential background of the respondents as well as the locale and organization of their current teaching assignment (see Appendix 3).

The questionnaire was administered to a five-member panel of primary consultants of a local public school board as well as ten primary school teachers. In order to determine its face validity each item was checked against the Goodlad-Richter list of criteria. Suggestions which were offered by this panel concerned the length and wording of several items and the instructions for the respondents. The questionnaire was revised accordingly. The procedures for the distribution and return of the questionnaires are presented in section four.

4. Methodological Procedures.

After the random selection of ten public elementary schools containing primary classrooms from each of the ten ministerial regions in Ontario, a copy of the questionnaire,

together with a cover letter (see Appendix 4), was mailed to the principals. Included with the principal's letter and questionnaire were sufficient copies of the questionnaire for each primary teacher in the school. The principal's letter requested the distribution of the questionnaires to the teachers.

The director of education for each area involved in this study was sent a letter for information purposes (see Appendix 5). A copy of the questionnaire was included with the director's letter.

A follow-up letter (see Appendix 6) including a return postcard (see Appendix 7) was mailed to the principals one month after the initial distribution of the questionnaires. Two months after the first mailing a second letter (see Appendix 8) was sent to those principals from whose schools there had been a minimal or total lack of response. This mailing included extra copies of the questionnaire.

There was a final return of approximately fifty-seven per cent. The sample consisted of three hundred sixty three primary teachers representing schools from all ten ministerial regions.

Section five of this chapter outlines the procedures employed for the analysis of the data.

5. Analysis of Data Procedures.

The responses made on the five-point letter scale were assigned a numerical value using a 1 to 5 rating for their importance as attributes of determining organizing centers. The means, standard deviations, and frequencies were established for each of the twelve items and the mean for each item was found for each classification⁸.

Data were determined in regard to academic background, years of teaching experience, and school organization. Each item was analyzed to determine the effect, if any, of each of these factors on the use of assessment criteria.

This chapter has outlined the design of the study conducted to determine the degree of congruency between teacher practice in the province of Ontario and the assessment criteria proposed by Goodlad-Richter and incorporated in the paradigm. Chapter four will present an analysis and discussion of the data collected.

⁸ Herrick suggests that organizing centers can be classified in terms of people, places, ideas, displays, and materials. Supra, p. 5.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the study conducted to determine whether or not congruency exists between literature and practice in the province of Ontario relating to the assessment criteria for organizing centers. The results are presented and discussed under the following headings: the total weighting of the assessment criteria; the weighting of the assessment criteria according to type of organizing center; the weighting of the assessment criteria according to professional and personal data; and other criteria.

1. The Total Weighting of the Assessment Criteria.

In order to determine the number and kind of criteria employed by teachers in Ontario when assessing an organizing center for student learning the teachers were asked to indicate on a five-point scale the extent to which they applied each suggested criterion. Table I indicates the mean and standard deviation for each of the assessment criteria ranked according to mean value. Low means indicate a high rating and high means indicate a low rating. A low standard deviation indicates close rater agreement.

Table I suggests that the teachers in this study were consistent in the number and kind of criteria they applied when

Table I.-

Assessment Criteria Items
Ranked According to Mean Value

Item No.	Criteria ^a	Mean	S.D.
2.	Significant-education	1.48	.61
3.	Significant-behavior	1.67	.59
10.	Sequential-further learning	1.75	.64
11.	Reinforcing	1.75	.64
4.	Economical-material resources	1.76	.67
7.	Comprehensive-abilities	1.77	.72
8.	Comprehensive-interests	1.85	.71
12.	Developmental	1.91	.67
6.	Economical-time	2.00	.61
1.	Significant-substance	2.10	.70
9.	Sequential-background	2.23	.72
5.	Economical-human resources	2.24	.94

Number of responses = 410

a This list of criteria was taken from the paradigm developed in this study, p. 79. The questionnaire (Appendix 1) provides an elaboration of each item and a discussion of each item can be found, p. 41, 42 and p. 74-78.

assessing organizing centers. Most concern was expressed in regard to the educational significance of the subject matter introduced into the classroom. Teachers stated that they always or often assess organizing centers in terms of educational significance.

The final four items in Table I are worthy of comment. Economy in terms of time ranked eighth in the list of assessment criteria. Teachers stated that the organizing centers which they select do not necessarily make the best use of available time. Although this item was further clarified by the suggestion that economy of time refers to the accomplishment of several objectives in the time normally required for the accomplishment of one, teachers could read into this item the lack of time available to meet the increasing demands of the teaching task. If item five was seen as the depletion of human resources available because of administratively determined cutbacks rather than teacher use of available professional and community personnel, then this would account for the ranking of this item. The use of time and the placement of personnel would seem to be contemporary political concerns that could influence teacher perception when responding to such a questionnaire.

A third controversial area in the province of Ontario seems to relate to the introduction of revised curriculum guidelines for primary and junior teachers. Negative attitudes are sure to exist in some areas toward ministerially-imposed materials. These attitudes often find their source in a

misunderstanding of the purpose and use of such guidelines. Item one refers to organizing centers which are consistent with content found in courses of study. If courses of study are interpreted to mean provincial guidelines and if provincial guidelines are viewed negatively, then the ranking of item one can be understood.

Not only are professional and political concerns affecting teachers' perceptions but also the demands of the public. People at all levels are demanding a return to teaching of basic skills¹. Item nine refers to the background skill development of the pupils and could be interpreted as a lack in skill development rather than using the skills and knowledge already acquired by the pupils in order to promote further growth.

Close rater agreement existed, however, on all items as evidenced by the standard deviations. Table II indicates the frequency of item selection. It can be concluded from these data that primary teachers in the province of Ontario perceive that they employ the criteria suggested by the literature when assessing organizing centers for student learning.

Respondents were asked to complete two of a possible five sheets each outlining a different type of organizing

¹ The Ontario Ministry of Education has recently released a publication to meet this demand. Ministry of Education, The Formative Years, Toronto Ontario, Ministry of Education, 1975, p. 1.

Table II.-
Frequency Table Depicting Teachers' Application
of the Assessment Criteria

Item	Extent of Influence				
	Always A	Often B	Occasionally C	Seldom D	Never E
1	80	226	91	11	2
2	214	174	21	1	-
3	159	227	23	1	-
4	154	206	46	4	-
5	102	146	126	34	2
6	97	222	86	4	1
7	158	195	50	7	-
8	131	217	54	8	-
9	60	208	128	14	-
10	148	219	41	2	-
11	144	225	40	-	1
12	131	224	51	4	-

Number of responses = 410

center. The next section will examine the data related to this classification of organizing centers.

2. Weighting According to Types of Organizing Centers.

Herrick's² five categories were incorporated in the questionnaire distributed to the sample of teachers selected for this study. Each teacher responded to two randomly assigned categories using the same criteria for each. Table III indicates the mean and standard deviation for each item grouped according to types of organizing centers.

Close rater agreement exists generally. Several individual item exceptions are worthy of comment. Category two or "Places" is one such exception. The means for items two, six and twelve of this category, are considerably lower than the means for these items in the other four categories. These lower means suggest higher ratings. The standard deviation for each of these items indicates close rater agreement.

The category "Places" was interpreted by the respondents as a field trip. It seems that many people within and without the school system have doubts as to the educational significance of these excursions. Reaction on the part of teachers to such criticism could result in high agreement as to the educational value of field trips (Item 2) as well as

2 Supra, p. 5 and p. 87, footnote.

Table III.-
Mean Value of Assessment Criteria Grouped
According to Types of Organizing Centers

Item	<u>Types of Organizing Centers</u>									
	<u>People</u>		<u>Places</u>		<u>Ideas</u>		<u>Materials</u>		<u>Displays</u>	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1.	2.11	.71	1.99	.76	2.04	.76	2.11	.76	2.21	.73
2.	1.65	.70	1.17	.61	1.51	.57	1.60	.56	1.48	.56
3.	1.72	.56	1.65	.48	1.66	.62	1.63	.59	1.70	.55
4.	1.63	.60	1.79	.69	1.68	.68	1.87	.74	1.80	.69
5.	2.22	.94	2.03	.85	2.21	.95	2.38	.85	2.33	.94
6.	1.89	.64	1.73	.68	2.14	.72	2.04	.71	2.18	.76
7.	1.84	.75	1.70	.66	1.80	.70	1.82	.76	1.69	.66
8.	1.84	.74	1.75	.72	1.96	.70	1.81	.72	1.87	.65
9.	2.28	.68	2.29	.64	2.18	.77	2.30	.81	2.13	.69
10.	1.83	.70	1.68	.71	1.86	.66	1.73	.58	1.70	.57
11.	1.77	.65	1.79	.73	1.76	.63	1.68	.61	1.77	.60
12.	1.77	.64	1.38	.67	2.00	.69	1.83	.69	1.91	.64

Number of responses = 410

the use of such trips to generate ideas for further study (Item 12). Field trips are defended as well in terms of the use of time available (Item 6).

Analysis of the data on the basis of the categorization of organizing centers reveals no obvious difference in teacher choice of assessment criteria according to these categories.

3. Weighting According to Personal and Professional Data.

The personal and professional background of the respondents was considered in the tabulation of the results. Personal data relates to the number of years of teaching experience and the academic background of each subject. Professional data relates to the teaching environment of each subject — whether they teach alone or as a member of a team.

A comparison of the means as shown in Table IV indicates no obvious difference in the assessment criteria employed due to years of experience, academic background, or organization for teaching. Some observations can be made, however, related to each division.

The number of years of teaching reveals a trend in the selection of organizing centers for three criteria in particular. Higher rating is assigned generally to items one, four, and five with an increase in teaching experience. Item one relates to the utilization of the course of study as a check

Table IV.-
Mean Value of Assessment Criteria Grouped
According to Personal and Professional Data

Item	Experience in Years					Academic Background		Organization for Teaching	
	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21 & Over	Teaching Cert. Only	B.A.	Single Teacher	Team
1	2.80	2.10	2.21	2.02	1.93	2.08	2.03	2.09	2.02
2	1.55	1.51	1.46	1.52	1.57	1.54	1.41	1.52	1.50
3	1.70	1.68	1.66	1.66	1.54	1.67	1.50	1.67	1.70
4	1.81	1.75	1.90	1.64	1.46	1.75	1.70	1.78	1.68
5	2.35	2.32	2.24	2.16	1.81	2.03	2.28	2.28	2.03
6	2.14	1.58	2.04	1.93	2.00	2.01	1.95	2.01	1.94
7	1.81	1.71	1.75	1.77	1.85	1.87	1.39	1.90	1.61
8	1.96	1.80	1.81	1.91	1.94	1.94	1.68	1.89	1.70
9	2.27	2.14	2.44	2.05	2.13	2.25	2.11	2.22	2.17
10	1.86	1.75	1.74	1.70	1.70	1.80	1.58	1.76	1.64
11	1.84	1.76	1.66	1.77	1.69	1.78	1.72	1.75	1.82
12	1.87	1.83	1.81	1.75	1.87	1.86	1.64	1.84	1.73

Number of responses = 410

on the introduction of an organizing center. More experienced teachers are accustomed to relying on course guidelines and no doubt continue to rely on them. Teachers with one to five years experience have likely been exposed to curriculum development during teacher training and are perhaps more prone to make decisions on their own. Increase in experience could be a factor in making teachers more knowledgeable in regard to the availability and use of human and material resources. This would account for the similar trends evident in items four and five.

Only two categories of academic background were selected for the presentation of the data due to the small number of respondents holding primary specialist certificates or education degrees. Items seven and eight in this classification of personal data suggest that teachers with the Bachelor of Arts degree are more often concerned with the abilities and interests of the children in selecting organizing centers than those teachers having only a teaching certificate. Age may be a factor but years of teaching experience seem to have no relevance as far as these items are concerned. Subjects pursued during the academic program leading to a university degree could result in an emphasis by the teacher on the pupil. Thus the teacher with a degree would be more aware of the need to assess pupil interest and ability when planning for learning.

Much attention is focused currently on team planning as opposed to individual planning for teaching³. One of the assumptions underlying teaming is that it makes better use of available personnel than is possible in a single teacher situation. It is not surprising then to find that item five related to the use of human resources ranks higher as an assessment criterion with people who are involved in team planning.

A second assumption underlying teaming is that a wider range of activities can be made available to pupils thus many learning levels can be accommodated more readily than in the single teacher situation. Again it is not surprising to find higher rating of related assessment criteria indicated by items seven and eight.

The mean values of the assessment criteria grouped according to personal and professional data do not reveal significant differences due to teaching experience, academic background, or organization for teaching. A careful analysis of these results does, however, provide some insights into teacher behavior in terms of assessing organizing centers for student learning.

³ This trend is evidenced by the increase in the number of flexible and open plan schools built in recent years. It is also supported by ministerial statements found in documents such as: Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives in the Schools of Ontario, Living and Learning, Toronto, Ontario, The Newton Publishing Company, 1968, p. 123, 124 and The Formative Years, Op. Cit., p. 3.

The next section will examine criteria currently employed by Ontario teachers other than those listed in the questionnaire.

4. Other Criteria.

Respondents to the questionnaire were given the opportunity to add assessment criteria not included in the twelve items listed (See Appendix 2, Item 13). Concerns such as the following consistently appeared: current events; parental, consultant, and principal expectations; class size and space; distance; community resources; student cultural and experiential background; teacher time and interest. Each of these will be considered in turn.

Teachers stated that local, national, and world events to some extent determine the organizing centers chosen for student learning in their classrooms. Item two in the questionnaire refers to the significance of the subject matter and item eight refers to the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils. Current events could relate to either of these items. Therefore, current events are considered to be included in the assessment criteria presented in the paradigm and outlined in the questionnaire.

Parental, consultant, and principal expectations relate to the decisions made at institutional and societal

levels⁴. These decisions, to some extent, would be reflected in the course of study. Item one in the questionnaire suggests that the subject matter found in the organizing center be consistent with the subject matter found in the course of study and thus consistent with parental, consultant, and principal expectations.

Resources are classified as material and human in the questionnaire (Items 4 and 5). Material resources were defined in terms of books, films, or other selected teaching aids. The community, distance, class size and space were added items that seem to necessitate a separate category under the heading of resources. Therefore the list of criteria should include a further subdivision of resources into physical-environmental as well as human and material.

Student background is defined by item 9 in terms of knowledge and skill. Cultural and experiential background were mentioned consistently as criteria for assessment. Student background could therefore be enlarged to include culture and experience as well as knowledge and skills.

The assessment criterion appearing under item 13 that was perhaps implicit but not in evidence in the questionnaire was referred to as teacher time and interest. If the learning

⁴ The responsibilities assigned to each level and the data sources for each level are outlined in the Goodlad-Richter model, Supra, p. 6, 7, as well as Myers' model, Supra, p. 10.

experience as defined by Tyler⁵ is the interaction between the child and the environment and if the organizing center refers to the environmental side of this definition⁶, then the teacher is part of that environment. Teacher concerns should and do play a significant role in determining the effectiveness of organizing centers for student learning. It is suggested that this category be added to the list of criteria proposed for further study.

This section has analyzed items added to the list of criteria on the teacher questionnaire. The following recommendations were made by the teachers:

1) Resources should be identified as human, material, and physical-environmental in order to include the immediate environment of the child; namely, the organization of the classroom, the school, and the community.

2) Background should be broader than knowledge and skills. Cultural and experiential background could produce a significant attitudinal component.

3) Teacher commitment is vital to the effectiveness of the organizing center. This commitment is evident in terms of time and interest and should be included as a criterion for assessing organizing centers for student learning.

5 R. Tyler, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950, p. 41.

6 Supra, p. 20.

This chapter has presented and discussed the findings of the study carried out to determine whether congruency exists between the literature and teacher perception of practice in the province of Ontario in regard to the application of criteria for assessing organizing centers for student learning. Congruency was found to exist and additional criteria were suggested. A summary of the findings of this study along with conclusions and recommendations is found on the following pages.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a theoretically-based paradigm to facilitate research on teacher preactive decision making extending the model proposed by Myers. The secondary purpose was to examine the number and kind of criteria by which teachers assess their preactive decisions when determining organizing centers for student learning. This part of the study provided a congruency check between the literature related to criteria for the assessment of organizing centers and teacher perception of practice in the province of Ontario.

A major assumption, implicit in the literature related to teacher decision making, was that the lack of concise understanding of the process subverts the efforts and potentiality, not only of teachers, but also of other educational personnel responsible for the instruction and supervision of teachers. Central to this study was the assumption that the lack of definitiveness which presently characterizes preactive teaching is the result of a misunderstanding of the process of decision making, not only by educational personnel, but also by writers of literature related to teaching.

In the literature related to preactive decision making the responsibilities of the teacher are consistently^a isolated and the relationships among the levels of decision

making are exemplified. Empirical studies seek validation of the preactive teaching tasks made explicit in the literature. These studies emphasize the action dimension as opposed to the choice dimension of the decision-making process. The paradigm developed in this study extends the comprehensive action model proposed by Myers by incorporating a choice dimension.

This theoretically-based paradigm provides a framework for further study of teacher preactive decision making. Productive inquiry arising from this paradigm is suggested within each of the dimensions as well as by the relationship among the dimensions.

The paradigm suggests that teacher input to preactive decision making is theoretically in terms of personal skills, goals, and knowledge. Three major areas of study are suggested by this section of the paradigm; namely, the degree of consistency between literature and practice in the particular skills, goals, and knowledge considered significant for teacher planning, the degree of consistency between literature and practice in the definition of each category of skills, goals, and knowledge, and the relationships existing among the components.

The second dimension of the paradigm also raises questions for further study. The components of the choice

dimension are "Objectives" and the "Organizing Center". The determination of objectives has been the subject of much discussion and inquiry in recent years. More work is needed to provide meaningful guidelines for teacher practice in setting objectives for instructional purposes.

The organizing center, although a key concept in planning, has received minimal attention in the literature. The following questions are representative of the kind of inquiry that is suggested by the choice dimension of the paradigm. Do teachers isolate content, method, and resources considering each mutually exclusive when planning or do teachers combine these components into a relevant whole? What is the relationship between teacher effectiveness and teacher strategy in selecting an organizing center? Do more effective teachers view the organizing center as a whole thus being less able to isolate the components during the planning phase? What is the relationship between kinds of objectives and the organizing centers selected to meet those objectives? Do specific objectives result in the selection of specific organizing centers? Do organizing centers in practice meet many objectives or do teachers generally assume a one-to-one ratio between organizing centers and objectives?

The assessment dimension of this paradigm raises many questions for further inquiry. The secondary purpose of this study was to determine the congruency between these criteria as stated in the literature and actual practice in the province of Ontario. These criteria provided the items for a questionnaire which was mailed to a sample of approximately three hundred and seventy-five primary teachers in the province of Ontario. The results obtained in this part of the study reveal that there is consistency in the kind of criteria employed by teachers when selecting an organizing center for student learning but the number could be increased. Since the findings of this investigation cannot be generalized beyond the population of this study similar studies could be conducted with junior, intermediate, or senior teachers, adding criteria related to physical resources, cultural and experiential student background, and teacher concerns.

The assessment criteria individually could profitably be applied to specific organizing centers to determine the extent to which the organizing center in practice meets that criteria. Thus within the assessment dimension areas of study are suggested.

The relationship among the dimensions of the paradigm provides a fruitful field for inquiry. Such questions as the following might be asked:

1. What is the relationship between teacher skills or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed?

2. What is the relationship between teacher goals or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed?

3. What is the relationship between teacher knowledge or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed?

Each of the above questions represents major study projects which would facilitate the understanding of teacher planning needs.

The paradigm has implications for preservice and in-service teacher education. It suggests the need to reduce the limitations on teacher decision making by providing for the development of specific skills; by making provision for the modification and realignment of teacher goals; and by increasing teacher knowledge in selected decision-making areas. The skills, goals, and knowledge components are presented in the paradigm and represent a total program package for consideration in teacher education as opposed to the current emphases on innovative materials and methods.

The paradigm developed in this study has potential for theory development in the area of teacher decision making. Each component of the input dimension could be expressed in

terms of a proposition revealing relationships among the components as well as among the components and the assessment criteria. The relationships among these propositions would provide constructs from which hypotheses could be developed. This theory-building activity is a further indication of the kind of study implied in the title of this thesis.

The paradigm presented in this study points up the need to consider the personal input of the teacher in any consideration of preactive decision making. This dimension placed in context with Myers' action model provides a framework which suggests and supports further inquiry.

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Bussis, A., E. A. Chittenden, Analysis of an Approach to Open Education, Interim Report of a study conducted by Educational Testing Service in cooperation with participants in the Follow Through program of Education Development Center, New Jersey, Educational Testing Service, 1970, 82 p.

This report provides a framework for the viewing of teaching in terms of pupil and teacher involvement. The authors contend that open education, exemplified by high pupil and high teacher involvement, makes different demands on the teacher. The role of the teacher in this activity-oriented program and the knowledge required to fulfill this role is presented in detail in this report.

Connelly, D., Instructional Objectives of Teachers of the Principal Subjects at Grade Twelve Level in High Schools, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Ottawa, 1972, xvi-276 p.

The writer of this thesis contends that teachers are not able to accept the responsibility for making many of the curriculum decisions now thrust upon them; in particular, the operationalizing of instructional objectives. This thesis provides an excellent analysis of the current controversy in regard to the construction and application of objectives at the instructional level.

Connelly, M., "The Functions of Curriculum Development", Interchange, Vol. 3, Nos. 2-3, 1972, p. 161-177.

Connelly's paper views the existing dissatisfaction with curriculum development, sharpens the distinction between external development and local user development and provides a mode of operation to resolve the conflict by adopting a functional view of curriculum development. The argument presented for needed redefinition of the teacher's task in curriculum planning clarifies the present difficulties encountered by many at the instructional level.

Downey, L., The Task of the Public School as Perceived by Regional Sub-Publics, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Chicago, 1959, xi-251 p.

Downey's analysis of goal statements and the resulting synthesis of the tasks of education provides the framework for the instrument used in his study of the perception of people in regard to the task of the public school. The framework developed by Downey is a valuable guide for the analysis of goal statements which are generally found to be more redundant than original.

Dreeban, R., The Nature of Teaching, Glenview, Illinois, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1970, 243 p.

Teaching as an occupation is investigated in this book. The author presents a comprehensive analytical statement concerning the world and work of teachers employing the techniques of sociological inquiry. Chapter four provides an argument for identifying distinct teaching tasks — an exercise with which this study is concerned.

Goodlad, J., School, Curriculum, and the Individual, Waltham, Massachusetts, Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1966, 259 p.

This book is a collection of articles relating to school organization and curriculum. The role of the teacher in the total system is examined in detail in chapter seven. Included in this chapter is Goodlad's first list of assessment criteria for the selection of organizing centers.

-----, "The Organizing Center in Curriculum Theory and Practice", Theory into Practice, Vol. 1, No. 4, October 1962, p. 215-221.

The organizing center is defined in this article in terms of content, method, and resources. A case study is cited to show how the organizing center can be used to clarify both educational means and ends without restricting either teacher or pupil initiative.

Goodlad, J., and M. Richter, Jr., The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction, Los Angeles, California, University of California and Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1966, iii-69 p.

The writers of this book conceptualize the levels of decision making within the educational system. This book represents one of the first attempts to distinguish the decision-making tasks within the educational hierarchy as well as to reveal the relationships that exist among the levels. The authors carefully define the terminology employed and thus provide an excellent foundation for further meaningful discussion.

Griffiths, D., Administrative Theory, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959, vii-123 p.

Griffiths presents a case for administration as decision making. The decision-making process is examined in detail providing support for the definition of terminology incorporated in this study.

Herrick, V., "Concept of Curriculum Design", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 17-38.

Eleven propositions regarding the importance and function of curriculum design are outlined and discussed in this paper. Herrick comments on Tyler's four basic questions suggesting the condensing of two and three into one question and adding two of his own. The resulting five questions are proposed as essential considerations for curriculum design.

-----, "Organizing Centers", in J. Macdonald, D. Anderson, F. May, eds., Strategies of Curriculum Development, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965, p. 107-113.

The idea of the organizing center is one of the crucial concepts related to planning for teaching. This concept, introduced by Herrick, has been reintroduced by contemporary writers in the field of curriculum and employed in the paradigm developed in this study.

Jackson, P., "The Way Teaching Is", in The Way Teaching Is, Washington, D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the Center for the Study of Instruction, National Education Association, 1966, p. 7-27.

The writer of this article suggests that educational researchers should look at teaching as it is rather than as it ought to be. This process would require extensive periods of time spent with teachers and students in and out of the classroom. Preactive and interactive teaching are terms introduced by Jackson when attempting to describe the total teaching task which, according to him, requires careful investigation.

Jeffares, D., A Descriptive Study of Teacher Decisions in Curriculum Development, unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Alberta, 1973, xxi-233 p.

This study attempts to answer questions related to the elements influencing teacher curriculum decisions, teacher concerns related to curriculum decision making and to the relationship that exists between a teacher's belief system and components of the decision-making process. Teachers were found to be influenced most by instructional resources, secondly by curriculum elements, then student characteristics, teacher characteristics, instructional procedures, and evaluation, in that order. This finding was of particular interest in developing the paradigm presented in this study.

Johnson, M., "The Translation of Curriculum to Instruction", Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 1, No. 2, May 1969, p. 115-131.

Johnson makes a careful distinction between curriculum and instruction. In this article he not only distinguishes between the terms but also links the terms using a systems approach. Curriculum development becomes the input into curriculum which provides input for instructional planning which in turn provides input for program which leads to instruction. An attempt is made by Johnson to clarify the distinction between curriculum and instruction as well as to reveal the relationship between these terms.

McClune, R., Jr., The Development of an Analytical Framework and Survey Questionnaire to Identify and Clarify the Instructional Planning Activities of Elementary Teachers, unpublished doctoral thesis, Case Western Reserve University, 1970, ix-170 p.

The analytical framework for the questionnaire developed in this study is the result of an analysis of the thinking of Tyler, Herrick, Taba and Goodlad plus fifteen other writers in the field of curriculum. It was found that this descriptive theory of teacher planning included the major categories involved in actual classroom practice. The framework thus developed in McClune's study provides an excellent summary of the thinking of major curriculum writers related to teacher planning.

Ministry of Education, "Goals of Education: Providing an Equal Opportunity For All", feature in New Dimensions, Toronto, Ontario Ministry of Education, Vol. 7, No. 7, May-June 1973, p. 5.

The goals of education for the province of Ontario are stated succinctly under three headings relating to personal development, the acquisition of knowledge, and social consciousness and responsibility. This statement represents a platform for the delineation of more precise educational objectives at other hierarchical levels.

Myers, D., Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction, Dayton, Ohio, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1970, xiii-54 p.

A book which attempts to build on the conceptual system proposed by Goodlad and Richter by presenting not only the levels of decision making within the educational hierarchy but also the personnel involved and the decisions each school make. The model proposed by Myers provided the base from which this present study evolved.

Parsons, T., "Some Ingredients of a General Theory of Formal Organization", in A. Halpin, ed., Administrative Theory in Education, Toronto, Ontario, Collier-Macmillan Canada, Limited, 1958, p. 40-72.

Functions, external relations and types of organizations are analyzed in this article. The first section relates directly to this study. In this section Parsons outlines three levels in organizational structure according to the functions they perform. The functions of these three levels, the technical, managerial, and societal, and the relationships which exist among them provide a theoretical framework for the analysis of education.

Simon, H., Administrative Behavior, 2nd ed., New York, The Free Press, 1957, xlviii-259 p.

This book views decision making from the perspective of the individual as well as the organization. It represents a major basic treatise on the subject of decision making and as such provides the source for many statements made in decision making literature. Decision making viewed from the perspective of the individual as presented in this book provides the basis for the input dimension of the paradigm proposed in this present study.

-----, Models of Man, New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1957, xiv-287 p.

This book is a collection of essays written by Simon and published earlier in thirteen journals representing statistics and all the social sciences with the exception of anthropology. The purpose of placing these articles in one volume is to provide the groundwork for a science of man. In the introduction to Part IV of this book Simon develops the concept of satisficing in his description of the decision-making process of administrative versus economic man. This concept provides the rationale for the problem considered in the second part of this present study.

Taba, H., Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice, New York, Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1962, xiv-526 p.

The most comprehensive work available on the subject of curriculum. This book examines the theory of curriculum development by looking into other fields of inquiry in order to strengthen the thinking about curriculum.

Taylor, P. H., "An Exploratory Study of Teachers' Perceptions of Planning Courses", British Journal of Educational Psychology, Vol. 40, Part 3, November 1970, p. 253-260.

The results of this study suggest a tentative description of secondary school teachers' perceptions of the process of planning for teaching. This study explores the weightings and inter-relationships of the criteria employed by teachers and suggests that the teachers perceive the planning process in terms of the demand which teaching makes upon them.

Tyler, R., Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Chicago, Illinois, University of Chicago Press, 1950, 83 p.

Tyler's syllabus presents an elaboration of the four basic questions that provide the key for curriculum planning at any level of the educational hierarchy. This book is one of the earliest organized approaches to curriculum planning and as such has proven to be the foundation on which other curriculum writers have built.

-----, "New Dimensions in Curriculum Development", Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. 48, No. 1, September 1966, p. 25-28.

Tyler comments on his 1950 syllabus in this article. He attempts to rethink and to clarify his position by discussing each of his chapter headings or questions in turn. The area of elaboration significant in terms of this study is the extension of his five principles relating to the planning of learning experiences.

APPENDIX 1

PROPOSALS FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

PROPOSALS FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

TABA'S SEVEN STEPS

- Step 1: Diagnosis of needs
- Step 2: Formulation of objectives
- Step 3: Selection of content
- Step 4: Organization of content
- Step 5: Selection of learning experiences
- Step 6: Organization of learning experiences
- Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and of ways and means of doing it.

PROPOSALS FOR CURRICULUM PLANNING

HERRICK'S FIVE QUESTIONS

1. How can I know the child and prepare and manage a classroom environment which will promote his optimum learning?
2. How can I identify, define, and use my instructional objectives to determine the scope, direction, and emphasis of the child's learning experience?
3. How can I select and organize these experiences so as to aid the child to achieve worthwhile educational ends?
4. How can I teach or manage the educational process so that these experiences are most effectively utilized by the child to achieve these ends?
5. How can I evaluate so as to determine the extent and quality of the child's development toward these ends?

APPENDIX 2

ASSESSMENT CRITERIA QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Every teacher must decide on some focal point for learning for the whole class, for small groups of students or individuals within the class. This focal point has been referred to as an "organizing center". Some types of organizing centers can be identified as ideas, materials, displays, places, and people. Each of these types of organizing centers will be outlined in more detail on the following pages.

Read the introductory paragraphs on the following pages and answer the questions related to each.

PEOPLE

Great names can provide a focus for study. Such names as Trudeau, Queen Elizabeth, The Reeve or Mayor, St. Patrick, have been used in the classroom. Groups of people such as firemen, policemen, Indians, Eskimos, provide catchholds for learning. Name one person or group of persons that you have chosen for study with your class. _____

To what extent are you influenced by the following considerations in your selection of <u>this type</u> of organizing center. Circle the appropriate letter.		ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
1.	The subject matter is consistent with the content found in the course of study.	A	B	C	D	E
2.	The subject matter is educationally significant in its own right.	A	B	C	D	E
3.	Specific objectives can be met by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
4.	The best use is made of available material resources.	A	B	C	D	E
5.	The best use is made of available human resources.	A	B	C	D	E
6.	The best use is made of available time, e.g., more than one objective can be met in the time normally required for one.	A	B	C	D	E
7.	There is enough scope for the range of learning levels exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
8.	There is enough scope for the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
9.	The pupils have the necessary background in terms of knowledge and skill.	A	B	C	D	E
10.	Further learning will be encouraged by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
11.	Current learning will be reinforced by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
12.	Many ideas can be generated for further investigation.	A	B	C	D	E
13.	Other things that influence the selection of organizing centers are					

MATERIALS

Resource materials include such things as texts, resource books, films, filmstrips, tapes, etc.. Children are exposed to many resources either in the classroom or in the library/resource center within the school. Teachers select resources to be used by a student or group of students. Name one resource that you have selected for student use this year.

To what extent are you influenced by the following considerations in your selection of <u>this type</u> of organizing center. Circle the appropriate letter.		ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
1.	The subject matter is consistent with the content found in the course of study.	A	B	C	D	E
2.	The subject matter is educationally significant in its own right.	A	B	C	D	E
3.	Specific objectives can be met by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
4.	The best use is made of available material resources.	A	B	C	D	E
5.	The best use is made of available human resources.	A	B	C	D	E
6.	The best use is made of available time, e.g., more than one objective can be met in the time normally required for one.	A	B	C	D	E
7.	There is enough scope for the range of learning levels exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
8.	There is enough scope for the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
9.	The pupils have the necessary background in terms of knowledge and skill.	A	B	C	D	E
10.	Further learning will be encouraged by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
11.	Current learning will be reinforced by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
12.	Many ideas can be generated for further investigation.	A	B	C	D	E
13.	Other things that influence the selection of organizing centers are					

PLACES

Places as organizing centers include the introduction of a geographical location such as a city, town, or point of interest as well as trips to such places of interest. The use of field trips as the focus for learning ranges from playground investigation to foreign travel. Name one field trip you have undertaken with your class. _____

To what extent are you influenced by the following considerations in your selection of <u>this type</u> of organizing center. Circle the appropriate letter.		ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER
1.	The subject matter is consistent with the content found in the course of study.	A	B	C	D	E
2.	The subject matter is educationally significant in its own right.	A	B	C	D	E
3.	Specific objectives can be met by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
4.	The best use is made of available material resources.	A	B	C	D	E
5.	The best use is made of available human resources.	A	B	C	D	E
6.	The best use is made of available time, e.g., more than one objective can be met in the time normally required for one.	A	B	C	D	E
7.	There is enough scope for the range of learning levels exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
8.	There is enough scope for the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
9.	The pupils have the necessary background in terms of knowledge and skill.	A	B	C	D	E
10.	Further learning will be encouraged by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
11.	Current learning will be reinforced by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
12.	Many ideas can be generated for further investigation.	A	B	C	D	E
13.	Other things that influence the selection of organizing centers are					

DISPLAYS

Some teachers set up displays or exhibits in their classrooms. These may be solely collections of animate or inanimate things such as aquaria, caged animals, junk tables, or they may be organized material exhibits such as rock, stamp, or coin collections, book displays, creative activity corners. Name one display that you have introduced into your classroom this year.

To what extent are you influenced by the following considerations in your selection of <u>this type</u> of organizing center. Circle the appropriate letter.		OCCASIONALLY				
		ALWAYS	OFTEN		SELDOM	NEVER
1.	The subject matter is consistent with the content found in the course of study.	A	B	C	D	E
2.	The subject matter is educationally significant in its own right.	A	B	C	D	E
3.	Specific objectives can be met by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
4.	The best use is made of available material resources.	A	B	C	D	E
5.	The best use is made of available human resources.	A	B	C	D	E
6.	The best use is made of available time, e.g., more than one objective can be met in the time normally required for one.	A	B	C	D	E
7.	There is enough scope for the range of learning levels exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
8.	There is enough scope for the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils.	A	B	C	D	E
9.	The pupils have the necessary background in terms of knowledge and skill.	A	B	C	D	E
10.	Further learning will be encouraged by the use of this organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
11.	Current learning will be reinforced by the use of the organizing center.	A	B	C	D	E
12.	Many ideas can be generated for further investigation.	A	B	C	D	E
13.	Other things that influence the selection of organizing centers are					

IDEAS

Big ideas have traditionally served as organizing centers for learning. Concepts such as time, space, cooperation, change, direction, distance, respect, responsibility, are included in this category. Name one concept that you have introduced in your class. _____

To what extent are you influenced by the following considerations in your selection of this type of organizing center. Circle the appropriate letter.

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The subject matter is consistent with the content found in the course of study. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 2. The subject matter is educationally significant in its own right. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 3. Specific objectives can be met by the use of this organizing center. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 4. The best use is made of available material resources. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 5. The best use is made of available human resources. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 6. The best use is made of available time, e.g., more than one objective can be met in the time normally required for one. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 7. There is enough scope for the range of learning levels exhibited by the pupils. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 8. There is enough scope for the variety of interests exhibited by the pupils. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 9. The pupils have the necessary background in terms of knowledge and skill. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 10. Further learning will be encouraged by the use of this organizing center. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 11. Current learning will be reinforced by the use of the organizing center. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 12. Many ideas can be generated for further investigation. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 13. Other things that influence the selection of organizing centers are | | | | | |

APPENDIX 3
BACKGROUND INFORMATION SHEET

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

[DO NOT PLACE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THESE SHEETS]

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. GRADE LEVEL CURRENTLY TAUGHT _____.

2. YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE _____.

3. PRIMARY SPECIALIST CERTIFICATE

YES _____ NO _____

4. HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION

TEACHING CERTIFICATE _____

B.A. _____

M.Ed. _____

M.A. _____

Ph.D. _____

OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY) _____

5. MARK THE CATEGORIES THAT BEST DESCRIBE THE TYPE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION IN WHICH YOU SERVE AS AN ELEMENTARY TEACHER:

self contained classroom _____

team teaching or cooperative teaching _____

graded _____ non-graded _____

6. MARK THE CATEGORY THAT BEST DESCRIBES YOUR SCHOOL'S ATTENDANCE AREA:

rural _____ inner city _____ mixed _____

suburban _____ small city _____ small town _____

APPENDIX 4

COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

3002 Southmore Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario. K1V 6Z4

March 4, 1975.

TO THE PRINCIPAL

The teaching task has a variety of dimensions. One of the dimensions that is increasing in the demand that it makes on teacher time and skill is planning for instruction. Very little research is available on this important component of teaching.

I am on leave from teacher education and am involved in Ph.D. research at the University of Ottawa on the topic of teacher decision making in planning for instruction. The study involves the development of a decision-making model for further research. Part of the model relates to the criteria used by teachers when assessing planning decisions. I am attempting to determine the relationship between this dimension of the model and actual teacher practice in the province of Ontario.

To accomplish this task I have randomly selected 10 schools from each region. Your school is part of that selection. The sample being used consists of the primary (grades 1-3) teachers in these schools. I would sincerely appreciate your cooperation in distributing the enclosed envelopes to the primary teachers in your school according to the number of questionnaires enclosed.

A copy of the total questionnaire is in the packet for your perusal. Each teacher involved should receive a stamped addressed return envelope which contains two of the five questionnaire sheets, an information sheet, and an instruction sheet. Fifteen minutes of the teacher's own

time is the maximum that is required for the completion of the questionnaire.

The return of these questionnaires is crucial for my study. I would be grateful for your support and assistance.

Ruth Whitehead

P.S. The Director of your Board
has been notified of this
project.

APPENDIX 5

COVER LETTER TO DIRECTORS
OF EDUCATION

3002 Southmore Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario. K1V 6Z4

March 4, 1975.

Dear

The teaching task has a variety of dimensions. One of the dimensions that is increasing in the demand that it makes on teacher time and skill is planning for instruction. Very little research is available on this important component of teaching.

I am on leave from teacher education and am involved in Ph.D. research at the University of Ottawa on the topic of teacher decision making in planning for instruction. The study involves the development of a decision-making model for further research. Part of the model relates to the criteria used by teachers when assessing planning decisions. I am attempting to determine the relationship between this dimension of the model and actual teacher practice in the province of Ontario.

To accomplish this task I have randomly selected ten schools from each region. One or two schools within the jurisdiction of your board have been selected. The sample being used consists of primary (grades 1-3) teachers in these schools.

The principals of these schools have been sent packets including an information letter, a complete questionnaire and several teacher envelopes containing two of the five questionnaire sheets, the information sheet, and the instructions.

A copy of the total questionnaire as well as the principal's letter is enclosed for your perusal. Fifteen minutes of the teacher's own time is the maximum that is required for this exercise.

Sincerely,

Ruth Whitehead

APPENDIX 6

SECOND LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

3002 Southmore Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario.
K1V 6Z4

April 8th, 1975

TO THE PRINCIPAL:

Several weeks ago you received a packet containing questionnaires relative to teacher decision making to be distributed to the primary (grades 1-3) teachers in your school. A number of these have been returned and I want to express my appreciation to you and your staff for your support in this project.

Being obliged to use the 1973-74 directory of schools as my resource I was unable to determine the precise number of primary teachers to whom the questionnaires were distributed. This information is necessary to enable me to calculate the percentage return of that mailing. It would be of great assistance if you would kindly fill in the enclosed card and send it by return mail.

Thank you again for your help in the distribution of the questionnaires, the continued encouragement of their return and the completion of the enclosed card.

Sincerely,

Ruth Whitehead

APPENDIX 7

DATA POSTCARD TO PRINCIPALS

Name of School _____

Number of Primary Teachers (Grades 1-3) _____

Number of Questionnaires Distributed _____

Thanks Again!

APPENDIX 8

THIRD LETTER TO SELECTED PRINCIPALS

3002 Southmore Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario.
K1V 6Z4

May 12th, 1975

Dear

Early in March I mailed questionnaires related to teacher decision making to your school. These were to be distributed to the teachers of grades 1-3. No doubt some of the questionnaires were misplaced or set aside due to the many demands of the teaching task. I am enclosing some extra copies of the questionnaire for those teachers who may have misplaced theirs.

Please express my appreciation to those who have replied. Each reply is crucial to my study. Thus I would appreciate your support in the encouragement of the other teachers to fill in the questionnaire and drop it in the mail.

A second mailing included a return postcard. Some of these postcards were not received. If a white card is enclosed with this letter would you please fill in the information and return it as soon as possible.

Thank you for your continued assistance in this project.

Sincerely,

Ruth Whitehead

APPENDIX 9

ABSTRACT OF

The Development of a Paradigm for the
Study of Teacher Preactive Decision Making

ABSTRACT OF

The Development of a Paradigm for the
Study of Teacher Preactive Decision Making¹

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a theoretically-based paradigm to facilitate research on teacher preactive decision making extending the model proposed by Myers. The secondary purpose of this study was to examine the number and kind of criteria by which teachers assess their preactive decisions when determining organizing centers for student learning. This part of the study provided a congruency check between the literature related to criteria for the assessment of organizing centers and teacher practice in the province of Ontario.

A major assumption, implicit in the literature related to teacher decision making, was that the lack of concise understanding of the process subverts the efforts and potentiality, not only of teachers, but also of other educational personnel responsible for the instruction and supervision of teachers. Central to this study was the assumption that the lack of definitiveness which presently characterizes preactive teaching is the result of a misunderstanding of the

¹ R. Whitehead, doctoral thesis presented to the School of Graduate Studies of the University of Ottawa, Ontario, July 1975, xx-141 p.

process of decision making, not only by educational personnel but also by writers of literature related to teaching.

In the literature related to preactive decision making the responsibilities of the teacher are consistently isolated and the relationships among the levels of decision making are exemplified. Empirical studies seek validation of preactive teaching tasks made explicit in the literature and empirical studies emphasize the action dimension as opposed to the choice dimension of the decision-making process. Thus the paradigm developed in this study extends the comprehensive action model proposed by Myers by incorporating a choice dimension thus providing a theoretically-based framework for further study of teacher preactive decision making.

The paradigm consists of three dimensions; the input, the choice, and the assessment. The second part of this study examined the relationship between literature and Ontario teacher practice in regard to the assessment dimension. The results of this investigation indicated that congruency does exist between literature and practice in the kind of criteria employed by teachers but the number of criteria should be increased.

The complete paradigm was developed to provide a framework for the study of teacher preactive decision making. The following areas for further research were recommended:

1. Studies investigating the relationship between teacher skills or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed.

2. Studies investigating the relationship between teacher goals or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed.

3. Studies investigating the relationship between teacher knowledge or any segment thereof and the selection of organizing centers and/or number and kind of criteria employed.