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THE USE OF SELECTED CONTENT FROM THE HUMANITIES IN GRADUATE TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

Gordon Foster, B.A., M.Ed.

* * * * * *

The Ohio State University
1965

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Adviser
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With considerable humility the writer wishes to express his thanks to his immediate family for their material help and patient forbearance: his daughters, Susan and Rebecca, and his charming wife, Kathleen.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Persons responsible for the shaping of programs for the preparation of educational administrators are continually beset by an increasing number of content items which seem to have high priority for a viable curriculum: skills in practical technologies to be mastered, experiences in original or simulated situations to be undergone, knowledges in intricate concepts of process to be learned, and personal competencies in attitudes and values to be attained.

Thus, current discussions of preparatory programs often start out with an account of the tremendous social changes that are taking place in our country or the urgent problems that are being forced upon us by our position of leadership in a shrinking world and follow with a list of formidable challenges which will confront educational administrators as a result. To meet these challenges successfully, an image of the ideal administrator as a perceptive generalist begins to take shape:¹ an administrative leader who

¹This concept has been discussed in the UCEA report entitled: "Improving Preparatory Programs for Educational Administrators in the United States: Some Action Guides" (Columbus, Ohio: The University Council for Educational Administration, n.d.). (Mimeographed.)
somehow must be prepared to utilize his attributes of intelligence, knowledge, moral courage, open-mindedness, analytical ability, and compassion to provide the leadership and conceptual and operational skills needed for managing our vast educational enterprises of the future.

Such discussions of ideal administrators and exemplary programs to prepare them are certainly not indigenous to the area of educational administration. They reflect the difficult problems of redefining administrative concepts and restructuring role images to comply with changing antecedent social forces and cultural values, and of relating these concepts and images to program content. A university staff attempting to develop and maintain a quality graduate program in school administration is inevitably faced with making difficult decisions about what should be included and what should be omitted in the curriculum; obviously, no program of any practical duration or reasonable depth could educate candidates for all the competencies seemingly required.

It must be assumed, in spite of occasional evidence to the contrary, that university staffs responsible for these decisions of selection and elimination employ rational processes based on adequate and relevant information. This study is simply an attempt to add to such a body of knowledge.
Background of the Problem

In examining the policy-making processes of educational government, Campbell formulated a flow line suggesting that policies and programs have their origins in the dominant values of society. In the present century, training programs for school administrators have been influenced by a progression of administrative concepts or role images emanating from shifting societal values and emphasizing operational efficiency, human relations, and theoretical research.

Programs of preparation for administrators

A detailed review of the literature related to training programs for administrators, studies of administrators and their values, and methods of educating administrators in values is found in Chapter III of the text. A skeleton survey of the literature related to the problem is presented at this time to provide a minimum background and basis for following the formulation of the problem and the design of the study.

The progression of administrative concepts which have directed the course of preparatory programs can be schematized

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in a number of ways but generally seems to follow the business model. Callahan presented a historical study showing that schools have usually adopted the business ideology and deplored the far-reaching effects of this for education.\(^3\) In its earliest phase school administration was viewed as a practical art to be learned by the trial-and-error method or by borrowing from the legacy of successful practitioners. While formal training programs for school administrators were not developed to any great extent before 1900,\(^4\) this period formed an experiential foundation upon which early professional considerations were based.

The introduction of modern business methods at the turn of the century brought an era of operational efficiency to the schools. The researcher of this period most important to American industry was Frederick W. Taylor, who believed that efficient job performance was the primary goal of business administration. Time and motion studies contributed to a technology of production, and the line and staff organization permitted optimum supervision and control of efficiency factors.\(^5\) School administrators, faced for the first time with large-scale organizational problems,

\(^3\)Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962).


often compared the schools to a factory and adopted Taylor's managerial techniques, viewing the students as raw materials to be processed and the teaching staffs as production line workers subject to scientific management and control.\(^6\)

The famous Hawthorne studies, conducted under the leadership of Professor Elton Mayo of Harvard, brought an emphasis on human relations to business administration which was not precipitated by a general benevolence on the part of management, but was undertaken within a framework of the organization's welfare. Mayo demonstrated the relevance for production outputs of the employee's personal security and of informal groups, and the need for more than one direction in any open social system of the flow of demand, communications, and authority.\(^7\)

The importance of human relations for business administration was to be reflected in school administration and the preparation of educational administrators. Much of the early work of the Kellogg-sponsored Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) was oriented to Mayo's


human relations approach. Training programs for educational administrators began to emphasize the development of skills in communication and group processes, professional leadership in the utilization of personnel, and a value orientation for the worth of the individual and toward consensus as opposed to conflict.  

As the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration progressed, however, research in the social sciences and other branches of administration began to influence the various program centers toward an interest in theory development. The unwieldy size of burgeoning governmental agencies and expanding industrial complexes during World War II had prompted social scientists to utilize readily available research funds in the scientific analysis of such administrative processes as programming, decision-making, and communication. The omission of value judgments and the development of computer technology made description and prediction of administrative behavior more feasible, and a science of administration began to develop. Early attempts were made to build concepts and theories, and some thought was given toward their practical applications.

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Professors of educational administration set about to develop an adequate theory of administrative behavior, and major research efforts in the field became increasingly conceptual in nature. Much attention was directed toward designing models of social interaction through which social roles and role concepts in educational systems might be described and behavior eventually predicted. Courses or seminars in administrative theory were offered in graduate programs, and social scientists were often called upon to form an interdisciplinary instructional team. Many programs strongly recommended the inclusion of a minor area of study in the social sciences.

As the subject matter of school administration shifted from a practical orientation to a more theoretical one, a conscious effort was made to avoid teleological pursuits which might weaken the validity of scientific inquiry. Griffiths, in defining the nature and meaning of theory for educators, laid particular stress on the importance of omitting value judgments in theory construction.

\(^9\)Ibid.


There was a substantial feeling in the profession, however, that a background in the technologies of administrative tasks, in the social sciences, and in theory development would not be catholic enough to meet the challenges with which education would be confronted in the next decades. Goldhammer warned of the danger that the social sciences would be found so attractive and useful that other productive fields would be disregarded. He felt the humanities could play a complementary role in preparatory programs and give major assistance in establishing organizational goals.¹²

Harlow proclaimed purpose-defining the central function of school administrators and cited a major source for developing program content as those studies dealing with value judgments.¹³ Culbertson visualized the future administrator as a generalist, adept not only in the managerial role but also in the leadership role of developing educational purposes.¹⁴ He argued that value content from the humanities could illuminate organizational purposes and policies and

¹²Keith Goldhammer, The Social Sciences and the Preparation of Educational Administrators (Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration in cooperation with the Division of Educational Administration, University of Alberta, 1963), p. 22.


assist potential administrators in learning to deal with administrative processes.\textsuperscript{15}

There seemed to be a position developing for a threefold division of content in preparatory programs which would include the humanities, the social sciences, and the technologies of administration. A publication by the American Association of School Administrators in 1963 supported this division of content and stressed the importance of the integrating effect of a total program, not its constituent parts; in other words, the training experience should not be a series of distinct educational experiences but a genuine, overarching gestalt.\textsuperscript{16}

Inadequacies of present programs have also served as a spur to interest in new content. Howe cited shallow repetition of content, concern with minutae, and an overanalysis of the obvious as examples of instructional problems.\textsuperscript{17} Conant, speaking before the annual national


\textsuperscript{17} Harold Howe, "The Care and Feeding of Superintendents," \textit{Saturday Review}, February 17, 1962, pp. 58-59.
convention of school administrators, characterized some superintendents as lacking backbone and a wide acquaintance with the culture of the modern world, and expressed some doubt that traditional course patterns would remedy the situation.\textsuperscript{18} Surveys of training programs by the American Association of School Administrators in 1960\textsuperscript{19} and again in 1964\textsuperscript{20} showed little evidence of program change during these years except for a marked increase in the study of the social sciences. Moore documented the continuing dissatisfaction with training programs in spite of the attempts of various committees and agencies to upgrade the profession and promote curriculum innovations.\textsuperscript{21}

Administrators and values

Very little research has been done in the area of values and administration. Kluckhohn's definition of a

\textsuperscript{18}James B. Conant, "The Roles of the School Board and the Superintendent," a paper read at the AASA convention in Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 18, 1963.

\textsuperscript{19}AASA, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, 1960.


value as "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action"\(^{22}\) seemed to have particular significance for education since it encouraged creativity and viability in value determination and implementation. Willower classified studies dealing with values in administration as "descriptive" or "normative" and supported the scientific respectability of both types.\(^{23}\)

Descriptive studies by Prince,\(^{24}\) McPhee,\(^{25}\) Abbott,\(^{26}\) and Newsome and Gentry\(^{27}\) were concerned with the educational values held by citizens and educators or with individual


\(^{27}\)George L. Newsome, Jr., and Harold W. Gentry, "Logical Consistency, Values, and Authoritarianism in a Sample of Public School Superintendents," Journal of Teacher Education, XIV (December, 1963), 411-16.
value systems of organizational role incumbents and the implications of these value orientations for administrative behavior. To test hypotheses in a school setting, Prince devised the Differential Values Inventory, a forced-choice instrument dichotomizing values as traditional or emergent.\textsuperscript{28} Cunningham examined policy decisions of a board of education over an extended period of time and, dividing the process into five operations, found that cultural values affected each stage.\textsuperscript{29}

Normative studies are concerned with questions of educational philosophy and value judgments. Smith defined value judgments as a distinctive type of understanding compounded of (1) a knowledge of facts, (2) a grasp of the relation of ideas, and (3) certain emotional or noncognitive elements.\textsuperscript{30} Superintendents exercising leadership in purpose-defining or reaching decisions in their administrative capacity make choices on the basis of some system of values which may function at the conscious or subliminal level in any particular instance.

\textsuperscript{28}Prince, pp. 53-61.


\textsuperscript{30}Philip G. Smith, \textit{Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration}, School-Community Development Study Monograph Series, No. 5 (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956), p. 11.
Social psychologists such as Riesman\textsuperscript{31} and Linton\textsuperscript{32} suggested that value judgments were becoming increasingly difficult due to conflicts resulting from changing value standards. Spindler worked out a classification of changing American values\textsuperscript{33} which was refined by Getzels as follows: 

\begin{center}
\textbf{traditional values}--Puritan morality, work-success ethic, individualism, and future-time orientation; and \textbf{emergent values}--sociability, relativistic moral attitudes, conformity, and hedonism or present-time orientation.\textsuperscript{34}
\end{center}

\textbf{Development of values}

A variety of strategies exists for developing knowledge and skill in values. J. Raths cited four basic approaches now being used at lower levels of education: (1) the lecture method, (2) peer group pressure, (3) identification with appropriate models, and (4) a reward and punishment technique.\textsuperscript{35} Research has indicated that these plans vary in 

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{31}David Riesman, Nathan Glazer, and Reuel Denney, The Lonely Crowd (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1950).
\item \textsuperscript{33}George G. Spindler, "Education in a Transforming American Culture," Harvard Educational Review, XXV, No. 3 (Summer, 1955), 145-56.
\item \textsuperscript{34}Jacob W. Getzels, "Changing Values Challenge the Schools," School Review, LXV (Spring, 1957), 92-102.
\end{itemize}
effectiveness but it may be more important to note that they seem to utilize such properties as force, experience, precept, and imitation to develop prescribed values in a nonrational manner.

Existential psychologists supported the idea of helping each student build his own value system, asserting that the most important teaching contributed to the learner's self-realization. To implement this rationale, L. Raths developed an instructional method in which the teacher first establishes a climate of psychological safety and then uses clarifying procedures, eliciting value statements from students and clarifying them in an indirect manner similar to that used in Rogerian counseling.

Brameld recommended a similar but more structured approach to values in education, employing a dialectic process he called "consensual validation." Brauner upheld the academic ideals of scholarship and intellectual

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neutralism, claiming the emotional emphasis placed on commitment and doctrinal values by the foundation programs in teacher training had made their courses resemble a minister's sermons" \(^{39}\) and aligned them with social reconstructionism. \(^{40}\) Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia presented a taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain arranged along a continuum of internalization from lowest to highest: (1) receiving, (2) responding, (3) valuing, (4) conceptualization and organization of a value system, and (5) characterization by a value or value complex. \(^{41}\) The taxonomy should facilitate discussion about what level of value internalization is desirable for any given situation.

Values and literature

Late in the nineteenth century Matthew Arnold took the position that poetry (imaginative literature) would become the new interpreter of life, filling the vacuum left by the steady decline of organized religion. \(^{42}\) Literary critics


\(^{40}\) Ibid.


have divided on the issue, some perceiving literature as a powerful social force, others as art for art's sake. Since literature has, in fact, become a powerful force on occasion, moral censors--beginning with Plato and continuing through Arnold to the present--have attempted to subordinate much of it to political or moral ends. For example, Tolstoy, having already produced his major artistic creations, restricted his definition of true art (including literature) to that which promoted the religious values he so ardently embraced during his later years.\textsuperscript{43}

Hough argued that the only aim for literary education consistent with an open social system was a general imaginative enlargement diffuse enough in its own material and scope as to make "its very diffuseness its essential virtue."\textsuperscript{44} He viewed the novel as having greater value impact than other literary forms since it presented characters in action, making choices and suffering their consequences. The modern novel, with its "undetermined fluidity, its experimentation, its reaching and exploration in a hundred different ways"\textsuperscript{45} was well suited to a thorough confrontation with values.


\textsuperscript{44}Graham Hough, \textit{The Dream and the Task: Literature and Morals in the Culture of Today} (London: Gerald Duckworth and Co., Ltd., 1963), p. 75.

\textsuperscript{45}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 21.
In summary, training programs for superintendents have followed societal values and the business model, progressing in emphasis from operational efficiency and human relations to theoretical research. As future administrators are prepared to assume a leadership role in purpose-defining, new content is needed for training in values and value judgments. This need is accentuated by the conflicts growing out of changing cultural values and the seeming disposition our society has for closed strategies of value internalization. There is psychological support for the position that each person can receive help in building or restructuring his own value system by having value concepts presented neutrally at a lower level of internalization than commitment; the diffuseness of modern fiction may give it a strong potential for providing the pluralistic value models needed in such a presentation.

Definition of the Problem

Persons concerned with preparing school administrators are aware of the many instructional difficulties which need to be faced. Administrators in our schools testify privately to the lack of stimulating intellectual experiences in much of their professional training. At the same time, their

46 Howe, Saturday Review, p. 58.
professional organizations and many certification and accreditation agencies have recently upgraded standards for graduate training programs, in effect doubling the number of semester hours of study which will be required of future candidates.\(^{47}\) There is also evidence that these future administrators will need preparation for a role emphasizing leadership in purpose-defining and policy development, as well as the present managerial functions.

There is a need, then, to develop new program content which will complement present subject matter, provide imaginative and stimulating materials for course expansion, and furnish training for the shifting emphasis in administrative roles. Fundamental to the optimum development of additional content, however, is the prior need for rationales to facilitate content analysis and assessment.

The problem is to develop a rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate level programs for school administrators; to determine by analysis whether selected content from the humanities provides a wide range of value models— as assumed in the rationale; and to determine whether the rationale is perceived favorably by advanced graduate students in educational administration who have had several years of experience as school administrators.

The "rationale" to be developed in this study was considered to be synonymous with such terms as "the underlying reasons," "the justification," "the rational basis," or "the grounds." The development of the rationale was therefore concerned with providing rational bases and underlying reasons--a logical justification for using selected content from the humanities in graduate programs for school administrators. Content from the humanities was limited to selected modern novels, an analysis being made of their potential for providing the education in values and value judgments made necessary by the inclusion of leadership in purpose-defining as a major task of the superintendency.

The following major suppositions taken by the rationale were examined at the perceptual level:

1. Graduate students hold ambivalent attitudes toward their own training program experiences, relating a variety of positive and negative reactions.

2. The most appropriate role of the future superintendent is a perceptive generalist.

3. Education in purpose-defining skills and values is an important function of graduate training programs.

4. A need exists for curriculum balance in graduate programs including content from both the social sciences and the humanities.
5. The use of content from the modern novel in graduate programs constitutes a valid approach to preparation in values and purpose-defining skills.

Definition of Terms

There were a number of terms used in the study for which definitions seemed warranted.

**Purpose-defining** is the clarification of educational goals or the larger objectives to which any educational activity is directed in order to facilitate decisions about what goals or objectives are of most worth.

**Policy development** is the establishment of guidelines for administrative action designed to carry out the goals of the educational enterprise.

**Graduate level programs** include formal graduate work at the master's, six-year specialist's, or doctoral degree levels.

**School administrators** include school superintendents, elementary and secondary principals, and central office staff members. Particular emphasis was placed in this study on the preparation of superintendents with the realization that in many cases principals and central office staff members eventually become superintendents.

The term **humanities**, as used in this study, includes general and educational philosophy, languages and literature, history, and the fine arts.
The term literature, as used in the study, is that portion of the humanities commonly classified as having the two main divisions of poetry and prose and including such forms as the novel, essay, drama, biography, and short story.\(^48\)

A curriculum innovation is considered something new in curriculum content or methodology— an addition rather than an intervention or change.

A value is "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action."\(^49\)

A value judgment is a distinctive type of understanding compounded of (1) a knowledge of facts, (2) a grasp of the relation of ideas, and (3) certain emotional or non-cognitive elements.\(^50\)

Value orientation is a term closely related in meaning to value. "A value orientation is a set of linked propositions embracing both value and existential elements."\(^51\)

\(^48\)Such terms as "related literature" or "a review of the literature" have their usual meanings for a dissertation.

\(^49\)Kluckhohn, Toward a General Theory of Action, p. 395.

\(^50\)Smith, Philosphic-Mindedness in Educational Administration, p. 11.

\(^51\)Kluckhohn, Toward a General Theory of Action, p. 409.
A rationale is considered to be synonymous with such terms as "the underlying reasons," "the justification," "the rational basis," or "the grounds."

An attitude is "the degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object."\(^{52}\)

Assumptions of the Study

There were a number of assumptions made for the study.

1. Graduate training programs in school administration are based on administrative concepts and are subject to revision as societal values and the demands of administration change.

2. Persons responsible for preparing school administrators base decisions concerning training programs on rationales supporting the use of any specific content.

3. In a democratic society it is preferable to maintain open techniques for reaching decisions about educational purposes.

4. The personal values and value systems of administrators exercising leadership in defining educational purpose need to be subjected to a recurrent analysis.

5. Graduate students and administrators can receive effective help in understanding cultural values and in clarifying and structuring their own value systems.

\(^{52}\)L. L. Thurstone, "Comment," American Journal of Sociology, LII (May, 1946), 40.
6. The stratified sample of graduate students used to test the rationale in the study is knowledgeable in the area of program content.

7. While some training programs for school administrators include content from the humanities (usually educational foundations), the emphasis is quite limited at the graduate level.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in the following ways:

1. The rationale for the use of selected content from the humanities in graduate programs was limited to justifying their use only in relation to preparing future administrators to cope with such areas as educational values, issues, purposes, and policies.

2. In developing the rationale, content from the humanities was limited to content from the modern novel.

3. The sample of graduate students used to test the rationale at the perceptual level was limited to students from 11 midwestern universities who had completed their doctoral course work and had several years experience in administrative positions.

4. No effort was made to test the rationale at the experimental level; consequently, no hypotheses were drawn in relation to it.
5. The interviews were subject to bias in that the researcher for the study was also the interviewer.

Significance of the Study

The challenges which confront education are continually forcing professional organizations of school administrators and the universities that sponsor preparatory programs to re-examine critically the content and methodology of existing curriculums and to strive increasingly for the incorporation of meaningful innovations.

During the past decade the study of the social sciences has emerged as a respected component of graduate training programs in many universities. A rationale for their inclusion has been developed by Goldhammer, and the stability of their presence is evidenced by the fact that the *Sixty-Third Yearbook, Part II* of the National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE) has been devoted to a discussion of the behavioral sciences and educational administration. 

The humanities may now be at that stage in respect to preparatory programs which the social sciences reached a decade ago. Several universities are currently committed to experimenting with their inclusion in preparatory curriculums

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on an exploratory basis. The professional organizations in educational administration have indicated in one way or another the strength which they feel greater rapport with the humanities would lend to the superintendent's role of leadership in purpose-defining for education.55

A great number of individual authorities in education and administration—men such as Conant,56 Goldhammer,57 Keller,58 Keppel,59 and Walton60—have suggested the practical importance of an affinity with the humanities for an educational leader who has to cope with the rapidly changing concepts of administration.

The significance of the study emerges from the need to synthesize in some way this emerging support for the humanities, translate its random arguments into an orderly rationale (limited in this instance to a rationale for

55 For example, see the AASA publication, The Education of a School Superintendent, 1963.

56 Conant, paper at AASA convention, 1963.

57 Goldhammer, The Social Sciences and the Preparation of Educational Administrators, p. 22.


using content from modern novels to promote education in values and purpose-defining skills), test its relevance, and suggest some practical implications for graduate level training programs in educational administration.

If a strong rationale is developed for including some humanistic studies in curriculum content and if a moderately favorable reaction to such an inclusion can be expected, there is every reason to believe a number of institutions would be receptive to the innovation.

Organization of the Report

The following chapters present in detail the methodology of the study, a review of the literature, the rationale, an analysis of the data, and conclusions and implications drawn from the data. A description of the research procedures, the sample, the instrumentation, and the administration of the instruments is presented in Chapter II. The rationale for the use of selected content from the humanities in graduate training programs for school administrators is developed in Chapter III and includes a detailed review of the literature. A content analysis of ten modern novels to determine their potential for providing a wide range of value positions is presented in Chapter IV. Data from the instruments administered to the sample of advanced graduate students and from interviews held with them are treated in
Chapter V. The study is summarized, conclusions drawn, and implications both for administrative preparatory programs and for further investigation suggested in Chapter VI.
CHAPTER II

DESIGN AND INSTRUMENTATION

The major objectives of the study evolving from the statement of the problem were (1) to develop a rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate training programs for school administrators; (2) to determine by analysis whether selected content from the humanities provides pluralistic value models—as assumed in the rationale; and (3) to determine whether the rationale is perceived favorably by advanced graduate students in educational administration. A discussion follows about the procedures and instruments used to carry out these objectives.

Developing the Rationale

In the early stages of planning this study it was judged impracticable to develop a position for the use of all branches of the humanities in the graduate program on the basis of the many and varied advantages that might accrue from their study. Since the contemporary literature concerning the preparation of school administrators seemed to be focused primarily on using the humanities in relation to such areas as educational values, issues, purposes, and policies, it was decided to delimit the rationale to a
discussion of content which might help to prepare an administrator to cope with these areas at a higher level of sophistication. While a strong case could be made for using content from many of the humanistic fields in this regard—and from several of the social sciences as well—the modern novel was chosen as having greater emotional impact than some of the other fields and as being particularly well suited to a confrontation with changing cultural values and contemporary educational issues. Its diffuseness and fluidity were considered advantageous in avoiding past errors of training techniques which often emphasized prescription and commitment\(^1\) rather than individual value clarification and personal self-realization.

As the rationale was developed, therefore, it took the positions that (1) curriculum innovations in the form of new content are needed in graduate programs, particularly in the area of educating for values and value judgments, to prepare potential administrators for a leadership role in purpose-defining and policy development; (2) graduate students can receive effective help in understanding cultural values and in structuring their own value systems; and (3) content from modern novels has a strong potential for provid-

Content Analysis of the Novels

In order to determine whether modern fiction does, in fact, provide a wide range of value positions—as assumed in the rationale—it seemed important to select a representative group of novels and make an analysis of their content in relation to values. Ten contemporary problems were selected by the researcher from the educational literature as illustrative of a large classification of topics having implications for educational purposes and policies:

1. Automation and technological advance: unemployment, the increase of anomie, and social engineering.

2. Autonomy of the individual: demands for group consensus and social conformity.

3. Changing economic attitudes: the values associated with the Protestant Ethic are being gradually replaced by the more relaxed values of the Social Ethic in our affluent society.

4. Changing moral attitudes: social class stratification, sexual behavior, religious loyalties, and moral standards are in a state of flux.

5. Interracial and intercultural conflict.


7. Mental and physical illness.

8. Population increase and mobility: the problems of urban dwellers and transient laborers are intensified.

9. Poverty and cultural deprivation.
10. War and peace: international tensions and the futility of modern war.²

Fourteen literary experts were then asked by the researcher (Appendix A) to make a selection of twentieth century novels to match each of these problems, using the following criteria: relevance of the novel to the problem and the literary quality of the novel. The panel was chosen by the researcher--subject to the approval of his reading committee--from literary critics, university professors in English, or social scientists with a combined knowledge of literature and social problems.³

Since the panel members were asked to designate a first and second choice of novels for each problem category, the responses were given weighted values of either (2) for a first choice or (1) for a second choice and tabulated; the


³Eleven persons responded to the request and made up the panel. Institutions or media represented by the group were as follows: Anderson College, Brandeis University, Bucknell University, Earlham College, Miami University of Ohio, Oberlin College, Ohio University, Saturday Review, Swarthmore College, The Cincinnati Enquirer, and the University of California at Berkeley.
novels with the highest number of points in each category were then selected for the study.

Following the selection of the novels, it was necessary to determine a procedure for analyzing them in relation to their values. Berelson defined content analysis as "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication." He made explicit certain assumptions which were implied by this definition: (1) inferences about the relationship between intent and content or between content and effect can be validly made; (2) study of the manifest content is meaningful, and a common universe of discourse exists among the audience, the communicator, and the analyst; and (3) quantitative description of relative frequencies of content categories are meaningful and relevant.5

Applied to fictional materials, Berelson's technique would generally result in a "value analysis" of readily definable desires or value conceptions which motivate the actions of the characters. An application of this quasi-statistical method to Richard Wright's novel Black Boy yielded over seven thousand value-emphasis units.6

5Ibid., pp. 18-20.
More recently Martin made an analysis of the cognitive and value judgments contained in four novels and two of Shakespeare's plays and gleaned a total of 762 judgments which he listed and summarized in six essays, each documented by textual references and frequently corroborated by reference to social commentaries.7

In discussing content analysis from the standpoint of literary scholarship, however, Wellek and Warren suggested that the transfer of the "scientific ideals of objectivity, impersonality, and certainty"8 and "the introduction of the quantitative methods appropriately used in some sciences"9 to the study of literature have not been very successful.

Today there would be almost general recognition that this transfer has not fulfilled the expectations with which it was made originally. . . . Most promoters of this scientific invasion into literary study have either confessed failure and ended with skepticism or have comforted themselves with delusions concerning the future successes of the scientific method.10

It is apparent that a difference exists between the methods


9Ibid.

10Ibid.
and aims of the social sciences and the humanities, but that the methods of both may be intellectually valid.

An area undoubtedly exists where the two are contiguous or overlap. Wellek and Warren, for instance, agreed that the anti-scientific method of literary study, in its extreme formulation that "asserts the personal character of literary 'understanding' and the 'individuality,' even 'uniqueness,' of every work of literature," is so far out as to be unreasonable.

Personal "intuition" may lead to a merely emotional "appreciation," to complete subjectivity. To stress the "individuality" and even "uniqueness" of every work of art--though wholesome as a reaction against facile generalizations--is to forget that no work of art can be wholly "unique" since it then would be completely incomprehensible.

It follows that each work of literature is both individual and general and can be analyzed by seeking the scientific reliability of repetitively similar interpretations of manifest content in the quantitative sense or by permitting the psychological and perceptual predispositions of the reader to elicit idiosyncratic meanings from the latent content in a qualitative sense.

Berelson supported the broader definition of content analysis in defining qualitative analysis in this way:

A great number of non-numerical content studies call for attention by virtue of their general contributions in insight and interest.

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As a matter of fact, a broad definition of content analysis would of course include a large part of the work in literary criticism . . . and indeed any field in which the close reading of texts is followed by summary and interpretation of what appears therein.13

He suggested that this qualitative method of interpretation which simply involves the intelligent reading of a work plus sophisticated judgment about what is read be called content assessment, "since it ordinarily meets neither the objectivity nor the quantification requirement of our original definition."14

Since there seemed to be no true dichotomization between the quantitative and qualitative methods of content analysis, it appeared appropriate to adopt those elements of each which were most suitable for this study. It was first necessary, however, to select either a scale of value categories from the literature that would serve as a criterion for determining the emphases given to values in the novels or to formulate a new scale. Prince's Differential Values Inventory15 with its eight traditional or emergent value components (Appendix B) seemed particularly appropriate for adaptation to the study as it presented a relatively simple

13Berelson, p. 114.
14Ibid., p. 121.
15Prince, "Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness," pp. 36-81.
scheme of the changing cultural values in our society. The following procedures were then employed by the researcher for each of the ten novels:

1. A résumé of the plot was prepared.

2. A table was devised using Prince's value components, and the value positions of the leading characters and the total novel were classified.

3. An impressionistic interpretation of the content was written in support of the value classifications with limited documentation from the novel or reviews of the novel.

4. The value positions of the leading characters and the total novel were classified by four additional outside readers with experience as students or teachers of English literature.

5. A chi-square analysis of the agreement that existed between the ratings by the researcher and the outside readers was calculated with the probability of significance for the obtained chi-square.

The validity of a content analysis of this nature was supported by White's study of Black Boy in which the statistical data were both preceded and followed by a subjective type of interpretation:

In no respect is there any flat contradiction between the impressionistic interpretation and the statistical data. The keynotes of the impressionistic interpretation still stand . . . on all of these points the statistics serve only to give some added
assurance that the initial impressions were objectively valid (the kind of assurance which might help to make this kind of subject matter respectable for Ph.D. theses). 16

The methodology was also supported by Berelson's recommendation of qualitative analysis in certain instances:

1. Handling complex materials in the large on the assumption that meanings preside in the totality of impression, the Gestalt, and not in the atomistic combination of measurable units. 17

2. Finding the presence-absence of particular content (rather than relative frequencies). 18

3. Focusing on the intentions of the communicator rather than a straight description of the content itself. 19

It was felt that an analysis of the novels by additional readers with professional experience in the field of literature might contribute the effect needed to balance the more subjective interpretations of the researcher. 20 Outside readers with extensive experience as students or teachers of English literature were engaged for this purpose. 21

17 Berelson, p. 122.
18 Ibid., p. 119. 19 Ibid., p. 122.
20 In other words, it was assumed that a more valid analysis of content could be expected if a measure of agreement were found between the classifications of the researcher and those of the four outside readers who were considered to be "experts" in the field.
21 The group was made up of six graduate students from the English Department of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.
Readers were assigned to each novel in a pattern that guaranteed the analysis of each book by four different persons. A briefing session was held to acquaint them with the value scale and the method of classification being used. Printed forms of the value scale were then distributed for classifying each novel (Appendix B), and summaries were tabulated from the returns.

A chi-square ($X^2$) analysis of the agreement that existed between the value classifications assigned by the researcher and those assigned by the four outside readers was calculated for each novel (using Yates's correction), as well as the probability of significance ($P$) for the obtained $X^2$.

The Sample

The group used to test the rationale at the perceptual level was intended to include at least 66 advanced graduate students in educational administration programs at the doctoral level, 6 from each of the eleven midwestern universities that form the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC)—Chicago, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Michigan State, Minnesota, Northwestern, Ohio State, Purdue, and Wisconsin.

A letter was sent by the researcher, along with a covering letter from a member of The Ohio State University staff in educational administration (Appendix C), to the
faculty staffs in administration at these eleven universities asking them to prepare a list of 8 or 9 students for participation in the test pattern, using the following criteria in their selection: (1) students who had completed their course work for the doctoral degree or who were in the final stages of their programs; and (2) students with a minimum of three years experience as a superintendent of schools or an equivalent experience in another area of public administration. It was felt that these restrictions would insure a selection of students with a level of academic background and a depth of practical maturity sufficient to provide some realistic bases for judging rationales of program content.

These letters were all answered and a list of one hundred potential respondents was assembled. Eighty-four persons responded to an original mailing and interviews were held by the researcher with 75 of these persons over a period of two months. Since many of the interviewees were changing positions, not all of them could be reached and six of the interviews were made by telephone. The number of respondents participating in the study and the number of interviewees by university are shown in Table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Original Mailings</th>
<th>Inventory Respondents</th>
<th>Interviews Held</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6^a</td>
<td>6^b</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>84^a</strong></td>
<td><strong>75^b</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aEighty-five returns were received but one was incomplete and not valid.

^bSeventy-seven interviews were held; two were later found to be incomplete and not valid; six were made by telephone.

Instrumentation

Three basic instruments were employed to obtain the data needed to test the rationale at the perceptual level and to examine the questions related to it (Appendix D). These were (1) an attitude inventory on programs of preparation for school administrators, (2) an abstract of the rationale, and (3) an interview guide used by the researcher in interviewing the respondents. In addition to these basic instruments, a personal background data sheet was prepared to obtain a few demographic facts about each respondent plus
some information about his educational and job experiences.

In the construction of the instruments three sources were most helpful in deciding what sort of information would be useful and the manner in which to classify it: the study by the American Association of School Administrators, Professional Administrators for America's Schools;²² the accompanying publication, Profile of the School Superintendent,²³ which lists the same research findings in greater detail; and the more recent Committee for the Advancement of School Administration study, The Professional Preparation of Superintendents of Schools.²⁴ While both studies were concerned with the institutional perception of training programs, the earlier study also contained a block of items which sought the superintendent's perspective.

The first study suggested that "before we can evaluate proposed changes in preparation programs, we need to know where we are now. . . . What are considered by the respondents to be the strengths and weaknesses of present day programs?"²⁵ Much of the instrumentation in the present

²²AASA, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, 1960.

²³AASA, Profile of the School Superintendent, 1960.


²⁵AASA, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, p. 62.
study is directed to obtaining this information from the perceptual base of the student himself as he relates his studies to his on-going administrative experiences. A discussion of the development and uses of the instruments follows.

The attitude inventory

As the primary thrust of the data-gathering activity in this study was directed to obtaining a reaction to the possible use of selected content from the humanities in graduate training programs, it was necessary to examine the major questions related to the rationale and preparatory programs generally—what did students think about graduate programs, about using content from the social sciences and the humanities, about the need for preparation in values and purpose-defining skills, and so forth. Consequently, an instrument to assess student attitudes on programs of preparation was constructed around five basic scales:

1. Contemporary programs for preparing school administrators.
2. The use of social sciences in preparatory programs.
3. The use of humanities in preparatory programs.
4. The need for education in purpose-defining and values.
5. The role of the superintendent as a perceptive generalist.
Construction of the instrument was based on the method of "summatred ratings" proposed by Murphy and Likert, and more recently summarized by Edwards. For the purposes of the scales, an attitude was thought of as "the degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object." A psychological object can include any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, institution, ideal, or idea toward which people can differ, and an affect in the literature of psychology is simply a feeling, favorable, or unfavorable, towards an object. These procedures were followed:

1. Thirty statements (one hundred fifty in all) were compiled about each of the basic scales. Some of these were written by the researcher on the basis of his personal experiences, many were taken from the professional literature of educational administration, and a few were obtained by asking other graduate students to describe their reactions to any particular scale.

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29 Ibid.
2. The statements were then edited on the basis of certain informal criteria summarized from the literature by Edwards. For example, insofar as possible, factual, ambiguous, and irrelevant statements were eliminated, and short sentences with easy vocabulary were used.

3. A pilot instrument of 130 edited items was given to a sample population of 74 graduate students in four different universities whose background was expected to be reasonably similar to that of the test group used in the study. Responses were keyed to a 5-point continuum (strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree, strongly disagree) with weighted scores of 0-1-2-3-4 or 4-3-2-1-0; the statements were so worded that "strongly agree" signified a favorable attitude for half the statements in the scale, but unfavorable for the other half.

4. In selecting items for the final inventory an internal consistency criterion was used, those subjects scoring in the upper and lower 27 per cent (20 subjects in

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31 Students cooperating in the pilot study were from Miami University of Ohio, The Ohio State University, Syracuse University, and the University of Tennessee. The mean number of years of teaching experience was 4.3 and of administrative experience was 3.6.

32 Research by Likert found that scores based on the relatively simple assignment of integral weights correlated .99 with the more complicated normal deviate system of weights (Murphy and Likert, pp. 39-47).
each case) forming the criterion groups. A rank ordering of items was made on the basis of the magnitude of the difference between the means of the high and low groups. The six lowest-ranked items in each scale were then discarded (Table 2).

In checking the face validity of the items, copies of the pilot instrument were given to six professors in educational administration—all recent doctoral students themselves—who were asked to classify each statement as favorable or unfavorable in relation to the 5 scales making up the instrument. Wherever less than five out of the six raters expressed agreement, the item was dropped (Table 2).

It was decided that an assessment of the reliability of the instrument could best be done with the final test population. The split-half method was used—correlating scores on the odd-numbered statements with those on the even-numbered statements.

33 Murphy and Likert found that using the criterion of internal consistency method agreed very well (rho = +.91) with a correlation between the item responses and total scores (Murphy and Likert, pp. 281-291).

34 The six raters were graduates of Michigan State University, The Ohio State University, and Wayne State University.

35 Murphy and Likert, pp. 47-52.
TABLE 2
SELECTION OF ITEMS FOR THE ATTITUDE INVENTORY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale I Item</th>
<th>Scale II Item</th>
<th>Scale III Item</th>
<th>Scale IV Item</th>
<th>Scale V Item</th>
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<td>1.50 46</td>
<td>1.40 43</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.40 81</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.20 30</td>
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<td>0.75 68</td>
<td>0.60 4</td>
<td>0.40 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97 0.80 13</td>
<td>0.55 56</td>
<td>0.75 11</td>
<td>0.60 2</td>
<td>0.35 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 0.80 61</td>
<td>0.55 130</td>
<td>0.70 62</td>
<td>0.55 73</td>
<td>0.35 73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 0.70 58</td>
<td>0.55 117</td>
<td>0.70 21</td>
<td>0.55 107</td>
<td>0.30 107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86² 0.60 125³</td>
<td>0.45 39³</td>
<td>0.65 89³</td>
<td>0.40 110³</td>
<td>0.30 110³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7³ 0.45 115³</td>
<td>0.45 93³</td>
<td>0.35 84³</td>
<td>0.40 31³</td>
<td>0.30 31³</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>25³ 0.40 74³</td>
<td>0.40 17³</td>
<td>0.05 57³</td>
<td>0.35 72³</td>
<td>0.25 72³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80³ 0.40 9³</td>
<td>0.30 36³</td>
<td>0.00 112³</td>
<td>0.35 109³</td>
<td>0.20 109³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>121³ 0.30 2³</td>
<td>0.15 128³</td>
<td>0.10 95³</td>
<td>0.25 14³</td>
<td>0.00 14³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42³ 0.35 120³</td>
<td>0.15 34³</td>
<td>0.40 104³</td>
<td>0.10 51³</td>
<td>0.25 51³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

²Differences between mean scores of upper and lower 27 per cent of subjects based on weighted scores of 0-1-2-3-4 and 4-3-2-1-0.

³Items discarded because of low rank order of difference between mean scores.

⁴Items discarded when less than five out of six judges agreed on face validity.
The attitude inventory in its final form (Appendix D) contained 95 items which were distributed almost evenly among the five scales as shown in Table 3. If a subject responded "strongly agree" to each favorable statement on any one scale and "strongly disagree" to each unfavorable statement, a mean score of 5 would be given indicating the most favorable attitude possible toward the scale. Similarily, a mean score of 1 on any particular scale would indicate the most unfavorable attitude possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Scale I</th>
<th>Scale II</th>
<th>Scale III</th>
<th>Scale IV</th>
<th>Scale V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favorable items</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. The inventory, along with the background data sheet, was mailed with a covering letter to the list of one hundred potential respondents.

Abstract of the rationale

The rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate training programs for educational purposes...
administrators comprises Chapter III of the study. The problem immediately arose of how to present this to the respondent group for their reaction. Harrassed as administrators and graduate students are with requests for cooperation in research studies, it was apparent that a shrinkage operation of some proportions was needed before the instrument could be distributed.

It was decided that an abstract should be made of the finished rationale which would be lengthy enough to possess its essence but brief enough to be sent out without embarrassment. The instrument prepared by the researcher with these criteria in mind (Appendix D) was distributed to those persons who had responded to the initial mailing.

The interview guide

The stated objective of the interview was to determine the respondents' reactions to the rationale and their perception of its relevance for graduate programs preparing school administrators. In assessing reactions it seemed logical to direct the interview towards the major positions taken by the rationale, especially since this approach would relate closely to the scale items tested in the attitude inventory. An attempt was made in constructing the interview
guide, therefore, to examine the following suppositions at the perceptual level:

1. Graduate students hold ambivalent attitudes toward their own training program experiences, relating a variety of positive and negative reactions.

2. The most appropriate role of the future school superintendent is a perceptive generalist.

3. Education in purpose-defining skills and values is an important function of graduate training programs.

4. A need exists for curriculum balance in graduate programs including content from both the social sciences and the humanities.

5. The use of content from the modern novel in graduate programs constitutes a valid approach to preparation in purpose-defining skills and values.

Certain technical choices had to be made in developing the interview methodology. A compromise was made in relation to procedures between Merton's "focused interview" technique\(^\text{37}\) and what Maccoby and Maccoby termed a "standardized closed" interview.\(^\text{38}\) The focused interview employs an

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interview guide with a list of objectives and suggested questions but gives the interviewer considerable latitude within the framework of the guide.\textsuperscript{39} By a standardized interview Maccoby and Maccoby meant one in which the questions have been decided upon in advance of the interview, and are asked in the same wording and in the same order for all respondents. The questions in this type of interview may be either "open" or "closed."\textsuperscript{40}

The interview guide was constructed to force respondent choices on certain items. For example, responses to the following items were restricted to "strong, average, or weak": "How would you evaluate your graduate program as preparation for the superintendency? As preparation for a professorship in educational administration?" Other items were much more open-ended: "As you think back on your graduate program in administration, can you recall what appeared to you as one or two of its major strengths?" Questions were set in advance and asked in the same order and in approximately the same wording for all respondents.

In terms of scoring, four basic types of questions were used: (1) a request for a 3-point rating (strong, average, or weak) on a number of items relating to the

\textsuperscript{39}Merton, Fiske, and Kendall, pp. 3-11.

\textsuperscript{40}Maccoby and Maccoby, Handbook of Social Psychology, p. 451.
interviewee's graduate program; (2) a request for an opinion from the interviewee regarding different aspects of the rationale which could be checked off by the interviewer on a 3-point scale (agree, uncertain, or disagree); (3) a request for the interviewee to supply specific information about an area such as his graduate program or his administrative experience; and (4) a request for the interviewee's open-ended reaction to a specific question. In the first type of question the interviewee gave the rating, in the second type the interviewer made the choice (if any doubt was present, the choice was confirmed with the interviewee). In the last two types of questions the responses were coded by the interviewer from his notes as soon after the interview as possible.

The fact that the researcher for the study was also the interviewer should be mentioned as a possible weakness of the interview process. The familiarity of the interviewer with the subject matter and his status as a graduate student representing an institution of higher education appeared to be favorable factors in the interviews' success; on the other hand, it might be assumed that interviewees would be less critical of the rationale in conversation with its author than with an entirely neutral party. Within the limitations of financial, personnel, and time resources, however, it seemed impracticable to employ outside
interviewers; consequently, a special effort was made by the researcher to maintain objectivity in the interviews.

A preliminary interview guide was constructed and used with five advanced graduate students[^1] who had received copies of the initial instruments and the rationale. On the basis of these interviews the instrument was revised to its present form (Appendix D). Certain items were deleted altogether, usually because they proved redundant, and some were modified. For instance, one question--"What role do you think the superintendent ought to play in the area of educational purposes and policies?"--proved too open-ended to elicit specific responses and was rewritten so that the interviewees had to make a choice among role options. In some cases the order of the interview items was revised. The original idea of taping the interviews was dropped as not being really pertinent to this type of instrument. The idea of presenting the interviewees' attitude scale scores (which were then available) as a stimulus to the interview was also discarded since it did not prove to be a stimulus in the preliminary interviews.

**Background data sheet**

In order to acquire a minimum amount of demographic data and some background information on educational and

[^1]: The students were all from The Ohio State University.
professional experiences, a background data sheet was prepared (Appendix D). Information was obtained from the respondents in regard to—

1. Age.
2. Marital status.
3. Number of children.
4. Positions held in teaching and administration.
5. Years of experience in teaching and in administration.
7. Significant job experiences outside the educational field.
8. Areas of study and schools attended at the undergraduate, master's, and doctoral levels.
9. Semester hours earned in the following areas at the graduate level: administrative tasks, administrative processes, educational foundations, other professional education, social sciences, and humanities.

Method of Data Analysis

The nature of the data which involved a content analysis of ten novels as well as the results of the attitude scales and the personal interviews made for some diffusiveness. The method of content analysis, along with the
statistical treatment used to encourage its reliability, has been discussed earlier in this chapter.\textsuperscript{42}

In order to integrate the findings of the written instruments and the interviews, the data from both were quantitatively tabulated around the five basic questions that were being investigated: (1) respondents' attitudes toward programs of preparation; (2) respondents' perceptions of the role of the future superintendent; (3) respondents' attitudes on the need for education in purpose-defining skills and values at the graduate level; (4) respondents' attitudes toward a balanced curriculum which would include content from the social sciences, the humanities, and administrative technologies; and (5) respondents' perceptions of the relevance of using content from the modern novel in graduate programs. An additional section of the data included the tabulation of information about the respondents themselves.

The reliability of the five attitude scales was determined, using the split-half method. The scales were each divided into two equivalent "halves"--one half made up of the odd-numbered items, the other half made up of the even-numbered items. The correlation was found for these two half-tests, and the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula used

\textsuperscript{42}Supra, pp. 32-37.
for estimating the reliability coefficient for the whole test.\textsuperscript{43}

Chapter II has presented the design, procedures, and instrumentation of the study. The sample has been described, and the procedures for data analyses have been explained. In the following chapter the rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate programs is presented.

CHAPTER III

A RATIONALE FOR USING CONTENT FROM THE
HUMANITIES IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS

In Chapter I a brief account was given of the progression of administrative concepts and training programs during the present century; the need was stated for continued innovations in program content to meet the challenge of changing concepts; the problem of developing and testing a rationale for a specific innovation was posed; and a skeleton treatment of the literature related to the problem was provided.

The discussion of the nature of educational administration and the patterns of preparation that have reflected differing conceptions continues in Chapter III. The role of the superintendent as a generalist is supported, and the implications this concept has for training programs, particularly in the area of education for values and value judgments, are explored. Techniques for clarifying values are reviewed, and a position taken that modern novels have a strong potential for providing assistance in understanding cultural values and in clarifying and structuring individual value orientations.
A committee of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) in preparing action guides for improving preparatory programs recently called for the development of a long-range plan:

Experimental preparatory programs that go significantly beyond the best now in existence; projects which are national in orientation and which are designed to develop and test new instructional materials and new methodologies for preparing school leaders; projects which (a) are designed to organize current knowledge about significant questions of educational policy in the United States and which (b) contain plans to get this knowledge into preparatory programs and into the practice of administration in school districts.1

In the latest survey of preparatory programs by the American Association of School Administrators in 1964 one of the persistent problems that was mentioned in program development was the need for an adequate theoretical base for preparing administrators.

Although school administrators and professors of school administration are to be commended for their successes, it is imperative that we examine the rationale for what we are doing. There is evidence in this report that there is great comfort in the knowledge that we are doing things about like others are doing them. We need to take stock of why we are doing what we are doing. We need to explore why we are using new materials for instruction, field experiences, and related disciplines and why we use them in the manner we do.2

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2AASA, The Professional Preparation of Superintendents of Schools, p. 46.
Thus, the development of rationales for program content and procedures for testing them at the perceptual and experimental levels remains of great importance to the profession and its continued improvement.

Administrative Concepts and Training Programs

Programs for preparing educational administrators originate from administrative concepts which in turn are related to the dominant values of the larger society. It is not surprising that in a country where the accomplishments of business and the efficiency of industry are widely recognized, concepts in school administration generally have followed the business model. The tremendous and rapid growth of the educational enterprise in the twentieth century has contributed to this tendency.

There are a number of ways of schematizing the progression of administrative concepts that has taken place in the short history of educational administration. A recent publication by the American Association of School Administrators divided the progression into five eras and characterized the role image of the superintendent in each era as follows: (1) a schoolmaster with little formal training; (2) a charismatic leader—a statesman or prophet; (3) a business manager—superintendent; (4) a technician in scientific

3Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, 1962.
management; and (5) a genuine professional with broad dimensions of knowledge, skills, convictions, and a sense of mission for public education.  

Sayers and Madden, discussing administration in a text oriented to democratic philosophy in education, dichotomized administrative concepts as autocratic or democratic. In their view school administration has made partial progress through an era of operational efficiency or Taylorization and an era with a more humane management approach pioneered by the work of Mayo. School administration at present is wavering between a pattern of democratic conceptions and a bureaucratic-type organization in which manipulation based on behavioral science research makes the autocratic aspects more palatable to the organizational role incumbents.  

Callahan and Button, describing historic American concepts of school administration, divided the past century into the following eras: (1) the administrator as philosopher-educator, 1865-1900; (2) the transition period, 1900-1913; (3) the school administrator as business manager, 1913-1915; (4) professional preparation of the school administrator (exemplified by Cubberly and Strayer), 1915-1929; and (5) a

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4 AASA, The Education of a School Superintendent, pp. 3-5.

search for new concepts in school administration (Moehlman, Mort, and Sears), 1930-1950.6

Bertram Gross, in relating the major efforts between 1900 and 1950 toward establishing a scientific base for business administration,7 developed a slightly different progression in terms of persons as well as of ideas: (1) Taylor, Fayol, Gulick, and Urwick—the gospel of efficiency; and (2) Mayo, Follett, Roethlisberger, Barnard, and Simon—the new beginnings.8

The overview of past emphases in training programs and administrative concepts presented in Chapter I of this study was based on a progression stressing operational efficiency, human relations, and more recently the development of scientific theory.

Preprofessional era, 1870-1910

There was little need for school administration in America until schools and school systems became large enough


8Gross states: "No label more specific than new beginnings is broad enough to encompass the multilinear content of this era characterized by interests in human relations, communication, and decision-making," ibid., p. 45.
to warrant some coordination of activities. By 1870 there were very few city or state superintendents and they had no great administrative authority. Little specific training was needed for these individuals: "The requirements for schoolmastership were only a little more knowledge of subject matter than that of the teachers, and a proper meekness in relationships with the school committee."  

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century the size and rate of increase in city school enrollments and the curricular needs of America's growing commercial enterprises made new and more complex demands on school administrations. These challenges called for more prominent figures in the superintendency, best exemplified perhaps by William T. Harris, Superintendent of the St. Louis Schools (1868-1880) and later United States Commissioner of Education (1889-1906). Cremin gave Harris primary credit for professionalizing the art of school administration and called his career a "rather remarkable marriage of the intensely idealistic philosopher and the eminently practical schoolman."  

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9 Callahan and Button, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 73.  
10 AASA, The Education of a School Superintendent, p. 4.  
In this early phase school administration was viewed as a practical art surrounded by an aura of common sense. The art was to be learned by the trial-and-error method or by borrowing from the legacy of successful practitioners.

Formal training programs and a professional body of literature for school administrators were not developed to any great extent before 1900. While the emphasis of this period was on charismatic leadership and rule-of-thumb procedures, it formed an experiential foundation upon which early professional considerations were based.

**Era of operational efficiency, 1910-1930**

In the interests of greater productive efficiency and higher financial profits industrial psychologists at the beginning of the twentieth century were attempting to increase efficiency by the manipulation of certain psychological or physiological variables such as fatigue (thought to be solely a physiological condition), task monotony, ventilation, lighting, heating, and humidity. The researcher of this era who probably had the most lasting effect on American industrial methods was Frederick W. Taylor, whose concept of business administration was focused on the scientific management of job performance. Taylor set out to increase worker efficiency by systematically analyzing the tasks involved in performing various jobs and then determining the most efficient way to perform these tasks. His work laid the foundation for modern management theory and practice.

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efficiency on the basis of the following principles: (1) selecting the best man for the job, (2) instructing him in the most efficient methods and economical movements to employ in his work, and (3) giving incentives in the form of higher wages to the best workers. He also took the position that all employees should be cognizant of the fact that each shop existed first, last, and all time, for the purpose of paying dividends to the owners.¹⁴

To eliminate inefficiency, emphasis was placed on technical knowledge relating to operational aspects of production and on the line and staff organizational form for better control of efficiency factors. Taylor's three main prescriptions--time and motion studies, bonus incentives, and control supervisors--were logical extensions of his administrative concept.

What is most significant about Taylor's early experiments is not so much their specific content, much of which still has relevance in one way or another to industrial psychology, but the basic assumptions involved. The worker was considered as a machine, a mechanical model with a mind vaguely attached. Furthermore, he was considered to be driven by purely economic motives, by fear or greed, self-love, and a competitive spirit of individualism. This

economic man, popularized by Adam Smith, was later given a biological rationalization by Darwin and an ethical expression in Protestantism.

As rapidly expanding school systems were faced for the first time with large-scale organizational problems, administrators logically sought relief in Taylor's managerial methods. The publicity given to the scientific management movement and the claims made for it in eliminating inefficiency brought severe criticism of school administrators and hastened the change from the concept of the superintendent as a scholarly, educational statesman to a business manager.

Taylor's ideas made a tremendous impact on school administration and the men largely responsible for preparing administrators in the first quarter of the twentieth century. Cubberly, Bobbitt, Spaulding, Strayer, and other leaders often compared the school to a factory, viewing the students as raw materials to be processed and the teachers as production-line workers subject to scientific supervision and control. Cubberly, for example, stated:

Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which the raw products (children) are to be shaped and

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16 Callahan and Button, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, pp. 76-84.
fashioned into products to meet the various demands of life. The specifications for manufacturing come from the demands of twentieth century civilization, and it is the business of the school to build its pupils according to the specifications laid down. This demands good tools, specialized machinery, continuous measurement of the product to see if it is according to specifications, the elimination of waste in manufacture, and a large variety in the output.17

In the schools the Taylor techniques of close supervision of the work of subordinates was carried over into educational practices; courses of instruction were meticulously worked out for teachers; the areas were narrowed within which students and teachers could exercise intelligent judgment; and school surveys conducted by outside experts were popularly employed.18

Era of human relations, 1930-1955

An extended series of research studies at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company, under the leadership of Professor Elton Mayo of Harvard, brought an emphasis to human relations in business administration which was not precipitated by a general benevolence on the part of management but was undertaken within a framework of the organization's welfare. Industrial production at the Hawthorne plant was raised primarily because of a change in

the employees' attitudes toward their work and their work team. They had ceased being thought of as mechanical nonentities and were now of more importance to the company as persons. In their earlier attempts to isolate the atomistic parts of the production process, the efficiency experts had been ignoring, to their detriment, the human element. Mayo's work demonstrated the relevance for production outputs of the employees' personal security and of informal groups, and the need for more than one direction in any open social system of the flow of demand, communications, and authority. 19

While Taylor viewed leadership in administration as form-perceiving, Mayo viewed it as process-perceiving. He thought men had a natural desire to cooperate and that worker motivation emanated primarily from social satisfactions. Thus, according to Mayo, administrators should be skillful in permitting the development of cooperative relationships. (Cooper, in a study of the administrative philosophies of both Taylor and Mayo, concluded that workers are not consistent in their job demands, which may be logical or nonlogical and centered on economic self-interest or social altruism. 20)


The principles of coordination advanced by Mary Parker Follett\textsuperscript{21} supported Mayo's empirical evidence. A new type of administration was encouraged by Tead,\textsuperscript{22} which would heighten sensitivity to the maintenance of personal needs and be cognizant of the advantages of organizational consensus.

The importance of human relations for business administration was reflected in school administration and the preparation of educational administrators. School staffs were organized for a rapid development of pupil personnel programs, the traditional line and staff organization in many school systems was modified to facilitate communications and subordinate-superordinate cooperation, and some supervisory practices emphasized educational services rather than control.

Administrator training programs stressed the development of skills in communication and group processes, professional leadership in the utilization of personnel, and a value orientation for the worth of the individual and toward consensus as opposed to conflict. Social science content was introduced into some preparatory programs, and many school

\textsuperscript{21}Mary Parker Follett, \textit{Creative Experiences} (New York: Longmans, Green, 1924).

administrators were to take advantage of summer laboratory training programs in group processes. 23

Activities in human relations gradually became identified with democratic school administration, and there was a renewal of interest in educational purposes and the problems of society. A number of writers in educational administration, including Newlon 24 and Mort, 25 contributed to a definition of democratic administration as that which emphasized group action in policy development and decision making, a broader conception of efficiency in education than economy, and educational leadership as a multiple function which encourages the leadership potential of everyone in the enterprise. Much of the early work of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) 26 was concerned with human relations and was oriented to democratic value assumptions.

23 National Training Laboratories, a part of the National Education Association, sponsored the first summer laboratory school at Bethel, Maine, in 1947.


Era of theory development, 1955-1965

Both the analytical techniques employed by Taylor and the clinical methods of Mayo exemplified the growing interest in administrative theory and a science of administration. In France, an industrialist named Henri Fayol was separating the processes of administration from other organizational activities and arguing that administration should be taught as a school subject.

Administrative ability can, and must, be acquired in the same way as technical ability, first at school and then in the workshop. The real reason why administration is not taught in our schools is the lack of a theory, for without this, teaching is impossible.27

Fayol's work was to influence a number of American scholars who developed subsequent theories of administrative process. Gulick, conceptualizing the work of the public administrator, classified his activities into seven basic functions represented by the superscription "POSDCoRB."28 More recent process theories have centered on decision-making as the core of administration: Litchfield suggested that decision-making triggers a cycle of subsequent administrative


activities; Simon seemed to vacillate between the concept of decision-making as a rational, deliberate process and decision-making as severely restricted in its rationality by the administrator's limited computational ability to weigh alternatives and predict consequences, as well as his flexible aspirational level which permits him to be satisfied with less than an optimal solution.30

Also making a strong contribution to the interest in a science of administration was a highly successful practitioner in business administration, Chester Barnard, who attempted as early as 1937 to develop a conceptual scheme for the functions of the executive and for management and organization.31

The increasing complexity of administration brought on by expanding governmental agencies and a second industrial revolution—both stimulated by World War II—prompted social scientists to utilize more readily available research funds in the analysis of such administrative processes as programming, decision-making, and communication. Simon, whose


30 Gross, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, pp. 64-72.

highly sophisticated abstractions based on mathematical mechanisms and measurements led the drive to divorce administrative theory and research from value judgments, contributed heavily to this area. The ideology of modern science—to expunge all subjectivity from research—was formulated originally in the seventeenth century from the classical mechanics of Galileo and Newton, and handed down from Auguste Comte and the logical positivists who regarded introspective psychology as nothing more than "the last transformation of theology" and vigorously insisted upon neutral detachment and the eradication of purpose and consciousness from science.

Texts in educational administration have not gone to this extreme of value negation, although several spokesmen for the profession have called value-free research and theory construction a necessary step in the development of a respectable science of administration and have predicted the decrease

32 Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: Macmillan Company, 1947). This is one of the earliest of Simon's many works on administration.


of administrative art as "scientific information replaces administrative folklore."  

As the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration progressed, research in the social sciences and other branches of administration began to influence the various program centers in the Cooperative Program toward an interest in scientific administration and theory development. Professors in educational administration set about to develop an adequate theory of administrative behavior, and major research efforts in the field became increasingly conceptual in nature.  

Several of the formulations emerging from the Cooperative Program could be described as at least pretheoretical or quasi-scientific in nature: the tridimensional concept, developed by the Middle Atlantic Region, encompassed the dimensions of the job, the man, and the social setting;  

the Southern States competency pattern, included the dimensions of the job, the technical know-how, and the theory (really ideals) of education;  

and the desirable factors in


36Campbell and Gregg, (eds.), Administrative Behavior in Education, 1957.

37Cooperative Program in Educational Administration, A Developing Concept of the Superintendency in Education (New York: CPEA Center, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1955).

administrative behavior were defined by the Ohio School-Development Study.39

Under the leadership of the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA)40 and their own group formed in 1947—the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA)—professors in administration directed attention toward designing models of social interaction through which social roles and role concepts in educational systems might be described and behavior eventually predicted. Courses or seminars in administrative theory were offered in training programs, and social scientists were often called upon to form interdisciplinary instructional teams. Many graduate programs strongly recommended the inclusion of a minor area of study in the social sciences.41

Thus, a new concept of administration began to emerge based on research in the social sciences and theory development. An influential monograph by Coladarci and Getzels

39John A. Ramseyer, Lewis E. Harris, Millard Z. Pond, and Howard Wakefield, Factors Affecting Educational Administration, CPEA Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1955), pp. 18-56.

40The UCEA was formed after an exploratory conference in the fall of 1956 at Teachers College, Columbia University. Its permanent quarters are now located at The Ohio State University.

41AASA, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, pp. 54-84.
(1955) argued for the necessity of a theoretical dimension for successful administrative practice and the basic integrity of the two concepts—theory and practice—which are often thought of in dichotomous terms. Halpin supported the idea of administration as a field to which scientific methods could be applied; administrators and social scientists could work cooperatively in making theory more practical and practice more theoretical.

Griffiths, becoming one of the leading protagonists for educational administration as a science, helped to explain theory to practitioners by a discussion of such problems as (1) what theory is, (2) what theory is not, (3) how theories are constructed, and (4) ways in which theories can be used. Campbell, Getzels, Guba, Halpin, and others contributed to a publication by the Midwest Administration


It is of interest to note that James B. Conant, also a scientist of some repute, stated in a speech before the AASA Convention in Atlantic City on February 18, 1963, "Administration is not an applied science like engineering or medicine or dentistry."

Center in 1960 which served to summarize these arguments and to reinforce the foothold which the social sciences and theoretical considerations had established.⁴⁵

Contributions and limitations of each era

Programs of preparation for school administrators have thus been directed by concepts related to the business model and have shifted in emphasis as the dominant values of American society changed. Culbertson concluded:

The emphasis on efficient management early in the century complemented society's concern for economic productivity and its support of rugged individualism; the human-relations movement, which began in the thirties, matched the shift in society to a greater concern for people and their welfare; in the late forties and early fifties the "new science" of administration came at a time when physics, chemistry, mathematics and related disciplines were reshaping not only our concepts of the universe but also our views of man's relationship to it.⁴⁶

All past emphases have contributed to a better cognitive base for program content. While remnants of past concerns are still operative in contemporary programs, and a substantial overlap in concepts and programs has always been present, the progression of emphases and the contributions and limitations of each era have been discernible.

⁴⁵Roald F. Campbell and James M. Lipham (eds.), Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1960).

While Taylor's narrow adherence to the Protestant Ethic, his pronounced management bias, and his atomistic approach to industrial psychology have become at least partially outdated, his emphasis on efficiency and economy has an appeal today as education is faced with an increasing necessity to justify its need for funds in competition with other public agencies. Mechanistic procedures in industry and business have been to some extent responsible for a tremendous record of economic achievement. They have contributed to organizational stability and have increased the rational control and predictability of large corporation performance. At the same time, according to Katz, they have produced some damaging side effects.

These procedures have sacrificed the initiative, contribution, and creativity of subordinates in the search for certainty. . . . Even along the dimension of productivity, mechanistic operations have produced unsought-for consequences that drastically limit the level of output achieved.47

Taylor's view of management was crudely mechanistic, stressing the factor of outputs too exclusively. His scientific management was found to be not truly scientific but largely arbitrary because it omitted some of the major variables in administration. Perhaps the greatest danger to education of Taylor's concepts lay in the recurring tendency

to equate the processes and functions of educational institutions with those of business and industry in spite of their differing purposes and objectives.

The human relations movement redirected theories of supervision from a control to a supportive orientation; emphasized the possibilities of energizing change through primary groups as well as individuals; and pointed the way to the discovery of organizational configurations stressing democratic participation by mature, self-actualizing individuals.

Yet, as the human relations lessons of the Hawthorne studies were gradually comprehended at the management level and the importance to productivity of informal groups and staff morale became more evident, a tendency developed to minimize the idealistic democratic features and to manipulate staff relationships for organizational goals. Mayo himself was criticized for management bias and for emphasizing the maintenance of intra-organizational harmony through the resolution of disagreement and conflict, at the expense of organizational vitality and capacity for renewal which divergent inside goals and clashing perspectives sometimes engender.

These deficiencies of the human relations movement were evident in educational administration as a public

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relations expertise developed to sell the school and its program to the public, and an effort—often so ideal as to be unrealistic—was made to foster democratic procedures and group consensus in education which belied the social conflicts found at the center of school life originally by Waller and more recently by Becker and Coleman.

The growing notion of administration as a science has stimulated theory development and contributed to the scientific respectability of educational research by divorcing the "is" and "ought" aspects of administration and promoting descriptive rather than prescriptive methodology. In light of the strong value orientation which permeated the profession in the human relations era, a movement which investigated dispassionately the multitude of complex variables in administration and encouraged scholars from the social science disciplines of anthropology, economics,

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49 One exception to this trend was to be found in John A. Bartky's book, Administration as Educational Leadership (Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1956).


government, psychology, and sociology to participate in such studies was essential to more balanced perspectives.

While research can develop and set up for evaluation alternative hypotheses related to administrative tasks and processes, scientific administration is limited eventually by its dependence on criteria and goals;\(^{54}\) by its incapacity to take a position on philosophical issues which are at the very heart of the educative process;\(^{55}\) by its tendency to formulate mechanical models and deterministic explanations of behavior for a system that may possess an infinity of variables—an unlimited variety of properties, qualities, entities, systems, or levels;\(^{56}\) and finally, by its inability to bridge the gap between practice and theory—a gap that can be bridged only by the kind of "developed wit known variously as deliberation, calculation, prudence, common sense,

\(^{54}\)Goldhammer, The Social Sciences and the Preparation of Educational Administrators, pp. 21-27.


practical wisdom, and experience,"57 or in other words, administrative art.

The Superintendent as a Perceptive Generalist

In spite of the rapidly increasing growth of information on the subject, consensus on a modern concept of the educational administrator's role and the nature of educational administration has not been reached. The problem of semantics and the growing tendency to compartmentalize views of what "is" from what "ought to be" in administrative behavior make agreement more remote.

In the discussion of the historical progression of administrative concepts, the school administrator has been loosely characterized in several ways: (1) as a charismatic leader, a philosopher-educator; (2) as a business manager; (3) as a clinician in human relations; and (4) as a rational decision-maker.

Definitions of administration

Efforts to define administration have reflected a similar pattern of conceptual variance. Brooks Adams

stressed coordination in his definition: "Administration is the capacity to coordinate many, and often conflicting, social energies in a single organism, so adroitly that they shall operate as a unity." Gulick's definition is more prescriptive:

Administration has to do with getting things done; with the accomplishment of defined objectives. The science of administration is thus the system of knowledge whereby man may understand relationships, predict results, and influence outcomes in any situation where men are organized at work together for a common purpose.

Getzels defined administration "structurally as the hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles and facilities in order to achieve the goals of the social system." Interactions in the system occur between the two dimensions of institutional role expectations (nomothetic) and individual personality needs (idiographic). The administrator's role is a "transactional" one designed to minimize conflict between the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions,

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59 Gulick and Urwick, p. 191.

and system outputs are theoretically maximized as congruence is approached. 61

These definitions of administration may all be biased in favor of a managerial interpretation of society—a conservative, homeostasis orientation in which equilibrium is highly valued and its maintenance is considered of primary concern. There are numerous operational definitions based on identifying the administrative processes 62 or on a job analysis and a classification of the administrative task areas. 63

John Walton has derived a set of three definitions of administration from the professional literature. The first illustrates the educational leader:

The administrative function cannot be abstracted from the other functions of the educational organization. From this assumption it follows that the educational administrator must be a teacher, a scholar, or an educator. While he has administrative duties and responsibilities, these are so clearly related to the purposes and processes of education that they cannot be understood or performed adequately apart from the intrinsic educational activities of the organization. 64

61 Ibid., pp. 150-165.
62 For example, Gulick's "POSDCoRB."
63 For example, the "Tri-Dimensional Concept."
Walton went on to say of this administrative concept:

A philosopher of education such as William Torey Harris might become a superintendent of schools with the strong conviction that his principle responsibilities lie in the fields of the improvement of instructional techniques, curriculum reform, research, and philosophy, and only secondarily in the area of management. 85

This passage assumes particular interest when compared to the statement by Cremin about Harris cited earlier in the chapter. 66

Walton's second definition derived from the work of Fayol, Gulick, and Sears and illustrates the professional administrator:

The second theory . . . centers around the regard for administration as a function that can be abstracted from the other functions of an organization and the belief that its nature is essentially the same in all organizations . . . This type of theory would provide ultimately, if not now, for an administrative class, specialists in administration rather than education, who conceivably would be interchangeable from one type of institution to another. 87

While organizations have common characteristics, they also exhibit wide differences in purposes and in demands on administrators. There is evidence that future school administrators must prepare for a role emphasizing leadership in

85Ibid., pp. 33-34.

66Supra, p. 61. Cremin called Harris' career a "rather remarkable marriage of the intensely idealistic philosopher and the eminently practical schoolman."

67Walton, p. 34.
purpose-defining and policy development, as well as the managerial functions: educational purposes are diffuse, and often abstract and difficult to express; the superordinate-subordinate relationship found between administrators and workers in most organizations is minimized in education by the workers' high level of training and specialization, making effective coordination dependent on either shared purposes or meaningful and continuing dialogue about purposes; public agitation over education and increasing school-community involvement are forcing administrators to exhibit more sophisticated purposes as well as some commitment to them; and finally, in a period of extremely rapid social change and shifting cultural values the sine qua non for education is an uninterrupted and nonprescriptive consideration of purposes.

Walton's third definition stemmed from Burnham's theory of the managerial revolution in which he argued that American society must inevitably accept a bureaucratic management by an industrial and business élite. It illustrates the managerial expert who is needed to make decision.

Education . . . has become tremendously complex, heterogeneous, unwieldy, and competitive. This state of affairs has given rise to the need for administrators who can see the various components in relation to one another and, also, can insure the

survival of educational organizations. . . .
Decisions about the purposes of education and the methods required to accomplish these purposes should be left to the administrator.69

Leadership studies

Leadership studies have always been of concern in conceptualizing administration. Liphams argued that while administration and leadership may have common factors they are certainly not synonymous. Leadership may be defined as "the initiation of a new structure or procedures for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals or objectives."70 The administrator, on the other hand, "may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective."71 Liphams distinctions are related to or derived from other investigations of leadership and administrative behavior: Barnard's conditions of effectiveness and efficiency;72 Cartwright and Zander's objectives of group achievement and group maintenance;73

69 Walton, p. 35.
71 Ibid.
72 Barnard, pp. 60-61.
Halpin's leader behavior dimensions of *initiating structure* and *consideration*;\(^7^4\) and Getzels' *nomothetic* and *idiographic* dimensions.\(^7^5\)

**Leadership or management**

More crucial to this study, however, is the relationship of the administrator to policy-making and policy execution. School administration which only serves to implement policy decisions made by others without exercising any direction or leadership in the establishment of that policy will be more likely to attract second-rate bureaucratic types of administrative personnel. School administration which employs a managerial expert and turns over to him the policy-making function and its execution represents an abdication of the traditional and cherished community responsibility for education. School administration which takes the responsibility for both initiating policy development and administering policies, which concerns itself with both task-oriented and morale-oriented behavior, which is devoted to a consideration of educational purposes as well as administrative action, and which pursues innovations and maintains

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\(^7^4\)Andrew W. Halpin, *The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents*, School-Community Development Study Series (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956), p. 4.

\(^7^5\)Getzels, *Administrative Theory in Education*, p. 155.
organizational equilibrium at the same time is more likely to include a measure of conflict and tension that will generate new ideas, attract imaginative personnel, and make for a more viable educational enterprise. There are two phenomena which stand out in the various conceptions of administration and administrator behavior: (1) the most prominent administrative concept or role image at any one time is closely related to social forces in the larger society; and (2) there seems to be a dualism of functions involved--any monistic definition or conception is so restrictive as to satisfy only the narrower role aspirations.76

A dual role combining management and leadership has been conceptualized by Culbertson and others in an ideal administrator image--the perceptive generalist. This role calls for intelligence, skill in implementation, open-

76Lipham states, "The superintendent of schools, ..., must at times, wear an 'administrative hat' and, at other times, wear a 'leadership hat'" (James Lipham in Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, p. 123).

In a novel by Carlos Baker (A Friend in Power published by Charles Scribner's Sons in 1958, p. 85) a member of the faculty committee screening candidates for a new college president says to his wife: "We're thinking seriously, ..., of a double president. The Walrus and the Carpenter. Walrus in the front office, trying to look like Grover Cleveland. The Carpenter on Grounds and Buildings."
mindedness, compassion, a broad general knowledge, analytical ability, moral strength, and an axiological base. 77

The perceptive generalist will play a leadership role in purpose-defining and policy development; will communicate effectively with his various publics—the staff, the community, and the board of education; will cope with innovation as an energizer and agent of change; will weigh conflicting values and specializations in making decisions and maintaining organizational morale; and will have the breadth of vision to relate the microcosmic activities of his community to the macrocosmic realities of today's world.

It becomes important to re-emphasize that this role conceptualization is an ideal—an "ought," not an "is." Carlos Baker's story of the faculty committee screening candidates for a new college president might be appropriate. After a consideration of the qualities needed for the job, one of the committee members remarks: "We are licked before we start! The only man who could possibly qualify on all those counts died on the Cross nineteen hundred years ago." 78

The history of education, however, indicates that some administrative figures have approached the ideal, and in laying


the framework for a program preparing administrators both the reality and the ideal are to be considered. Although there have been superintendents of this kind before, now because of the opportunity and the necessity, the educational world cannot be content with letting them appear accidentally; it must recruit and train them.

There are barriers in the development of any school administrator which will tend to inhibit or even to prevent the new kind of educational statesman desired: (1) trainees are sometimes overspecialized in professional education courses at the undergraduate and master's levels;\(^7\)\(^9\) (2) they are often of lower or middle class origins— aspiring for upward mobility and overcoming feelings of inferiority—and are not apt to be liberal minded;\(^8\)\(^0\) (3) competition for

\(^7\)\(^9\)AASA, Profile of the School Superintendent, pp. 88-90. This survey indicated over 88 per cent of superintendents reported their major field at the master's level was in education; 18 per cent reported their undergraduate major was in education, and many who reported other major areas were undoubtedly high school teachers.

\(^8\)\(^0\) Interview with Dr. John Voth, University of Minnesota, July 15, 1965. Dr. Voth had just completed research which indicated that graduate students in education at Minnesota tended to be more dogmatic than graduate students in other fields.

George L. Newsome, Jr. and Harold W. Gentry, "Logical Consistency, Values, and Authoritarianism in a Sample of Public School Superintendents," Journal of Teacher Education, XIV (December, 1963), 411-416. Newsome and Gentry found their sampling of Georgia superintendents was relatively high in authoritarianism.

advancement leads to a lack of general educational development and hampers emotional detachment; and (4) the rapid growth of schools and the proliferation of management problems tend to develop administrators who are ingrown and preoccupied with their own concerns. Moreover, Coser has recently pointed out that "as a particular academic field becomes professionalized, those active within it are expected to take their colleagues in the profession . . . as their main reference group." 81

Those who attempt to create ab ovo are likely to be considered "unreliable" "outsiders" to be mistrusted. Such an emphasis discourages potential generalizers and young scholars may well feel that safety lies in involvement with narrow problems rather than with broad questions. 82

While Coser was speaking primarily of young college faculty people, the same comments could be made for graduate students.

A Balanced Program of Preparation

If the perceptive generalist role for the administrator is accepted, preparatory programs capable of attracting more able candidates at an earlier age and developing their abilities along these lines will need to be conceived. Seminal efforts in this direction were made by the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration


82 Ibid.
(NCPEA) and the Kellogg centers. More recently the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA)—created by the American Association of School Administrators—has assumed a leading role in encouraging state associations of superintendents, state school board associations, state departments of education, and colleges and universities to cooperate in improving preservice and inservice programs. Membership in the Association now requires a minimum of two years of professionally oriented graduate work; furthermore, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) has established a standard for preparatory programs of at least one quarter (twelve weeks) of on-campus residency for the two-year graduate program and one academic year (two semesters or three quarters) of full-time study in continuous residence for doctoral programs. 83

These combined efforts are characterized by an emphasis on the importance of rigorous scholarship in professional training. The University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA) has played a major part in stimulating research and producing materials in content for these advanced programs. It has most recently organized conferences and seminars and published materials on new perspectives in preparing

83 Committee for the Advancement of School Administration, The Case for On-campus Residence, 1963.
administrators, action guides for improving programs, problems of content in programs for the various administrative positions, the use of the internship in training programs, and the social sciences and educational administration.

Inadequacies of present programs have also served as a spur to interest in new content. Howe cited shallow repetition of content, concern with minutiae, and an over-analysis of the obvious as examples of instructional problems. Conant characterized some superintendents as lacking backbone and a wide acquaintance with the culture of the modern world, and expressed some doubt that

87 Stephen Hencley (ed.), The Internship in Administrative Preparation (Columbus, Ohio: University Council for Educational Administration, 1963).
88 Lawrence Downey and Frederick Enns (eds.), The Social Sciences and Educational Administration (Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta, 1963).
traditional course patterns would remedy the situation. Moore documented the continuing dissatisfaction with training programs in spite of the attempts of various committees and agencies to upgrade the profession and promote curriculum innovations.

As administration moves from art toward science, and graduate curriculums place a heavier emphasis on social science content and technical training in the administrative task areas, efforts to develop content related to educational purposes are much less prominent. The ascendant position of all things scientific in our society raises the question of proper balance.

The study of the science of administration has already yielded invaluable results, extending knowledge and theoretical concepts and improving administrative practices; it must receive continuing encouragement and strong financial support. A study of the technologies in the administrative task areas is essential to the development of specialized skills which keep the educational enterprise running smoothly. There has been a substantial feeling in the profession, however, that a background in the behavioral sciences, in the

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90James B. Conant, "The Roles of the School Board and the Superintendent," Paper read before the annual meeting of the AASA at Atlantic City, N.J., on February 18, 1963.

91Moore, Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, pp. 11-32.
technologies of administrative tasks, and in theory development will not be catholic enough to meet the challenges with which education will be confronted in the next decades.

Goldhammer warned of the danger "that the social sciences will be found so attractive and useful that other productive fields will be disregarded," and argued that the humanities could play a complementary role in training programs and give major assistance in establishing organizational goals. Harlow proposed a three-fold division of graduate work in administration: (1) the social sciences, (2) the humanities, and (3) technical management skills. He saw purpose-defining as the central function of the school administrator and thereby justified the inclusion of the humanities in program content:

In times like these, the determination of educational purposes is not a matter simply for an exercise in group dynamics. Neither is it a platform for the exhibition of a persuasive and charismatic personality. It is in this fact that there is to be found an opportunity for the improvement of training programs for prospective educational administrators. For values and the making of value judgments are the domain of one of the major modes of human thought; namely, the humanities.

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92 Keith Goldhammer, The Social Sciences and the Preparation of Educational Administrators, p. 22.

93 Ibid., pp. 21-42.

94 James C. Harlow, Preparing Administrators: New Perspectives, p. 70.

95 Ibid., p. 68.
Goldhammer said of Harlow's proposal:

Although this may not be a completely acceptable distribution of time, it can at this stage of development be accepted as a working hypothesis for each institution as it develops its program according to the needs, resources, and perception of its goals.\(^{96}\)

Culbertson argued that value content from the humanities could assist potential administrators in dealing with administrative processes and in illuminating organizational purposes and policies.\(^{97}\) Walton recommended that all educational administrators should have a liberal education.

[They] represent to the public the educational enterprise; their general education and cultural background should be better than that of practitioners in other professions. Generally, society has demanded that they be impeccable in morals; we recommend comparable standards in their general knowledge, their use of language, their reasoning, and their tastes. . . . The men that represent the educational enterprise should be men who are unmistakably educated.\(^{98}\)

If the validity of the generalist role is assumed and the limitations of present programs are acknowledged, content which can provide a most effective education in value clarification and purpose-defining can be found in the

\(^{96}\)Goldhammer, p. 42.

\(^{97}\)Jack Culbertson, "Common and Specialized Content in the Preparation of Administrators," *Preparation Programs for School Administrators: Common and Specialized* Learning, pp. 34-60.

humanities—in languages and literature, in history, in the fine arts, and in philosophy.

A recent study of the course structures of graduate training programs (1964) indicated that almost no work in the humanities is recommended or required at this level unless courses in the philosophy, history, or social foundations of education are considered to fall in this category. In spite of this, there seemed to be a general position developing for a three-fold division of content in preparatory programs which would include the humanities, the social sciences, and the technologies of administration. A publication in 1963 by the American Association of School Administrators supported this division of content and stressed the importance of the integrating effect of the total program, not its constituent parts; in other words, the training experience should not be a series of distinct educational experiences but a genuine overarching gestalt. "His [the superintendent's] responsibility is a totality rather than a series of discrete and separate functions that are but loosely tied together. His professional preparation program should have unity of comparable nature."

101 Ibid., p. 15.
As support increases for making the humanities part of a viable, integrated program, there is some evidence that such support is warranted. High school administrators (and teachers) exposed to four-week summer institutes and year-long sessions in the humanities under the John Hays Fellows Program have begun to translate their enthusiasms into a better education for the pupils in their schools. School systems—and even a state legislature—have become interested enough to provide financial assistance to this or similar ventures.102

Insight can also be gained from successful experiences of the Bell Telephone Company103 and other corporations or from universities and private foundations which have been experimenting with programs in the humanities for business executives and leaders in other fields.104

Many large firms are now sending executives and professional personnel to universities to continue their education, not only in subjects directly related to their work but also in more general subjects, such as literature, philosophy, history, and economics. These administrative and staff people are helped not only to become more competent


in their work but also more interested, alert, imaginative, and adaptable. In summary, there is apparently little formal graduate work now being offered in the humanities in preparation programs for educational administrators. Support for such work is being voiced, however, and some rudimentary programs in education and other fields have manifested considerable promise.

Frances Keppel, The United States Commissioner of Education, has written:

What we must do now is to bring the humanities within this ever-widening circle of concern [for excellence in education.] We must communicate a sense of their importance to the people. We must convince the public that a nation is remembered in history for its great monuments of art, philosophy, music, and writing— not for its wealth or weaponry.

The American school administrator would seem to be an ideal medium for communicating this concern and for convincing people of its importance. In order to exploit this opportunity successfully, however, he will first have to become convinced himself.

Purpose-Defining Skills and Values for Administrators

Even if the perceptive generalist concept provides a good target for administrator training programs and content

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from the humanities offers the curriculum balance needed for preparing generalists, the problems and processes involved in education for values and the purpose-defining activity present serious difficulties.

The definition of a value by Kluckhohn as "a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action"\textsuperscript{107} seems to have particular significance for education since it encourages creativity and viability in value determination and implementation. Value orientation, a closely related term, is defined by Kluckhohn as "a set of linked propositions embracing both value and existential elements."\textsuperscript{108} Smith defined value judgments as a distinctive type of understanding compounded of (1) a knowledge of facts, (2) a grasp of the relationship of ideas, and (3) certain emotional or noncognitive elements.\textsuperscript{109} Purpose-defining is essentially the clarification of educational goals or objectives in order to facilitate decisions about what goals are of most worth. It is patently obvious that all educational goals and objectives stem from an expression of value

\textsuperscript{107}Clyde Kluckhohn, Toward a General Theory of Action, p. 395.

\textsuperscript{108}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 409.

\textsuperscript{109}Philip G. Smith, Philosophic-Mindedness in Educational Administration, pp. 10-11.
judgments of the desired or the desirable, the valued or the valuable, which influence selection when choices have to be made from available modes, means, or ends of actions.\textsuperscript{110}

Administrators and values

For this reason the educational process is inescapably value-laden. Administrators make choices on the basis of some system of values not only in exercising leadership in purpose-defining but also in handling staff morale problems, in communicating with their various publics, or in dealing with any of the administrative processes. Furthermore, administrators in our society are faced almost daily with an agonizing series of value dilemmas or ethical conflicts many of which are virtually unresolvable but need at least to be understood for what they are. In addition to confronting such timeless abstractions as the individual versus the institution, ends versus means, and authority versus conscience, today's administrators are beset with a plethora of urgent educational policy problems demanding immediate and difficult value positions—school integration, shared-time programs, education for the culturally deprived, and the like.

Recognizing this, Getzels and Thelen extended the dimensions of social behavior in the original Getzels-Guba model\textsuperscript{111} to include an anthropological dimension.

Just as we may think of institutions in sociological terms, we may also think of them in cultural terms, for the institution is embodied in a culture with certain mores and values. The expectations of the roles must in some way be related to the ethos or cultural values. . . . In this sense, we must bear in mind that interacting with the sociological dimension there is an anthropological dimension.\textsuperscript{112}

Similarly, Kenneth Boulding in developing an organizational model included as one element the organizational "view of the universe" or "image," which contains many dimensions of reality and unreality, truth and untruth, and so on, but in a hierarchical value ordering. Boulding believed that this organizational value order is not the same as the emotive or pain-pleasure dimension but is capable of overriding all other orders and dominates behavior.\textsuperscript{113} In school organizations an inadequate common image--to use Boulding's terms--may constitute a frequent source of internal disorganization.


Several studies have been concerned with the educational or cultural values held by citizens or educators or with the individual value systems of organizational role incumbents and implications of these value orientations for administrative behavior. Newsome and Gentry found Georgia superintendents rated highest in economic and religious value orientations and lowest in aesthetic and social values; they ranked moderately high in authoritarianism.\textsuperscript{114} Cyphert found Ohio administrators ranked high in religious values and low in aesthetic orientations.\textsuperscript{115} In regard to the effect of personal value orientations on intra-organizational relationships, Rasmussen discovered a high agreement between principals and teachers on values related to teaching, but the teachers perceived principals as holding different values than themselves; he concluded that such a condition threatened teaching effectiveness.\textsuperscript{116} In light of other research\textsuperscript{117}

\textsuperscript{114}Newsome and Gentry, \textit{Journal of Teacher Education}, XIV, 411-416.


and theoretical considerations, however, the importance to organizational effectiveness of the convergence of values or value perceptions would be difficult to establish.

Changing cultural values

Ethical conflicts or value dilemmas may be sharpened for administrators by shifting value standards in our culture. Spindler conceived of a major change occurring in the core values of American society: 118 the traditional values of puritan morality, work-success ethic, individualism, achievement orientation, and future-time orientation are being supplanted by such emergent values as sociability, a relativistic moral attitude, consideration of others, conformity to the group, and a hedonistic present-time orientation. While the details or emphases may vary, Spindler's conceptions are similar to those of other observers of the American scene such as Getzels, 119 Riesman, 120 and Whyte. 121

Spindler suggested that different organizational or complementary role incumbents in the educational enterprise


121 William H. Whyte, Jr., The Organization Man (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1956).
will place on a value continuum from traditional to emergent in this order—school board members, citizens, some students, administrators, older teachers, younger teachers, and other students. Prince developed a 64-item forced-choice questionnaire (Differential Values Inventory) to classify respondents on the traditional-emergent continuum and found older teachers significantly more traditional than younger teachers and older principals more traditional than younger principals. McPhee used Prince's instrument in a similar study with school personnel and citizens and found more traditionalism by the older respondents but no significant differences between teachers and laymen. Abbott adapted the Prince instrument to a study of school board members and superintendents and found board members significantly more traditional. Older superintendents, however, were more emergent in their value orientations than younger superintendents.

Ethical conflicts may also be made more difficult for administrators because of the frequently observed

discrepancies in American life between professed values and actual behaviors, between adherence to the ideal and practice of the real.\textsuperscript{126} These discrepancies are well-known to practicing administrators and the "wearing of different administrative hats" may sometimes make the discrepancies seem more apparent than real. Castell has suggested that in our imperfect society administrators need not act on ultimate principle in coping with every conflict but might better deal with everyday problems at the lowest level of principle that conscience permits—the principle of "least principle."\textsuperscript{127}

\textbf{Educating for values}

In spite of the manifest affinity of values and administration, the former are sometimes ignored in the study of modern administration and often spoken of in a pejorative sense. The reasons for this are easily understood: it is partly a reaction to the content of biased and value-oriented courses in educational administration which, under the guise of human relations theories, asserted the effectiveness and rightness of democratic administration often in the absence of institutional models or any hard research demonstrating


\textsuperscript{127}Alburey Castell, from remarks made at a UCEA Career Development Seminar on "Educational Administration--Philosophy in Action," held at the University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, November 4, 1963.
its actual worth; these were sometimes preceded or accompanied by educational foundations courses which neglected academic neutrality and stressed doctrinal values and commitment, frequently to social reconstructionism; courses in the humanities or educational foundations which involved the study of values or ethics were often bogged down in sterile academicism or what Dewey called a "dialectic of concepts" and seldom brought students into contact with vital moral questions or contemporary social issues; and finally, the pressure to make research in educational administration scientifically respectable entailed the omission of value considerations.

Since educational purposes and the values that underlie them cannot remain in oblivion, it is important that guidelines be defined for training programs in purposes, that past errors and omissions in techniques be corrected, and that imaginative content and methods for training programs be perfected.

128 AASA, Profile of the School Superintendent, p. 29. Superintendents in replying to the AASA questionnaire suggested that a major weakness of preparatory programs was the concern of graduate instruction with what "ought to be."

129 Brauner, American Educational Theory, pp. 198-223. Brauner states in chapter xi: "Direct pursuit of commitment and belief made the foundations courses resemble a minister's sermons rather than a professor's lectures (p. 220)."

Education in purpose-defining can be facilitated by helping the administrator to become aware of the basic components which make up his own value system and to clarify and set forth his purposes with some erudition and sophistication. His perception of his own place in a pluralistic system of ideas and values can be improved. Castell outlined a hierarchy of three levels of valuing: (1) gross distinctions based on untutored tastes or preferences, (2) professional or tutored distinctions based on others' thinking, and (3) distinctions by a connoisseur based on one's own aesthetic competence. He recommended that preparatory programs be concerned with helping administrators to become connoisseurs.

Schools should not be an indiscriminate reflector of the culture; the "good enough" is the greatest enemy of the "good."

A society whose most important issues are questions of value might well ask its leaders of education to give their energies to considering what is true, what is beautiful, and what is good, just as much as to investigating how we shall get along together or what are the bases for tax policy. James Agee wrote: "Its [education's] chief task is fearfully to try to learn what is 'good' and 'why' (and when), and how

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131 Castell, remarks made at UCEA Seminar on "Educational Administration--Philosophy in Action."

to communicate, and its own dimensions, and its responsibility."\(^{133}\)

Past errors in training techniques centered chiefly in the utilization of such properties as force, precept, imitation, and experience to develop prescribed values in a nonrational manner\(^{134}\) and can be corrected by improved instructional methods in which pluralistic value models are presented neutrally with no pressure for commitment. This does not imply that commitment is undesirable. A conglomerate of variegated values gives little satisfaction, and most individuals lack the erudition and objectivity or the heroism needed to be uncommitted to a dominant theme, albeit a pragmatic one. What is implied is that the graduate student in administration be encouraged to become a connoisseur by clarifying and validating his own themes unhampered by coercion.

Existential psychologists have offered one such method of value study with the idea of helping each person understand or reconstruct his own value system, asserting that the most important teaching contributes to the learner's


self-realization. The instructor first establishes a climate of psychological safety and then uses clarifying procedures, eliciting value statements from students or secondary sources and clarifying them in a nondirective manner similar to that used in Rogerian counseling. The existentialist takes the position that "we should not try to anticipate all moral problems in an attempt to pre-formulate decisions to every conceivable sort of moral conflict but should seek to produce the sort of individual who is capable of improvising enlightened solutions to various moral questions as they emerge."

Brameld recommended a more structured approach, employing a dialectic process he called consensual validation. This would lead more toward commitment and be subject to the authority of group consensus.

Philosophy seminars proposed for school administrators by Castell were designed with four qualifications in mind: (1) they provide for a genuine encounter and offer incitements

135 Gordon Allport, Becoming: Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1955).


to administrative reflection; (2) they offer contact with relatively high-level thinking; (3) they challenge the impulse to theorize and evolve difficult abstractions about administration; and (4) they present incompatible points of view.139

Krathwohl and others have evolved a taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain arranged along a continuum of internalization from lowest to highest: (1) receiving, (2) responding, (3) valuing, (4) conceptualization and organization of a value system, and (5) characterization by a value or value complex. The taxonomy might facilitate discussion about what level of value internalization is desirable or possible for any given situation.140

Use of the Modern Novel

While there can be no guarantee that exposure to the humanities will result in increased knowledge or wisdom or even behavioral change (if it were desirable), many claims could be hypothesized for their efficacy in preparing school administrators: they improve the ability to read

139 Alburey Castell, Curriculum Bulletin No. 247, XX (Eugene, Oregon: School of Education, University of Oregon, n.d.).

intelligently and write coherently, they increase moral wisdom and arouse the minds of people with the intellectual capacity to do something about the world's problems; they encourage tolerance in the beliefs of others; they enable an administrator to criticize himself without the interference of anxiety and give him a sense of emotional independence and security in his dynamic struggle with "the system"; they provide a wider range of reference, techniques for learning in a new field, and a desire for intellectual growth; they show man how to stay human in "a compartmentalized, overorganized, scientific age"; they lend the ability to create a harmonious whole out of

144Copeland, Saturday Review, p. 78.
147Ibid., p. 25.
dissimilarities;\textsuperscript{149} they prepare a man to choose "between good and bad, truth and falsehood, the beautiful and the ugly, the worthwhile and the trivial,"\textsuperscript{150} and finally, they improve his ability to make decisions of every sort.\textsuperscript{151}

A general discussion of such claims, however, is beyond the scope of this investigation, which has been delimited to a consideration of using content from the humanities for the study of values, value systems, and educational purposes. In thinking about possible content from the humanities in this regard, it seemed equally important to make a second delimitation, as various humanistic areas have relevance for a study of values and purposes in education: history—especially the history of movements and social ideas, aesthetics, ethics, axiology, drama, biography, fiction, and so on.

Why the novel

The novel seemed particularly well-suited to a thorough confrontation with values and purposes since it presents characters in action making choices and suffering their consequences. The problem, in a sense, is how to

\textsuperscript{149}Frederick E. Pamp, Jr., "Liberal Arts as Training for Executives," Toward the Liberally Educated Executive, p. 59.


\textsuperscript{151}Ibid.
present vividly to the student all the intricacies, all the anguish of the value dilemmas, the ethical issues, and the educational problems he will face as an administrator. It is interesting that professors in a large number of fields—sociology, public administration,¹⁵² business administration,¹⁵³ education, ethics, philosophy, and social work—¹⁵⁴ are successfully using the modern novel as one answer to this problem.

A professor teaching ethics commented:

I have found one technique of especial value—the use of carefully selected novels. Certain types of novels present moral subject matter with the urgency, complexity, and clarity which surpass and complement first-hand experience.¹⁵⁵

¹⁵² Letter from Professor Dwight Waldo, Institute of Governmental Studies, University of California at Berkeley, January 25, 1965 states: "You are correct in your understanding that I am interested in a literary approach to the study of administration. I have been 'fiddling around' with this matter now for more than 15 years."

¹⁵³ Goldwin and Nelson (eds.), Toward the Liberally Educated Executive. See pages 123-142 for organized programs of liberal education for business executives.

¹⁵⁴ Letter from Professor Val Clear, Department of Sociology and Social Work, Anderson College, Anderson, Indiana, October 6, 1964 states: "I am enclosing the syllabus for the current semester for my course in Social Problems. This is the product of considerable work I have done with the bibliography originally suggested by the readers of Saturday Review in the article you mentioned."

Professor Coser of Brandeis has authored an introductory text for teaching sociology through literature. 156

Fiction is not a substitute for systematically accumulated, certified knowledge. But it provides the social scientist with a wealth of sociologically relevant material, with manifold clues and points of departure for sociological theory and research. The creative imagination of the literary artist often has achieved insights into social processes which have remained unexplored in social science. 157

In terms of fiction for educational administration Sargent and Belisle wrote:

Although it would be scarcely feasible to consider employing creative literary artists to dream up cases in educational administration, it is of some value to consider what may lie behind the observation that exceptional works of fiction do illuminate real-life situations.

... The modern novelist, Ken Kesey, signed a book for a friend:


157 Ibid., p. 3.

"It's the truth even if it didn't happen—and some things, man—they can't be the truth even if they did!"\(^{159}\)

Ross presented arguments in relation to the study of philosophical problems through literature.\(^{160}\) He considered it possible to learn a good deal about philosophy through the medium of literature in an unusually interesting way. Philosophy has a tendency to become too abstract, withdrawn from everyday life, while good literature relates individual persons and specific things to general concepts.\(^{161}\)

All this is not to say that the novel—or literature—can teach all things. It is only to suggest that the novel can assist the student in his perception and understanding of these various academic fields and eventually in his behavioral change which is, after all, learning. Shelley saw this fundamental relationship of poetry to practicalities:

> We now have more moral, political and historical wisdom than we know how to reduce into practice; we have more scientific and economical knowledge than can be accommodated to the just distribution of the produce which it multiplies. . . . But we want the creative faculty to imagine that which we know; we want the generous impulse to act on that which we imagine.\(^{162}\)

\(^{159}\) Ralph J. Gleason, Review of Sometimes a Great Notion, by Ken Kesey, San Francisco Sunday Chronicle (July 26, 1964), Book Review Section, p. 38.

\(^{160}\) Julian L. Ross, Philosophy in Literature (Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1949).

\(^{161}\) Ibid., pp. 9-10.

\(^{162}\) Hough, The Dream and the Task: Literature and Morals in the Culture of Today, p. 102, quoting Shelley.
Morality and the novel

A discussion of the novel in terms of its possible pedagogical usefulness—especially in the field of values, value judgments, and educational purposes—involved a considerable risk. Matthew Arnold in 1889 took the position that poetry (imaginative literature) would become the new interpreter of life, filling the vacuum left by the steady decline of organized religion.\textsuperscript{163} Seventy-five years later Fiedler said:

In the thirty years that separate the two coeds [Faulkner's Temple Drake and Salinger's Franny], the culture religion of western Europe has replaced Christianity as the orthodox faith of those most eager to send their children to college, at least if they are urban, middleclass Americans; and the pastors to whom our hungry sheep look up in vain are not ministers of the old-time religion, but Ph.D.'s in literature and those section men who serve as their acolytes. In a society presided over by this new clergy, . . . to seek a salvation beyond the reach of art, is considered heresy or insanity, or some particularly blasphemous compound of both, . . .\textsuperscript{164}

Literary critics have divided on the issue, some perceiving literature as a powerful social force, others as art for art's sake. Since literature has, in fact, become a powerful social force on occasion, moral censors—beginning with Plato and continuing through Arnold to the present—

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have attempted to subordinate much of it to political and moral ends. In 1893 Tolstoy, having already produced his major artistic creations (Anna Karenina and War and Peace), restricted his definition of true art (including literature) to that which promoted the religious values he so ardently embraced during his later years. Tolstoy condemned neutrality or objectivity, therefore, as inartistic. He was "contradicted by the 'art for art's sake' novelists who explicitly rejected moral purpose. Flaubert ... and Joyce following him, felt that anything that might be described by us as a moral commitment would be a serious error." Only in the present century has the autonomy of literature been secured. A prominent contemporary American novelist, Saul Bellow, can now remark:

It is hard to know what is meant by a moral novelist, or what people think they are talking about when they ask for commitment, affirmation, or messages. The view attributed to Ernest Hemingway is, "If you're looking for messages, try Western Union."
As long as literary study is "derived from moral and social pressures outside itself,"\textsuperscript{169} it is doctrinaire and illusory. And unfortunately, this is so often what happens. They [certain people who make literature their mentor] start from a set of attitudes, derived from inherited morals, social environment and fragments of surviving religious faith. They then make a careful selection of the literary tradition that will confirm these attitudes; and finally announce in triumph that literature has validated whatever it was they believed to start with.\textsuperscript{170}

Yet novels are written about people and are concerned with attitudes, values, the nature of man and his destiny. Writers themselves "live in an inner universe of conflicting values. . . . By writing out these contradictions in their creative work they . . . explore man's attempt to live by some value or values."\textsuperscript{171} Granville Hicks remarked:

There is small chance of my ever beginning a review by saying, "This would be a dandy book for a graduate student of school administration to read, for it would train him in value judgments." Yet I believe that many contemporary novels can provide such training.\textsuperscript{172}

The avoidance of moral censorship or prescribed values has been cited as the major correction needed in the methodology used for informing administrators about values and

\textsuperscript{169}Hough, p. 99.

\textsuperscript{170}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 100.


\textsuperscript{172}Hicks, \textit{Saturday Review}, p. 23.
purposes. Hough argued that the only aim for education in values—and this is particularly true of literary education—consistent with an open social system is a general imaginative enlargement of content diffuse enough in its own material and scope as to make "its very diffuseness its essential virtue."173 The modern novel with its "undetermined fluidity, its experimentation, its reaching and exploration in a hundred different ways"174 provides exactly this type of content. It also furnishes a measure of provocation, of imagination, and of stimulation so desperately needed in professional education studies. It detracts nothing from a Great Books discussion group, a philosophy seminar in value theory, or a reading of Myrdal's An American Dilemma to suggest that many administrators would benefit equally—and perhaps more so in terms of acceptance of ideas and behavioral change—from an encounter with Wright's Black Boy, Ellison's Invisible Man, or Baldwin's Another Country. Both contents are valuable and actually complement one another. If it is assumed, then, that modern novels would provide a wide range of value positions on contemporary social problems and value dilemmas—
an assumption that is being investigated as a part of this study—content from the modern novel presented in a sound

173Hough, p. 75.
174Ibid., p. 21.
methodological manner can be used to provide training in values and purpose-defining skills helpful to preparing the potential administrator as a perceptive generalist.

Little can be gained, however, unless certain primary conditions of literary study are embraced as a part of the original expectations and the subsequent methods:

We shall not look to literature for confirmation of our own attitudes. We shall not expect it to "comfort and sustain" us, in Matthew Arnold's low-spirited words. On the contrary, we shall continually be meeting minds that work on entirely different premises from our own. We shall be confronting beliefs that we find impossible, emotions that we have never entertained, experiences that the contemporary world gives us no inkling of. And we shall be continually forced to realise that they are a part of our human inheritance. . . .175

Literary study, viewed in this perspective, can become a tremendously exciting adventure, a dialogue between the author and the reader. The novelist, "like a delicate instrument, captures a mobile psychological reality, the most imperceptible vibrations, currents and undercurrents."176 Kesey remarked:

I'm fooling around with reality and what reality can be, . . . whole bunches of ways of looking at the same event. . . . To know the world you need to see as many sides of it as possible. And this

175 Ibid., p. 101.

sometimes means using microscopes, telescopes, spectrometers, even kaleidoscopes.177

In that mysterious process known as the creative act, the reader also has an important role which Marcel Duchamp, the modern painter, defined in this way:

The artist . . . is a "mediumistic being" who does not really know what he is doing or why he is doing it; it is the spectator who, through a kind of "esthetic osmosis," deciphers and interprets the work's hidden qualities, relates them to the external world, and thus completes the creative cycle.178

Unless instructors can permit students at the graduate level to participate freely in this sort of author-reader dialogue, the conditions of literary study will not have been met. Instruction of this sort is not a simple matter and is as uncharted as a religion might be without a system, ethic, or creed.

The current struggle in literature between the "Cleans" and the "Dirties" (Saul Bellow's terms)179 illustrates the difficulties involved. Bellow said:

The Cleans want to celebrate the bourgeois virtues. . . . The Dirties are later-day Romantics and celebrate impulsiveness, lawless tendencies,

177Gleason, San Francisco Sunday Chronicle, quoting Ken Kesey from an interview in Genesis: West.

178Calvin Tomkins, "Not Seen and/or Less Seen," a profile of Marcel Duchamp in The New Yorker, February 6, 1965, p. 37, quoting Duchamp.

179Bellow, Atlantic Monthly, CCXI, 59.
the wisdom of the heart. . . . Mr. Cozzens is a conscious ideologist of the Cleans. Henry Miller, a man whose talent is beyond dispute, is the father of the Dirties. His crudities can be explained by the excesses of the opposition, . . . The snooty Puritanism of Mr. Cozzens calls forth the sexual katzenjammers of William Burroughs.180

There are two obviously valid, but different ways of reacting to this struggle. Joseph Wood Krutch confessed he is a "square" and cited the dangers of being otherwise:

It [literature] can also persuade us to believe that the world is different from what our own experience tells us that it is and that we ourselves are what we are told by fashionable writers we are. The more talented a writer, the more likely he is to persuade us that his own possibly eccentric convictions ought to be (and finally are) our own.

At the risk of being dismissed as pathetically unperceptive, I feel bound to say that the world of Sartre and even Camus—to say nothing of that of Williams, Beckett, and Genêt—is simply not the world I know and that their most pressing problems are not mine.181

Susan Sontag, writing of her book selections for the best European fiction of 1963, took the more existential view:

All of them have made me feel good to be alive. Moreover, all of them, in one way or another, have changed me, made me see the world a little differently than I had before. My criterion for greatness in art is existential. I call that work of art great which enlarges and corrects my sensibility and consciousness, . . . It is always a good thing

180 Ibid.
to read books which are not surrounded by a cultural halo. One's reactions are likely to be fresher, less pious, more true.\footnote{Susan Sontag, "Susan Sontag's Shelf," The Sunday New York Herald Tribune, Book Week Paperback Issue, January 12, 1964, p. 33.}

If modern novels are to be used effectively as content for graduate courses in educational administration, the important thing is not which of these views one takes, but whether the student is allowed, in fact encouraged and challenged, to make up his own mind.

In summary, training programs for superintendents have followed societal values and the business model, progressing in emphasis from operational efficiency and human relations to theoretical research. As future administrators are prepared to assume a leadership role in purpose-defining, new content is needed for training in values and value judgments. This need is accentuated by the conflicts growing out of changing cultural values and the seeming disposition our culture and educational system have for closed strategies of value internalization. There is psychological support for the position that each person can receive help in building or restructuring his own value system by having value concepts presented neutrally with no press for commitment; the diffuseness of modern fiction may
give it a strong potential for providing the pluralistic value models needed in such a presentation.

A rationale for using modern novels as content in graduate programs for school administrators has been presented in Chapter III. In the chapter that follows, a content analysis of ten modern novels is presented assessing their potential for providing pluralistic value models.
CHAPTER IV

A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF TEN MODERN NOVELS

Chapter III was concerned with the first major objective of the study--developing a rationale for including selected content from the humanities in programs preparing school administrators. The rationale took the position that the use of content from modern novels would constitute a valid approach to preparation in purpose-defining skills and values, assuming that the novels contained a wide range of value positions. Chapter IV is concerned with the second major objective of the study--to determine whether modern novels do, in fact, provide such a range of values--and presents the findings of a content analysis made of ten modern novels for this purpose.

Selection of the Novels

In order to determine whether modern novels would provide a wide range of value positions, it was necessary to select a representative group of novels and make an analysis of their content in relation to values. Ten contemporary problem areas were first selected by the researcher from the educational literature as illustrative of a large classification of topics having implications for educational purposes.
and policies: automation and technological advance, autonomy of the individual, changing economic attitudes, changing moral attitudes, interracial and intercultural conflict, the adolescent subculture, mental illness, population increase and mobility, poverty and cultural deprivation, and war and international tensions.

Fourteen literary experts were then asked by the researcher (Appendix A) to make a selection of twentieth century novels to match each of these problems, using the criteria of literary quality and relevance to the problem. The group was chosen by the researcher—subject to the approval of his reading committee—from literary critics, university professors in English, or social scientists with a combined knowledge of literature and social problems. Three novels for each problem area were suggested to the group to stimulate responses, and they were asked to make a first and second choice of books for each category from these suggested novels or any of their own choosing.

Eleven persons responded to the request and made up the panel. Their responses were given weighted values of either (2) for the first choice or (1) for a second choice and tabulated. The novels with the highest number of points in each category were then selected for the study. A list of the novels chosen, as well as the second most popular selections, is presented in Table 4. As might be expected,
## TABLE 4

### SELECTION OF NOVELS FOR THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Frequently Chosen Novels for Each Problem Area&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Number of Experts Indicating First Choice&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Second Choice&lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Total Points&lt;sup&gt;d&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Automation and technological advance:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Saturday Night and Sunday Morning</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brave New World</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>Autonomy of the individual:</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Child Buyer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roots of Heaven</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Changing economic attitudes:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Room at the Top</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Keep the Aspidistra Flying</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Changing moral attitudes:</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Stranger</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Howard's End</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interracial and intercultural conflict:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Another Country</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Invisible Man</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>The adolescent subculture:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Catcher in the Rye</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lord of the Flies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mental illness:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tender is the Night</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>One Flew over the Cuckoo's Nest</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Population increase and mobility:</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Dollmaker</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Heart is a Lonely Hunter</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poverty and cultural deprivation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The Assistant</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rabbit, Run</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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TABLE 4 (Contd.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Frequently Chosen Novels for Each Problem Area\textsuperscript{a}</th>
<th>Number of Experts Indicating</th>
<th>First Choice\textsuperscript{b}</th>
<th>Second Choice\textsuperscript{c}</th>
<th>Total Points\textsuperscript{d}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>War and international tensions: The Naked and the Dead</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catch 22</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Only the two highest novels are listed in this table.

\textsuperscript{b}A first choice selection had a value of two points.

\textsuperscript{c}A second choice selection had a value of one point.

\textsuperscript{d}The maximum number of points possible for any novel was 22 (eleven panel members responding).

there was a wide range of choices made by the panel members with as many as ten different books named for some problem categories.

Content Analysis of the Novels

Following the selection of the novels, it was necessary to determine a procedure for analyzing them in relation to their values. Works of literature are both unique and general and can be analyzed by seeking the scientific reliability of repetitively similar interpretations of manifest content in the quantitative sense or by permitting the reader to elicit individual meanings—influenced by his psychological or perceptual predispositions—from the latent content in a qualitative sense.
Since there seemed to be no true dichotomization between the quantitative and qualitative methods of content analysis and since both methods were supported in the literature,¹ it appeared appropriate to adopt those elements of each which were most suitable for the study. Value components adapted from the four traditional and four emergent values found in Prince's Differential Values Inventory² were used as a criterion for determining the emphases given to values in the novels. The traditional and emergent value components used were as follows:

**Puritan morality:**—respectability, self-denial, self-constraint, and self-discipline; loyalty and respect for elders; a need for guilt feelings and absolute moral standards.

**Work-success ethic:**—successful people work hard and have a high need to achieve; they choose jobs which will assure success; there is no resting on past glories as success and progress are continuous goals; ambition to be more successful than parents.

**Individualism:**—the individual is sacred and always more important than the group; in one extreme form this value sanctions idiosyncratic behavior and disregard for other

¹Supra, pp. 32-37.

²Prince, "Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness," p. 42.
people's rights; in its healthier form, the value sanctions originality and independence in work, ideas, convictions, and attitudes.

**Future-time orientation:**—living for the future; sometimes the sacrifice of one's self for a better world; present needs must be denied for satisfactions to be gained in the future; choice of job for promotion possibilities, rather than for immediate rewards.

**Sociability:**—wide social contacts and enjoyment in doing things with others; success in getting along with people; every opportunity to be with people is sought.

**Relativistic moral attitudes:**—right and wrong are relative, not absolute terms; morality is what the group thinks is right at the moment; the best course of action is always a matter of opinion; some standards are appropriate for some people but not for everybody.

**Conformity:**—all standards of taste, action, and manners are relative to the set of the peer group; actions should be taken with regard for others and their feelings; reliance on other's advice in behavior and in making decisions; group consensus and harmony is the ultimate goal.

**Present-time orientation:**—no one can tell what the future will hold; therefore, one should enjoy the present; the ultimate goal is fun, pleasure, and impulse release; enjoyment of the luxuries of life is important; fly now,
pay later; it is better to enjoy moderate success and live longer than to be too ambitious.

The following procedures were then employed by the researcher for each of the ten novels:

1. A résumé of the plot was prepared.

2. A table was devised using Prince's value categories, and the value positions of the leading characters and the total novel were classified.

3. An impressionistic interpretation of the content was written in support of the value classifications with limited documentation from the novel or reviews of the novel.

4. The value positions of the leading characters and the total novel were also classified by four outside readers with experience as students or teachers of English literature.

5. A chi-square analysis of the agreement that existed between the ratings by the researcher and the outside readers was calculated.

It was felt that an analysis of the novels by additional readers with professional experience in the field of literature might contribute the effect needed to balance the more subjective ratings of the researcher. Readers were assigned to each novel in a pattern that guaranteed the analysis of each book by four different persons. A briefing session was held to acquaint them with the value scale and
the method of classification being used. Printed forms of
the value scale were then distributed for classifying each
novel (Appendix B), and summaries were tabulated from the
returns.

A chi-square ($x^2$) analysis of the agreement that
existed between the value classifications assigned by the
researcher and those assigned by the four outside readers
was calculated for each novel (using Yates's correction),
as well as the probability of significance ($P$) for the
obtained chi-square.

The chi-square test "represents a useful method of
comparing experimentally obtained results with those to be
expected theoretically on some hypothesis." For each of
the ten novels a test was made of the null hypothesis that
the agreement reached in value classifications between the
researcher (assumed not to be an expert) and the "interjudge
agreement" of the four outside readers (assumed to be
experts) was not greater than "chance."

Only three degrees of "interjudge agreement" existed,
there being four judges: (1) all four judges agreed on the
presence of a value rating for a particular character or
book ($N_4$) or on the absence of a value rating ($N_0$); (2) three
judges agreed on the presence of a value rating for a

---

particular character or book \((N_3)\) or on the absence of a value rating \((N_1)\); (3) two of the judges agreed on the presence or absence of a value rating for a particular character or book \((N_2)\). Assuming \(N\) to be the number of value classifications made for each novel, \(N = N_0 + N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + N_4\) or in the case of a book where the values of three characters and the total novel were classified, \(N_0 + N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + N_4 = 32 = N\).

The frequency, then, with which the researcher would be expected, by chance, to agree with all four judges would be \((N_0 + N_4) / 2\); to agree with three judges, \((N_1 + N_3) / 2\); to agree with two judges, \((N_2)\); to agree with only one judge, \((N_1 + N_3) / 2\); and to agree with no judges, \((N_0 + N_4) / 2\).

The larger the chi-square in each test, the greater would be the probability that the value classifications made by the researcher approximated the "interjudge agreement" of the "experts" and were, therefore, more valid.

Yates's correction for continuity is advised for calculating chi-square where any cell contains less than five frequencies.\(^4\) The methodology of the content analyses of the ten selected modern novels has been described in some detail; an analysis of each novel is now presented, using the procedures outlined.

\(^4\) Garrett, p. 258.
Saturday Night and Sunday Morning

Alan Sillitoe, the son of a tanner and a factory worker himself at the age of fourteen, writes with considerable authority about contemporary working-class life and values in England. The hero of his novel is 24-year old Arthur Seaton who earns fourteen pounds a week at his lathe in a bicycle factory and lives for the pleasures of the moment on Friday and Saturday nights spending money happily on wine, women, and clothes.

For it was Saturday night, the best and bingiest glad-time of the week, one of the fifty-two holidays in the slow turning Big Wheel of the year, a violent preamble to a prostrate Sabbath. Piled-up passions were exploded on Saturday night, and the effect of a week's monotonous graft in the factory was swilled out of your system in a burst of goodwill.

Arthur becomes sexually involved with Brenda, the more-than-willing wife of a dull, conscientious fellow-worker named Jack; she becomes pregnant and undergoes an abortion. Arthur doubles both the fun and the risk by also becoming involved with Brenda's married sister until he is discovered and thrashed soundly by her soldier-husband and his buddy who are home from the army on furlough. While carrying on these two affairs Arthur is attracted to Doreen,


6 Ibid., p. 7.
a young girl with ambitions for marriage, and he becomes her young man.

He realized that, by going out with a single girl he may one day—unwittingly and of course disastrously—find himself on the dizzy and undesired brink of the hell that older men called marriage, an even more unattractive prospect than coming one day face to face with some husband’s irate and poised fist.  

His rebellious spirit resists entanglement for a time but the appeal is too great, and he capitulates.

Sillitoe’s insight into lower-class working life under the post-war welfare state is both illuminating and frightening. Seaton and his friends have a reasonable share of the material comforts of life but are seemingly without culture. Happiness is enough cigarettes, the price of a gin or pint, a holiday at the shore, or an uninterrupted view of the "telly."

With the wages you got you could save up for a motor-bike or even an old car, or you could go on a ten-day binge and get rid of all you’d saved. Because it was no use saving your money year after year. A mug’s game, since the value of it got less and less and in any case you never knew when the Yanks were going to do something daft like dropping the H-bomb on Moscow. And if they did then you could say ta-ta to everybody, burn your football coupons and betting-slips, and ring up Billy Graham.  

Seaton has no political maturity, no class consciousness or Puritan values (Table 5). He has fantasies of

\[7\text{Ibid., pp. 134-135.}\]
\[8\text{Ibid., p. 23.}\]
TABLE 5

TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN SATURDAY NIGHT AND SUNDAY MORNING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Arthur Seaton</th>
<th>Doreen</th>
<th>Brenda</th>
<th>Jack</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.\textsuperscript{b}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 18.760\textsuperscript{c} \quad \text{P} < .01\textsuperscript{d} \]

\textsuperscript{a}Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\textsuperscript{b}Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\textsuperscript{c}The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

\textsuperscript{d}The probability of significance for \( x^2 \).

shooting "the big-headed bastard that gets my goat when he asks me to go to the union meetings or sign a paper against what's happening in Kenya."\textsuperscript{9} His indifference to ideas or religious mores is more than balanced by his sexual vigor and lust for life. He is clearly the antithesis of the earlier socialist working-class heroes of Shaw's imagination\textsuperscript{10} and a result of our technological revolution so ably forecast

\textsuperscript{9}Ibid., p. 115.

\textsuperscript{10}For example, Jack Tanner in Shaw's Man and Superman.
by such English writers as William Morris, Eric Gill, and Wilfred Wellock. He is the lonely saboteur rather than the social revolutionist.

Factories sweat you to death, labour exchanges talk you to death, insurance and income-tax offices milk money from your wage packets and rob you to death. And if you're still left with a tiny bit of life in your guts after all this boggering about, the army calls you up and you get shot to death. And if you're clever enough to stay out of the army you get bombed to death. Ay, by God, it's a hard life if you don't . . . stop that bastard government from grinding your face in the muck, . . .

There is little difficulty in identifying the values which Seaton demonstrates on Saturday night— or symbolically speaking, prior to his decision to abandon his wild affairs and accept the privations of marriage. Sillitoe's attitude toward Seaton is a sentimentality of moral relativism, an abandonment of standards.¹² Seaton also exhibits several of the qualities of individualism: he lives completely for himself and expresses a decidedly carefree independence in his work and social attitudes.

There is a difference of opinion among literary critics as to whether Seaton changes his values on Sunday morning—that is, following his decision to stick with Doreen. Anthony West, writing most favorably about the book as "a

¹¹Sillitoe, p. 175.

¹²Irving Howe, Review of Saturday Night and Sunday Morning, New Republic, August 24, 1959, p. 27.
true working-class novel,"\textsuperscript{13} thinks of Seaton as laboring through his wild, youthful phase, gaining an "expanding awareness of his mistress's husband,"\textsuperscript{14} and showing real promise of maturity at the end. Does Seaton's acceptance of the "quiet, gentle Doreen" suggest that he will indeed become tamed? It seems more likely that he will merely advance in caution having learned some valuable lessons from his earlier loves and that his basic approach to life will remain the same. The novel is, therefore, judged to speak strongly for the value of hedonism and orientation to the pleasures of the present-time.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 18.76; P < .01$).

**The Child Buyer**

Mr. Wissey Jones, representing a large southwestern firm which specializes in government defense contracts, visits the New England town of Pequot (presumably located in Connecticut) to arrange for the purchase of a local child genius--ten-year-old Barry Rudd. Jones's firm holds a long-

\textsuperscript{13}Anthony West, Review of Saturday Night and Sunday Morning, *The New Yorker*, September 5, 1959, p. 103.

\textsuperscript{14}Ibid., p. 104.
term research contract, and its scientists believe that precocious children can be procured, purged of all previous cognitive and affective learning, and developed into human computer elements which will be superior to mechanical ones. Jones proceeds on the assumption that everyone "has his price," and he manages to manipulate the community into supporting his venture. Included in the sequence of events are a stink-bombing of the local school, a vandal attack on the Rudd's home to coerce the mother into agreeing to Barry's sale, and a bizarre sexual adventure in which Barry is caught by the school principal—as he had deliberately planned to be—in the act of playing doctor and medically examining a girl classmate. The only serious opposition to Jones's scheme comes from Barry's school principal, Dr. Gozar, who has faith that Barry will be able to beat the system and not be manipulated and from Barry himself, who has doubts about becoming a thinking vegetable.

Hersey relates his story in The Child Buyer in the form of a legal transcript of five days of hearings that take place before a state senate committee on education, welfare, and public morality. The book at first seems to constitute a slashing attack on education and "educationists," then a vitriolic caricature of legislative investigating committees.
epitomized in McCarthyism, and finally a malediction of the impersonality of modern science and big business. While these factors are all present, they become but different aspects of one larger problem—the intellectual and moral corruption of our society.16

Hersey accepts the myth of the intellectual hero who must be nurtured by society for his future leadership potential.17 He argues that bright children can expect no real help or understanding from a public school, and that most people directing school enterprises have little idea what they are doing or why. The head of the board of education in Pequot testifies:

Sir, we concern ourselves at Board meetings with bursted boilers. Whether the custodian can be asked to use the gang mower on the football field, that kind of thing. We don't get into educational matters near as much as some people think.18

Hersey speaks through Dr. Gozar, principal of the Lincoln Elementary School:

He [Mr. Jones] began by saying that what we need to relieve our talent shortage in this country is a crash program, and I told him I thought that was the worst possible thing you could do. ... I told

18 Hersey, p. 11.
Jones you can't free talent with dollars. You can't package talent, you can't put it in uniform bottles and boxes with labels.\textsuperscript{19}

The means by which Jones makes converts and the alacrity with which convictions are shifted when he cleverly exploits the greed for power or money are the most striking aspects of Hersey's book. Moral attitudes in the town of Pequot become flexible according to what course of action pays off at the moment. Mr. Jones prides himself "on varying my approach to meet the unique requirements of each situation."\textsuperscript{20} While it may be assumed that the force of Hersey's satire will move the reader toward an espousal of more traditional and absolute standards than those exhibited in the book, Hersey finds relativism in moral attitudes the prevailing position in our present day society (Table 6).

Because of the question-and-answer form of dialogue used in the senate hearings, the thoughts and feelings of Hersey's characters are rather inadequately expressed. Barry Rudd plainly mirrors the loneliness and idiosyncrasies of childhood genius. Of himself he says: "My view is that I'm not maladjusted. I'm 'intensified.' There's a difference."\textsuperscript{21} At times he feels doomed: "It had been drummed into me--

\textsuperscript{19}Ibid., pp. 55-56.

\textsuperscript{20}Ibid., p. 215.

\textsuperscript{21}Ibid., p. 148.
that precocious children grow up abnormal, neurotic, headed for imbecility or insanity. Early ripe, early rot."22

TABLE 6
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN THE CHILD BUYER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Barry Rudd</th>
<th>Dr. Gozar</th>
<th>Wissey Jones</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>( x^a )</td>
<td>( x^b )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td></td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>( x )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 17.334^c \quad P < .01^d \]

\(^a\)Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.
\(^b\)Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.
\(^c\)The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.
\(^d\)The probability of significance for \( x^2 \).

Dr. Gozar, in a sense Hersey's protagonist, holds out for the importance of the individual. She is a great champion of the work-success ethic; by sleeping only four hours a night she has "enjoyed some seventy-five thousand

\(^{22}\)Ibid., p. 94.
hours of life most people miss." She has more respect for the "P. Q." (Perspiration Quotient) than the "I. Q." She supports traditional morality: "I believe in it [honor], but I see very little of it around."24

I don't want these government and industry scholarships for my youngsters, because a scholarship is a moral loan; there's quid pro quo in scholarships handed out under something called a National Defense Education Act.25

Wissey Jones is a veritable devil; he is affluent, clever, worships science and exploits patriotism, and is pragmatic in employing any means to his ends. The school guidance director says:

By the end of my first conversation with him I realized he was the shrewdest thing I'd ever seen on two legs . . . . He's first and foremost a corruptor. His job is to find the irresistible temptation for each person who controls the destiny of the boy, and satisfy it.26

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($x^2 = 17.334; P < .01$).

23Ibid., p. 54.
24Ibid., p. 57.
25Ibid., p. 56.
26Ibid., p. 42.
Room At the Top

Joe Lampton, the protagonist of Braine's novel, is a handsome young accountant, the only child of lower-middle-class English parents who were both killed during a bombing raid in the Second World War. Quick-witted enough to observe the pernicious effects of poverty on those about him, he deserts the gloomy factory town of Dufton and moves to Warley, a smaller place which has preserved some of its original charm by the simple expedient of industrial zoning. The shift in locale is symbolic of the shift in Joe's aspirations—he is on the make for money, women, and power. His determination to break the class barrier is reminiscent of Clyde Griffith's ambitions in An American Tragedy.

Soon after Joe's arrival in Warley he falls in love with Susan Brown, a conventionally pretty, innocent young creature whose charm is increased by her wealth and social inaccessibility. For more immediate sexual regalement he turns to Alice Aisgill, an attractive married woman ten years his senior, who flatters his vanity by her open responsiveness. Meanwhile, Susan becomes available and Lampton is

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temporarily able to nurture his ambition for "room at the top" through her while satisfying his deeper lusts with Alice.

This pleasant interlude ends when Susan becomes pregnant and her father, a local industrialist, offers Joe an entry into his business if he will marry the girl. Faced with a decision Joe discovers that he genuinely loves Alice, but he betrays his love for ambition and with little hesitation settles for Susan. After Alice responds with suicide, Joe undergoes a night-long orgy of dissipation in an attempt to escape his feelings of guilt and then settles down to a suburban marriage, rewarded in every materialistic way but finally recognized as meaningless.

Braine is concerned in the novel with the conflicts of love versus ambition, emotion versus reason, and present joys versus future rewards. At the decisive moment the hero calmly abandons the pleasures of true love for money and power and a secure future. The choice brings personal disaster in the form of temporary self-guilt and the gradual recognition "that he has become a hollow man who no longer feels or cares."29 While the decision satisfies all of Joe's material ambitions, he sees too late that personal self-fulfillment might have been preferable as a goal; or put

29 Charles Rolo, Review of Room At the Top, Atlantic, CC (November, 1957), 247.
another way, that gaining the world is not worth losing one's soul.  

Thus, the novel speaks in a broad way for the traditional value of Puritan morality, emphasizing the need for loyalty and self-respect and demonstrating the latent power of guilt to keep a balance in morality. On the other hand, the actions of the characters are representative of emergent values except for Joe, who shows rather vividly the conflicts that exist between the emergent and traditional positions. The values are summarized in Table 7.

Joe is obviously sociable, has a relative attitude about morals, conforms in order to get ahead, and is steeped in hedonism. He covets an Aston-Warner, three-guinea linen shirts, and a girl with a Riviera suntan; he loves Susan a "hundred thousand pounds worth"; and he likes his pornography in real life.

A brief visit at Christmas to his Aunt Emily, however, shows that Joe retains some inhibitions from his parents, and he does have a semblance of a conscience. With Susan he lives more for the future and for a long time refrains

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30 Whitney Balliett, Review of Room At the Top, The New Yorker, November 2, 1957, p. 186.
32 Ibid., p. 118.
33 Ibid., p. 37.
### TABLE 7
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN
ROOM AT THE TOP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Joe Lampton</th>
<th>Alice Aisgill</th>
<th>Susan Brown</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 14.312^c \quad P < .01^d \]

<sup>a</sup>Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>b</sup>Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>c</sup>The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

<sup>d</sup>The probability of significance for \( X^2 \).

from becoming deeply involved with her; he has a strong drive for achievement and success; and in many ways he exhibits Puritan morality. Once, having just copulated with Alice, he becomes furious when she tells him that she had posed in the nude for a portrait: "Can't you see that it's the idea of other people looking at your nakedness that I hate? It's not decent, don't you see?"<sup>34</sup>

<sup>34</sup><i>Ibid.</i>, p. 98.
When Joe is told that nobody blames him for Alice's death, he replies, "Oh my God, . . . that's the trouble." His latent decency is shown in the terrible suffering he undergoes as a result of the suicide; he admits ten years later that he, too, is dead as well as Alice.

Braine's handling of the minor characters is unimpressive, and they seldom come alive. Alice, of course, has her own conventions of morality but proudly retains her identity. "I won't be possessed, Joe. I won't be dominated. I won't be owned by anyone." Susan's hedonistic values can perhaps best be illustrated by a snatch of her conversation during an embrace with Joe: "Ooh! . . . Susan tingle. Susan tingle up and down. Do it again." Joe's final remorse becomes more understandable.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no greater than chance agreement ($X^2 = 14.312; P < .01$).

35 Ibid., p. 199.
37 Braine, p. 100.
38 Ibid., p. 114.
The Stranger

The Stranger is an allegory, "deceptively simple and so ambiguous that it could truly be called an interpreter's holiday." Meursault, a young French shipping clerk living in Algiers, receives a telegram from an old people's home some fifty miles distant announcing the death of his mother. He arranges with his employer for a two-day leave and takes a bus for Marengo where the home is situated.

After his mother's funeral, he returns to Algiers. As it is now a Saturday, he goes down to the harbor for a swim and runs into Marie, who used to be a typist at his office. They swim together, go to a movie starring Fernandel, then go to his apartment and make love.

By chance Meursault gets involved with a disreputable neighbor, a pimp named Raymond. Meursault agrees to compose a threatening letter for him to send to his Moorish girl friend, who has apparently been cheating a bit, and he becomes Raymond's accomplice in a feud with the girl's Arab brother. On a holiday Meursault, Marie, and Raymond go to the beach where Raymond's friend, Masson, has a cottage.


They are followed by two Arabs, one of whom is Raymond's antagonist, and a fight ensues in which Raymond is wounded. Meursault, who has taken Raymond's revolver, goes for a walk on the beach. He sees one of the Arabs and seems driven by the scorching heat of the Mediterranean sun to move toward him as he rests on the beach. A knife suddenly flashes in the sunlight, and Meursault deliberately fires five shots into the Arab's body. He is arrested, brought to trial, and condemned to death for his crime. The novel ends just short of his execution.

Camus demonstrates vividly the complete "as if" quality of every person's perception of his own experience by "the juxtaposition of two conflicting versions of the same set of events." In the first part of the novel Meursault is presented "as a rather innocent and not badly intentioned character who, drifting from one action to another in a world which he does not comprehend and which . . . seems to have little meaning, becomes involved in crime and disaster." Meursault describes in a taciturn, impersonal manner his mother's funeral, his affair with Marie, and his murder of a strange Arab. At the time of his

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trial these events, when seen through different eyes—those of the witnesses and the lawyers—become more sinister, and everything Meursault "has or has not done before the murder becomes a charge against him."^43

He has let his mother die in a home for the aged; during the wake he did not show any grief, but even smoked a cigarette; after the funeral he went to the movies and spent the night with a girl; he freely assented to become the accomplice of a pimp.44

The peculiar characteristic of Meursault is his almost total indifference to what he does. He won't say he loves Marie but he agrees to marriage when she suggests it. When Raymond asks him to write the letter which eventually leads to his destruction, Meursault's reaction is "why not?" During his trial he expresses no regrets, remains impassionate, and offers no defense. The prosecutor calls Meursault's complete lack of contrition more damning than his crime. Meursault says of him: "The horror that even the crime of parricide inspired in him paled beside the loathing inspired by my callousness."^45

Meursault has no ambitions and few desires. He is concerned mostly with simple physical things—smells, food,
sunshine, cigars, swimming, wine, and sex. He acquiesces in what is.

The hero's philosophy—if one can call it that—is, so it seems, nothing but a rationalization of his sublime indifference, his moral insensibility. It amounts to a radical fatalism: whatever a man does makes no difference. . . . What must happen will happen.46

There is a difference of opinion as to whether Meursault is changed as a result of facing the terror of his death sentence. Brée says:

The death sentence, . . . finally sets him on the path of an epiphany . . . that wrenches Meursault out of his passive state, and prepares him to counter the terror of death with the concentration of all the forces of life. . . . Meursault sees, at last, that to exist is happiness. . . . His passive acquiescence to the violence done human beings turns into a passionate revolt against death and a sense of human fraternity. . . . Camus leaves Meursault on the threshold of a new awareness and a new passion.47

This "awakened behavior" is only anticipated, not observed. The moral universe of the book is one of indifference. Meursault is a man bored with everything, incapable of dealing successfully with the society in which he lives. "As a human being he seems . . . incredible; his behavior is never explained or made plausible."48

46 Plant, p. 10.


48 Wilson, p. 113.
The characters and values of the book are not sufficiently developed. Meursault is individualistic (Table 8) in the sense that he is isolated and his behavior is idiosyncratic; he has little contact with others and his ideas and attitudes are independently conceived. At the same time, he has none of the traditional ambition to get ahead or to work for the future.

**TABLE 8**

TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN THE STRANGER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Meursault</th>
<th>Marie</th>
<th>Raymond</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
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<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 19.292^c \]

P < 0.01<sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>b</sup>Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>c</sup>The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

<sup>d</sup>The probability of significance for \( x^2 \).
His moral attitudes are relativistic, the only sure standards being loyalty to personal experience and the refusal to believe anything that could not be checked in terms of his own actual encounters with life. At the trial Meursault is accused by the prosecutor of having no soul: "Really, he said, . . . there was nothing human about me, not one of those moral qualities which normal men possess had any place in my mentality." The novel itself is judged to speak for relativism in values. Camus depicts the absurdity of life and the impossibility of accepting any general solutions. The human condition consists essentially of intellectual, moral, and even practical antinomies.

Meursault is definitely oriented to the present. His life before his arrest is carried on with "a flavor of sun and sea, the sense of a direct semiconscious, nonverbalized enjoyment of simple physical things." At the trial he thinks about why he has never been able really to regret anything in his life: "I've always been far too much absorbed in the present moment, or the immediate future."

The characterizations of Marie and Raymond are ephemerally drawn but their values seem generally emergent.

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49 Camus, p. 127.

50 Chiarmonte, p. 631.

51 Brée, p. 16.

52 Camus, p. 127.
The moral apathy illustrated by them--as well as by Meursault--is a real feature of the contemporary world which, according to Edmund Wilson, "is a product of social pressures and organizational disassociations that can be studied and analyzed."

It is characteristic of Camus, however, to refuse to give answers that would be merely logical or analytical and thus to ignore the diversities and contradictions of human experience.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 19.292; P < .01$).

**Another Country**

*Another Country* is a melodramatic story of the efforts of a small in-group of Dostoievskian characters to confront the harsh realities of poverty and anonymity for which so many Negroes, homosexuals, and unsuccessful artists of our contemporary American society seem destined. These social outcasts are a mixed bunch: blacks and whites, beats and squares, jazzmen and actors, Americans and Europeans.

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53 Wilson, p. 114.

54 Chiarmonte, p. 630.

They have in common only their search for identity—a thematic obsession of Baldwin's—and they act out their agonies of lust and aggression in the wastelands of Greenwich Village and Harlem, truly "another country" for most American readers.56

The novel begins at a Harlem party with a violent affair of passion between Rufus Scott, a penniless and desperate Negro jazz drummer, and Leona, a poor white divorcée from the South. Rufus, suffering mixed emotions of tenderness and love and hatred for the girl, gradually drives her to madness and destroys himself by jumping off the George Washington bridge. His enigmatic character dominates the book in spite of his early death; he is a "man brutalized by race hatred yet his suicide is caused by an unbearable sense of guilt, and this is felt to be, . . . not far from a kind of redemption."57

A variation of this affair develops as Rufus' best friend, Vivaldo Moore, a white novelist whose writing efforts are temporarily blocked, takes up with Rufus' sister Ida, a blues singer. Their love is thrust into a constant


turmoil by Ida's hatred for whites and her masochistic relations with a cynical impresario named Ellis which bring to mind Dominique Francon's unbelievable and irrational dedication to self-inflicted misery in The Fountainhead. 58
Baldwin speaks of his own literary frustrations through Vivaldo the writer:

He did not seem to know enough about the people in his novel. . . . He could move them about but they themselves did not move. He put words in their mouths which they uttered sullenly, unconvincing. . . . They were waiting for him to find the key, press the nerve, tell the truth. 59

Richard Silenski and his frustrated wife Cass, older friends of Rufus and Vivaldo, make up a third couple whose marriage at the outset is apparently quite happy. In contrast to Vivaldo's unsuccessful "good writing" Richard comes up with a highly successful "bad novel" and Cass, disillusioned by an author who sells out, turns for solace to Eric Jones, an ambisexual actor. Eric, originally from the South, has been living in Paris homosexually with Yves, a young French streetwalker to whom he is strongly attached. While waiting in New York for Yves to arrive, Eric relieves his sexual boredom by alternately becoming involved with Cass and Vivaldo. Yves eventually arrives in the final episode,

59Baldwin, p. 111.
and Vivaldo, with Eric's help and Ida's ultimate consent, ends the moral cliffhanger and makes his belated entrance into humanity.60

The novel has created a great deal of controversy as to its moral tone, its literary qualities, and the authenticity of its realities. Granville Hicks judges it one of the most powerful novels of our times: "What Baldwin has to say about contemporary civilization seems to me to be only partly true, but in so far as it is true at all, it is of the utmost importance."61 Robert Taubman, on the other hand, calls it the "sort of novel that raises questions only to slip out of most of the obligations of dealing with them."62 Other critics cite the lack of any religious illumination or intellectual encounter ordinarily present among Negro and arty types respectively, or of any political action or concerted protest that might have remedied the social situation in which the characters were trapped.

Valuewise, there are few expressions in the book of Puritan morality other than Baldwin's rather obscure attempts at character redemption through personal loyalty and love, and his conservative emphasis on the need for roots to estab-

62 Taubman, p. 53.
lish one's identity. In one passage Ida complains to Cass about Negro children having been indiscriminately separated from their parents in the past, and Cass replies:

*It happened to all of us! Why was my husband ashamed to speak Polish all the years that he was growing up?--and look at him now, he doesn't know who he is. Maybe we're worse off than you.*

Only two of the minor characters--Richard and Ellis--exhibit any ambition or need for success within the framework of contemporary society, and they are treated with contempt.

The major characters all sanction idiosyncratic behavior, generally disregarding other people's rights, and in this sense express individualism (Table 9). None of them live in any sacrificial way for the future and certainly one of the book's major assets is Baldwin's lucid and impelling picture of the social outcast in American society who can't marshall enough forces--economic, intellectual, or spiritual--at any one time to become an entrepreneur with the luxury of making choices and manipulating his universe.

Moral attitudes are entirely relativistic; as members of a tightly knitted peer group structure, the characters exist in a kind of vacuum, only a tenuous sort of involvement relating them to the larger society. The pertinent question posed by Baldwin is whether this is, in fact, a common experience of multitudes of contemporary Americans.

---63Baldwin, p. 296.
TABLE 9
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN
ANOTHER COUNTRY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Rufus</th>
<th>Vivaldo</th>
<th>Eric</th>
<th>Ida</th>
<th>Cass</th>
<th>Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 35.636^c \quad P < .01^d \]

\(^a\)Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.
\(^b\)Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.
\(^c\)The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.
\(^d\)The probability of significance for \(x^2\).

Cass and Vivaldo, the weakest of the major characters, seem to react more in accord to the set of the others in the group and are therefore judged conformists. Except for Cass, whose middle class origins are occasionally inhibitive, the characters all seem oriented to enjoying the present; their pursuit of pleasure and impulse release is for the most part not a conscious activity and "almost monolithically joyless and cynical."\(^64\)

\(^64\)Root, p. 1354.
A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 35.636; P < .01$).

Catcher in the Rye

Salinger's novel, the story of an adolescent's flight from the phony world around him, has an importance far beyond its literary qualities. High school and college students for over a decade have perceived it as the American novel of their generation "for in Holden Caulfield Salinger has created a myth-figure with whom millions of young and youngish Americans have identified themselves."

The story includes Holden's last day at a fashionable eastern boarding school from which he has just flunked out, and the following two or three days which make up a lost weekend spent in New York City. At Pencey Prep Holden is having a rhubarb with his roommate, Stradlater, because Stradlater has a date with Jane Gallagher with whom Holden is in love. When the roommate returns from his date, they

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continue the argument. Suspecting Stradlater of having seduced Jane, Holden takes a punch at him and for his efforts gets a bloody nose.

He decides to go to New York for a couple of days to wait until his parents are notified of his dismissal, and then to go home. He checks in at the Edmont Hotel and goes down to the Lavender Room where he buys drinks for three young women who are tourists. The experience turns out to be depressing:

If somebody, . . . comes all the way to New York--from Seattle, Washington, for God's sake--and ends up getting up early in the morning to see the god-dam first show at Radio City Music Hall, it makes me so depressed I can't stand it. I'd've bought the whole three of them a hundred drinks if only they hadn't told me that.67

Holden tries a night club which is a hangout for college and prep school kids. He then goes back to the hotel and agrees to the elevator boy's suggestion of sending up a girl for some fun. But he can't perform.

The trouble was, I just didn't want to do it. I felt more depressed then sexy, if you want to know the truth. She was depressing. Her green dress hanging in the closet and all. And besides, I don't think I could ever do it with somebody that sits in a stupid movie all day long. I really don't think I could.68

An argument ensues about how much he must pay, and Holden

67Salinger, p. 75.
68Ibid., p. 96.
eventually gets roughed up by the pimp when he refuses to be a sucker.

The second day he takes a girl he has known for some time to the theatre, then ice skating and, after managing to insult her, winds up alone at a bar. Getting a bit drunk, he wanders around Central Park nostalgically and decides to see his sister Phoebe. He wakes her and tries to explain why he was kicked out of Pencey: "It was one of the worst schools I ever went to. It was full of phonies. And mean guys... I don't even feel like talking about it."\textsuperscript{69}

When his parents return from a late party, he sneaks out, accepting first a little money which Phoebe offers him. In order to keep from spending her money, he winds up at the apartment of Mr. Antolini, a former instructor and perhaps the only one for whom he has any respect. But Holden, waking from a deep sleep on the Antolinis' sofa, finds himself the object of tentative homosexual advances by Antolini, and he flees once more.

He meets Phoebe later that day, and they visit the museum and the zoo in Central Park. They get caught in a rainstorm and the novel ends with Holden's escape into illness, presumably as a private institutional patient somewhere in California.

\textsuperscript{69}\textit{Ibid.}, p. 167.
There has been a profuse reaction to all of Salinger's writings: "Few [critics] fail to see that what he is up to is not a description of social life but an exploration of inner life, not the critique of a period or a particular situation but of the human condition, however narrowly-observed." Holden Caulfield is most often thought of by critics as a rebel against the ugliness and phoniness of society, the conformity of the adult world. His rebellion is criticized as being rather quixotic, however, since his only answer to the deceptions of life is a somewhat generalized, diffuse, and dreamlike hodgepodge adding up to love.

He longs to do good in a dream world. When he broods about dirty words on the walls where little children can see them, or feels compassion for a prostitute, he is not protesting against "the system" or the adult order; he is merely suffering from the way things are, always and everywhere, in a world of insufficient love.

Relating Holden to the traditional and emergent value categories is difficult since his introspective, sensitive nature is not limned by precise edges. He voices a morality of love and humanity and affirms "goodness, honesty and loyalty"; but he "does so with an agonizing self-


72 Edgar Branch, "Mark Twain and J. D. Salinger: A Study in Literary Continuity," *Salinger*, p. 211.
consciousness and a bitter spirit." His energies are not directed to supporting the traditional moralities but are concerned with re-enforcing his own personal value standards and sincerity. Holden often does this linguistically by adding such phrases as "it really is," "I really mean it," "it really does," or "if you want to know the truth." He "uses this idiosyncrasy of insistence almost every time that he makes an affirmation." His moral attitudes are peculiarly his own and are therefore judged to be relativistic (Table 10).

Part of his own morality is a desire to help in some way those younger than he is, so that they will not repeat his mistakes or those of the adult society:

Anyway, I keep picturing all these little kids playing some game in this big field of rye and all. Thousands of little kids, and nobody's around—nobody big, I mean—except me. And I'm standing on the edge of some crazy cliff. What I have to do, I have to catch everybody if they start to go over the cliff—I mean if they're running and they don't look where they're going I have to come out from somewhere and catch them. That's all I'd do all day. I'd just be the catcher in the rye and all. I know it's crazy, but that's the only thing I'd really like to be. I know it's crazy.

In addition to playing the role of "catcher," Holden is indeed "the repudiator of the adult world and American

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73 Ibid., p. 212.
75 Salinger, p. 173.
TABLE 10
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN
THE CATCHER IN THE RYE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Holden Caulfield</th>
<th>Phoebe Caulfield</th>
<th>Stradlater</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x^a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 10.858^c \quad P < .05^d \]

^a Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

^b Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

^c The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

^d The probability of significance for \( x^2 \).

Values, which is tantamount to saying Western values in their secular aspect.\textsuperscript{76} He could not be categorized as supporting the work-success ethic or living for the future. "He damn the competitive drive for status--even the cab drivers, primitives of the city, are suspicious, raw-nerved."\textsuperscript{77} He talks about the commercialized Christmas spirit he sees in a stage production at Radio City by the Rockettes as a matter

\textsuperscript{76}Allen, p. 311.

\textsuperscript{77}Branch, \textit{Salinger}, p. 213.
over which "old Jesus probably would've puked if He could see it."78

On a theater date with Sally he contemplates what marriage to her would be like:

And I'd be working in some office, making a lot of dough, and riding to work in cabs and Madison Avenue buses, and reading newspapers, and playing bridge all the time, and going to the movies and seeing a lot of stupid shorts and coming attractions and newsreels.79

Holden is extremely individualistic but the loneliness of his rebellion, his adolescent need for sociability, and his constant desire for an audience force him toward other people in spite of himself. His reluctance to socialize is evidenced by his avoiding the chance to meet Jane Gallagher on two different occasions. Both times he explains: "You have to be in the mood for those things."80

As he is walking up Fifth Avenue, he dreams of going out West and getting a job.

I didn't care what kind of job it was, though. Just so people didn't know me and I didn't know anybody. I thought what I'd do was, I'd pretend I was one of those deaf-mutes. That way I wouldn't have to have any goddam stupid useless conversations with anybody.81

78Salinger, p. 137.
79Ibid., p. 133.
80Salinger, p. 33.
81Ibid., p. 198.
The last sentences of the book, however, hint that Holden may be ready to compromise this antisocial posture:

About all I know is, I sort of miss everybody I told about. Even old Stradlater and Ackley, for instance. I think I even miss that goddam Maurice. It's funny. Don't ever tell anybody anything. If you do, you start missing everybody.

The final adolescent submission to conformity and sociability is prophesized by Behrman: "Holden will be all right. One day, he will probably find himself in the mood to call up Jane. He will become even more tolerant of phonies."

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .05 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 10.858; P < .05$).

Tender is the Night

In his autobiographical first novel, This Side of Paradise, Fitzgerald extols the youth of his own generation from the Ivy League schools who were setting the standards for the American social order. Five years later in The Great Gatsby he portrays their life in great country houses on

82Ibid., p. 214.

Long Island, and his enthusiasm and admiration are mixed with disillusionment. *Tender is the Night*\(^{84}\) describes their years of exile in Europe, and Fitzgerald's disenchantment is nearly total.\(^{85}\)

While *Tender is the Night* symbolizes the disintegration of a whole class structure—the jazz-age upper bourgeoisie of the twenties—it is primarily the story of an American marriage. Dick Diver, a young war veteran, goes to Zurich to continue his studies in psychiatry. One of his patients at the sanitarium where he practices is a rich young Chicago girl, Nicole Warren, whose schizophrenia has developed from a traumatic incestuous attack by her father. In the classic pattern of transference she falls in love with Dick, and they are married; it is not clearly established at first whether he is motivated more strongly by a reciprocal love or out of pity for her condition. In any event he consecrates himself to the marriage, and in the course of five years Nicole gradually emerges from a state of complete dependence to emancipation and recovery although she still has occasional periods of insanity.


\(^{85}\)Malcolm Cowley, Review of *Tender is the Night*, *The New Republic*, June 6, 1934, p. 105.
The very process of her regeneration, however, seems inevitably meshed with his systematic deterioration. He is corrupted by the luxuries her money affords, and his professional ambitions no longer seem important; he drinks heavily and becomes socially repulsive; he takes up with a younger girl briefly but cannot establish a meaningful relationship. Finally, he returns to America an unsuccessful, drunken country doctor, divorced from Nicole and drifting slowly from town to town somewhere in upstate New York.

The primary reason for Diver's collapse is never quite certain: he may have been corrupted by Nicole's money; he may have wilfully sacrificed his own well-being to her recovery; his inner resources may not have been adequate to fulfilling his professional ambitions; or some subconscious demonic force may have driven him to self-destruction. One way or the other, the disarming of Diver by life is complete and can be all too easily identified with by many readers whose heightened aspirations to the promises of life are "betrayed by their own inability to make the right distinctions."  

Dr. Diver is the central character of the story, and the others seem mostly to portray the hopelessness of the society he has chosen. Rosemary Hoyt, a young Hollywood starlet, becomes part of his entourage, falls in love with

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86 William Troy, Review of *Tender is the Night*, *The Nation*, May 9, 1934, p. 539.
him, and eventually becomes his mistress. She is little more than a glamorous moron. Nicole sees that her own relationship with Dick is a form of slavery to which she must inevitably rebel once she is sufficiently cured. But she has been so long conditioned to the cosmopolitan pleasure-seeking ways of "la dolce vita" that her return to sanity is not accompanied by any human morality or meaning. Her cleavage with Dick is supported by her sister, Baby Warren, who is outspokenly mercenary and unscrupulous.

The novel is not the story of the author's life in any literal sense but is "an exploration of emotional and spiritual bankruptcy akin to that suffered by Fitzgerald himself."^87 Diver is forced to compromise his initial morality by the society in which he finds himself and the result is catastrophic.

The society Dick has chosen is a lost one, but Dick must function as if he is not lost. . . . To fill in the background of a leisured class with human dignity does not seem a futile mission to Dr. Diver until he fails. . . . A life of vital response is the only version of the moral life Fitzgerald could imagine, and when Dr. Diver hears the "interior laughter" begin at the expense of his human decency he walks away. 88

Diver is seen in the beginning as strongly moralistic, engrossed in his work, and ambitious for success (Table 11).^87^88

^87 Allen, p. 91.

Much of his moral training comes from his father who had
been raised "to believe that nothing could be superior to
'good instincts,' honor, courtesy, and courage."\textsuperscript{89} After
first meeting Diver, Rosemary "felt the layer of hardness in
him, of self-control, and of self-discipline."\textsuperscript{90}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Doctor Diver</th>
<th>Nicole Diver</th>
<th>Baby Warren</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>x\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>.\textsuperscript{b}</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
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<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ X^2 = 14.522^c \quad P < .01^d \]

\textsuperscript{a}Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\textsuperscript{b}Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\textsuperscript{c}The greater amount of agreement found between the
researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside
readers than that expected by chance.

\textsuperscript{d}The probability of significance for \( X^2 \).

\textsuperscript{89}Fitzgerald, p. 204.

\textsuperscript{90}Ibid., p. 19.
Nicole, along with her sister Baby, is unscrupulous in attacking Dick's standards as she achieves her final freedom from him.

She fought him with her money and her faith that her sister disliked him and was behind her now; with the thought of the new enemies he was making with his bitterness, . . . her health and beauty against his moralities—for this inner battle she used even her weaknesses—fighting bravely and courageously with the old cans and crockery and bottles, empty receptacles of her expiated sins, outrages, mistakes.91

Baby is clever at using the same techniques. When she had spent a hard night gaining Dick's release from the Italian carabinieri whom he had assaulted after a drunken brawl, "she had the satisfaction of feeling that, whatever Dick's previous record was, they now possessed a moral superiority over him for as long as he proved of any use."92

Dick's early ambition is extreme. Sometime after the outset of his deterioration, Nicole asks him why he has registered at a hotel as "Mr. and Mrs. Diver" rather than as "Dr. and Mrs. Diver."

I just wondered—-it just floated through my mind. You've taught me that work is everything and I believe you. You used to say a man knows things and when he stops knowing things he's like anybody else, and the thing is to get power before he stops knowing things.93

91 Ibid., p. 19.
92 Ibid., p. 235.
93 Ibid., p. 161.
The recurring emphasis on the importance of work to maintaining a purpose in life, especially when other possible avenues to fulfillment are blocked off, is perhaps one of the book's major arguments, expressing Fitzgerald's own devotion to literature.

Diver's vanity and his need for other's approbation may have been the weakness of character which leads to his destruction. "His voice, with some faint Irish melody running through it, wooed the world." With some inner trepidation he begins to wonder uneasily if he is as superficial as the rest:

In the dead white hours in Zurich staring into a stranger's pantry across the upshine of a street-lamp, he used to think that he wanted to be good, he wanted to be kind, he wanted to be brave and wise, but it was all pretty difficult. He wanted to be loved, too, if he could fit it in.95

While Dick's moralities are slowly eroded, those of Nicole and Baby are relativistic from the beginning. Their ultimate goal is fun, and with their financial resources all things seem possible. In a way, the author attempts to speak for moral standards in a society where they seem to be lacking but with Fitzgerald "youth and wealth, romance and luxury, love and money become somehow identified in the imagination."96

94Ibid., p. 19.
95Ibid., p. 133.
96Troy, p. 539.
A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($\chi^2 = 14.522; P < .01$).

**The Dollmaker**

The Dollmaker has not been singled out for its literary merit nor has its author ever been considered by the critics as a particularly first-rate novelist; nevertheless, it is a moving, important story about one of the major social problems of our time—the migration of southern hill people to the great industrial cities of the North.

The opening scene presents Gertie Nevels, a homely, rawboned, indestructible Kentucky mountain woman with "a talent amounting to a passion for whittling" riding a mule through a rainstorm on a desperate mission to the doctor with her youngest child. The boy is strangling with diphtheria, and she cuts his throat open with a pocket knife inserting a small stick to prevent his suffocating. This first adventure sets the pace for a "harrowing tale completely unrelieved by one positively joyous occasion or a single scrap of humor."  

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**99** Ibid.
Gertie through her own resourcefulness and courage seems on the verge of achieving a modest but happy existence for herself and her family in the mountain community where she has spent her life. Loyalty to Clovis, her husband, and a sense of domestic duty force her to abandon these pursuits and follow him to Detroit where he has found work in a factory: "Yer youngens does need schools, an when Clovis is a maken you a good liven you ought to go to him if he wants it thataway."100

At Merry Hill, a war-time housing project, she finds endless rows of crowded flats lining treeless, bleak alleys in the shadows of a steel mill. Although Clovis is making a hundred dollars a week, he has discovered installment buying. He and the children become lost in the leering world of automobiles, flashy gadgets, radios, comic books, down payments, and all the cheap trinkets of a modern metropolis. Gertie is bewildered by the squalor, the emptiness, the tensions, and the intolerance of the city. Clovis pleads with her to conform: "You won't give in to bein like other people. But it's somethen millions and millions a people has got to do, and th sooner a person learns it, the better."101

She starts the children to school where she finds they too must conform. "This school has many children from many

100 Arnow, p. 137.
101 Ibid., p. 354.
places, but in the end they all--most--adjust, ... learn to get along, like it--be like the others--learn to want to be like the others." 102 Two of them make the adaptation but Reuben, the older son, and Cassie, a slightly unbalanced girl, do not, and they experience rejection at school. Reuben runs away back to the hills and Cassie, always daydreaming as she plays by herself, is accidentally mangled by a train.

Things go from bad to worse. Gertie and Clovis argue about money when he finds that she has been putting aside a little for a rainy day.

Save. ... That's all I've heared since we've been married. Cain't you git it into yer head that ... people that makes a heap more money than I'll ever make don't save? They buy everything on time. They ain't allus a starven their youngens. 103

All around Gertie other aliens are losing their identity. Meanwhile, Clovis is idled by a strike which he doesn't understand. 104 He belittles Gertie's artistry for carving wooden figures and tries to argue her into mass-producing them for sale. She has brought a large block of cherry wood all the way from Kentucky and has been shaping it into a figure of Christ, but has been unable to fashion a face for the figure in her imagination. Economically

102 Ibid., p. 196.

103 Ibid., p. 258.

desperate at the end of the story, she chops up the wood she has been saving in order to have material for making the dolls Clovis wants to sell.

In Kentucky Gertie is in complete command of all life around her and has no superior--man or woman--in the settlement. In Detroit she is a failure, a miserable hillbilly who is not flexible enough to cope with any of the forces in her environment. She suffers one loss after another: she is forced to give up her farm, to accept slum life; her favorite son leaves home; Cassie is tragically destroyed; and Gertie is helpless in the face of her family's moral disintegration. She symbolizes the necessity of one generation's being forced to undergo a certain cultural shock in order to allow the next generation some form of a better life.

As these events unfold in the ugliness and desolation of her alien surroundings, Gertie finds solace in her whittling. The figure she shapes from the block of cherry wood and which she finally destroys becomes symbolic of her own integrity and her perplexed search for some meaning to life.

The Dollmaker illustrates the conflicts between traditional and emergent values quite effectively, Gertie holding the traditional and Clovis pushing toward the new (Table 12). Even the children follow a similar course of conflict, two of them following Gertie and the others aping Clovis.
TABLE 12
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN
THE DOLIMAKER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Gertie Values</th>
<th>Clovis Values</th>
<th>Mrs. Anderson</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>x&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 24.148^c \quad P < .01^d \]

<sup>a</sup>Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>b</sup>Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

<sup>c</sup>The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

<sup>d</sup>The probability of significance for \( x^2 \).

Both husband and wife adhere generally to the Puritan moralities. Clovis follows the social taboos of his primitive religion while Gertie's free spirit of individualism is always threatening to break away. She allows Reuben, for instance, to go hunting on the Sabbath in spite of his father's admonition that "yer mom er me neither don't hold by hunten an carousen around on Sunday."<sup>105</sup> Resting from her terrible ordeal in getting her small son to the village

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<sup>105</sup>Arnow, p. 44.
doctor, Gertie confesses she would enjoy listening to music from a jukebox while she sips coffee. Clovis berates her:

Music, . . . Music at a time like this--dance music. Gert, they's no use a diggen up old troubles--what's done is done--but, well, if' n you'd never a heared dance music you'd a been a lot better off.106

Except for the moralities which grow out of his fundamentalist religion, Clovis is a follower of the emerging values. He is continually pressing his family to adjust to the city's ways, to enjoy the present, to quit worrying about money for the future, and to be like the people around them. The author, however, speaks through Gertie in stressing the traditional values as the basis for a decent society. When Clovis is forced to join the union, Gertie thinks "a man oughtn't to have to join anything except of his own free will. Free will, free will: only your own place on your own land brought free will."107 But without the land she is defeated, and the corrosive influences of modern society leave only her integrity untarnished.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 24.148; P < .01$).

106 Ibid., p. 35.
107 Ibid., p. 308.
The Assistant

Set in a slum section of Brooklyn inhabited by both Jews and gentiles, most of the scenes from The Assistant occur in a dark little neighborhood grocery owned by Morris Bober. He and his wife, Ida, are Russian-Jewish immigrants who came to America hoping for much and getting little. Their life is mean and insignificant and is continually plagued with ill luck and the disappointments so familiar to a family that is always struggling unsuccessfully with a shortage of money. The Bober's daughter, Helen, lives with them over the store and is gradually forced to give up her dreams of a college education and a passion for self-excellence as she goes to work to help support the "blood-sucking" store.

To make matters worse competitive grocers come into the neighborhood with up-to-date equipment and modern marketing methods, and the Bobers' operation shrinks toward bankruptcy. Morris, nagged continually by his good Jewish wife to do something about all this, considers many things but ends up doing nothing--the problems, as he perceives them, being caused by ineluctable fate more than by his own inadequacies.

Into this setting comes a young Italian-American derelict named Frank Alpine whom Morris befriends. When the latter is robbed and beaten by a couple of petty thugs, Alpine moves in to help and becomes Bober's assistant. Business suddenly takes a turn for the better, and Frank, who is working for practically nothing, begins to "borrow" a bit now and then from the cash drawer. In addition to feeling guilty about this pilfering, he is burdened by the knowledge that he was one of the robbers who had assaulted Morris earlier.

Although his attitudes about Jews are uncertain, Frank begins to fall in love with Helen. Mrs. Bober, recognizing the potential misery of her daughter's involvement, demands that Frank be thrown out. Helen does become emotionally involved with him, however, partly because of the urge to protect him from his confused naiveté and partly because of her own need for personal response in an environment otherwise hostile. She had had chances to socialize with her peer group but largely because of the store and her parents and partly because of her own reluctance to experience sex without love she has gradually withdrawn. She refuses Frank's sexual advances, and they work out a platonic relationship which seems to gratify them both.

In order to keep the grocery from total collapse, Frank moonlights as a cook in a short-order joint and quietly transfers his earnings back to the store. One night in the
park as a drunken ruffian attempts to rape Helen, Frank rescues her but, half-mistaking her gratitude for compliance, violates her himself. He is bitterly disgusted with himself for his misconduct and returns to the store when Morris becomes ill and eventually dies. Although they both despise him, Mrs. Bober and Helen become dependent upon Frank for their financial survival. Helen's attitude toward him softens as she realizes his penitent nature and all that he has done for the family. Frank stays on at the store, has himself circumcised, and after Passover becomes a Jew.

_The Assistant_ is dominated by a strict moral tone and "is essentially a parable," written about simple people struggling to survive and maintain their values in a world of bad luck. It may be possible that the Bobers and Frank remain virtuous or strive for self-renunciation mainly out of a lack of initiative or genius for worldly success; but this seems unlikely. In a situation that has potential for a simple renunciation of values, the Bobers manifest deep gentleness of heart. "Basically they are good, and all their variations from goodness only point up the ethical norm which is structural within them."  

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book "there gathers and grows in the mind of the reader a sense of the values and destinies and large truths."

Perhaps what is most fundamental to this novel "is the theme of purgation through the acceptance of the burden of other's sufferings."

In relation to value positions the novel speaks strongly for Puritan morality; the major characters are all possessed of it and conscience, guilt, moral standards, and self-constraint are their basic concerns (Table 13). There are no relativistic values in the novel. Even though she has slept with a man, Helen comes to the conclusion that the experience did not bring her love: "You don't have to be a virgin to have ideals in sex. . . . Loving should come with love." She suffers from this independent attitude in maintaining rapport with her peers. Nat, a potential suitor, draws the line:

You're a funny kid, . . . You've got some old-fashioned values about some things. I always told you you punish yourself too much. Why should anybody have such a hot and heavy conscience in these times? People are freer in the twentieth century. Pardon me for saying it but it's true.

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112Allen, p. 332.

113Malamud, p. 111.

114Ibid., p. 87.
TABLE 13
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN THE ASSISTANT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Morris Bober</th>
<th>Helen Bober</th>
<th>Frank Alpine</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$X^2 = 16.348^b \quad p < .01^d$

a Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

b Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

c The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

d The probability of significance for $X^2$.

Malamud's stories are "a striking example of the opportunities--and hazards--that are faced these days by 'minority' writers who have rejected special pleadings in favor of modern art." 115 Moreover, Fiedler suggests that Malamud "wants to be not a Jewish writer who is less than Jewish, but one who is more than Jewish." 116


In the character of Frank Alpine, Malamud successfully creates a Jewish gentile: "A man who moves from a position of vague hostility to the Jews, through exclusion and suffering, to the point where he is ready to accept circumcision—to become de jure what he is already de facto, one of the ultimately insulted and injured, a Jew."\(^{117}\)

With all of his misbehaviors, Frank is a true penitent and moralist and, through Helen, learns "that one can receive a renewed inner feeling of decency even after transgression."\(^{118}\) Bitterly disgusted with himself for his ill deeds, he is driven by his conscience to plan a confession to Morris that he was one of the men who had beaten and robbed him earlier.

This thought had lived in him with claws; or like a thirst he could never spit out, a repulsive need to get out of his system all that had happened—for whatever had happened had happened wrong; to clean it out of his self and bring in a little peace, a little order; to change the beginning, beginning with the past that always stupendously stank up to now—to change his life before the smell of it suffocated him.\(^{119}\)

Before she becomes mired down in saving the store and involved with Frank, Helen has ambitions to be somebody and to escape the insidious environment of her home. In this

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\(^{118}\) *Malamud*, p. 21.

sense she lives for the future and, when she gives up her education, she is sacrificing her own ambitions for a better family outlook.

Frank also evidences periods of ambition, a need for success, and a willingness to deny present needs for a better future. He wants to purge himself of wrong; he wants to improve his lot and that of the Bobers; and maybe in the end he has a chance to belong to humanity in the way in which he aspires rather than to remain forever excluded.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .01 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($X^2 = 16.348; P < .01$).

The Naked and the Dead

Mailer's book, generally considered the best of the World War II novels, describes the combat experiences of an American reconnaissance platoon during the invasion and capture of a small Pacific island from the Japanese. The platoon is led in action by Sergeant Croft, a Texan sadist driven by inner demonic forces to a cold impersonal hatred and a lust for killing. The over-all battle strategy for

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the invading division is conceived and executed in brilliant fashion by General Cummings, an "over-intellectualized version of a Fascist neither convincing nor typical." In between Croft and Cummings is Harvard-educated Lieutenant Hearn, a liberal dilettante and uncommitted drifter, continually torn between the emotional appeal of liberal ideals and the habituation of power and wealth and painfully cognizant of the futility of both.

Cummings recognizes Hearn's perspicacity and rescues him from combat duty by assigning him as an aide to headquarters staff. The General, in an effort to dispel the isolation imposed by his position of power, uses Hearn as a personal toy, subjecting him alternately to humiliating tasks and diatribes in justification of his own power morality. Hearn has guts enough to resist the emotional and intellectual overtures made by Cummings and for his stubborn unresponsiveness is sent on an impossible combat mission as an officer over Croft's platoon. The latter sees to it that Hearn is killed by the Japanese but the venture disintegrates in spite of Croft's fanatical determination to accomplish its objective of infiltrating the enemy's lines from the rear. Meanwhile, the larger campaign to take the island succeeds as a result of a stupid chance decision by an

incompetent major acting in Cumming's absence. The General's brilliant strategies thus prove ironically useless as does the capture of the island itself.

The book embodies Mailer's views of the human condition and is replete with representatives of a sick and confused society. Apparently the author intends us to believe that there are limits beyond which such men cannot be pushed and that what prevails in the midst of the novel's total irony and absurdity is "the obstinancy of oppressed men" who have suffered these limits. It is difficult, however, to perceive the men of the platoon as actually having internalized this obstinancy at any rational level; one would expect the same individuals to suffer through the same routines on the next island a month later. The closest Mailer comes to presenting any heroic conception of life is through Lieutenant Hearn who never fully believes in his own arguments and is finally broken and killed.

The inevitable conclusion is that Mailer finds conformity the prevalent value (Table 14). While any respect for Cumming's or Croft's abilities is destroyed at the end, no opposition to the General's philosophy emerges. If Mailer had seriously wished to maintain any optimism for

\[^{122}A\]l[\textit{en}, p. 296.]
man's spirit of self, he might have created a character of the stature of Yossarian in Heller's *Catch 22*.123

TABLE 14

TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN THE NAKED AND THE DEAD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>General Cummings</th>
<th>Lt. Hearn</th>
<th>Sergt. Croft</th>
<th>Enlisted Men</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Ridges</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Goldstein</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Valsen</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Goldstein</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Polack</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>Gallagher</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Wilson</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ x^2 = 10.166^c \quad P < .05^d \]

\(^a\)Presence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\(^b\)Absence of the value as rated by the researcher.

\(^c\)The greater amount of agreement found between the researcher and the interjudge agreement of the four outside readers than that expected by chance.

\(^d\)The probability of significance for \(x^2\).

Nevertheless, the characterizations are admirable for the most part. Through a device which Mailer calls "The Time Machine" each member of the platoon is studied clinically as a Freudian determinant of his environment: poverty, class hatreds, parental ambitions, and cheating wives are commonly

involved. While this microcosm of American society is frighteningly homogeneous in its sexual experiences, its spiritual and cultural impoverishment, and its paucity of brains and talent, each member of the group has a salient characteristic which fits nicely into the value components framework: Ridges, the slow-thinking Southern farm boy, is committed to the values of Puritan morality by his religious fundamentalism; Goldstein, the intelligent Brooklyn Jew, has traditional Jewish ambition and "need achievement" and lives for the future; Red Valsen, a tough and rebellious drifter from the Montana mines, has been a loner for a long time and shuns any close personal relationships; Brown, an ambitious and servile salesman in civilian life, finds "it's a good idea to be friends with everybody; you never can tell when you'll want a favor from a man"; Polack is a petty gangster and dead-end kid who lives by the laws of Chicago's South Side; Gallagher, a Boston Irish Jew-baiter whose wife dies in childbirth, is steeped in conformity by the precariousness of his position in life and his subservience to the Church and is a "revolutionary in reverse, an utterly convincing portrait of the smalltime crackpot Fascist." and


125 Mailer, p. 464.

126 C. J. Rolo, Review of The Naked and the Dead, Atlantic, CLXXXVIII (June, 1948), 114.
finally, Wilson, a good-old-boy from Georgia, finds time only to "screw and eat—what the hell's better?"¹²⁷

Mailer's disillusionment is even more pronounced in the treatment of his major characters. Croft illustrates individualism in a pejorative sense—even in marriage he wants no "buddy," hating everything which is not in himself. As his marriage inevitably falls apart, he seeks refuge in impulse release and complete hedonism. Cuming's life is a beautiful illustration of Puritan morality and the work-success ethic: "Fun . . . there are more important things than fun."¹²⁸ As his marriage sours, he drives himself for the future, reading five or six nights a week to increase his ability to control the men under him. Hearn suffers an early exposure to Puritan morality at the Fieldmont Country Day School which does not take: "You do not lie; you do not cheat; you do not swear; you do not screw; you go to church."¹²⁹ His distinguishing value orientation is his individualism: "He liked very few people and most men sensed it uneasily after talking to him for a few minutes."¹³⁰ He is admired most for his independence in telling off his

¹²⁷Mailer, p. 174.
¹²⁸Ibid., p. 356.
¹²⁹Ibid., p. 285.
¹³⁰Ibid., p. 281.
fellow-officers and in nearly having the courage to face down Cummings.

A chi-square test of the agreement reached in value classifications between the researcher and the four outside readers of the novel rejected at the .05 level of confidence the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement ($\chi^2 = 10.166; P < .05$).

Summary of Content Analysis

An analysis has been presented for each of the ten novels including a résumé of the plot, a table classifying the traditional and emergent value positions of the leading characters and the total novel, an interpretation of the content in support of the value classifications, and a chi-square test of the agreement that existed between the value ratings of the researcher and those of four outside "experts" in the literary field.

The chi-square ($\chi^2$) test for each novel rejected the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement between the value ratings of the researcher and those of the four outside readers, with a probability ($P$) of significance greater than the .01 level in eight cases and the .05 level in two. Since the divergence of the actual agreement in value ratings from the expected "chance" agreement could not be accounted for solely by sampling fluctuations, the figures indicated that the value classifications of the
researcher approximated the "interjudge agreement" of the four reader "experts" and could, therefore, be considered to have validity.

A summary of the value positions represented by the characters in the novels and by the novels themselves is presented in Table 15. The assumption made in the rationale that a wide variation of value positions would be offered by content from modern novels is supported by the figures. The values of the ten novels in their totality were almost evenly divided between the traditional (11) and emergent (10) positions. A few more of the 34 leading characters who were classified (the eight platoon members in The Naked and the Dead counting as one) were rated as representing emergent values than traditional—66 to 57. In both cases, however, all of the eight value positions were well-represented in a reasonably even distribution. On the basis of these findings it could be assumed that a range of value positions would be likely to be found in any representative group of five or ten modern novels.

Chapter IV has described the method of selecting ten modern novels for the study and has presented the findings of the content analyses of the novels selected. The data from the instruments administered to the sample of advanced graduate students and from the interviews held with them to obtain their perceptions of the rationale are presented in the following chapter.
### TABLE 15

**SUMMARY OF VALUE POSITIONS IN THE TEN NOVELS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values</th>
<th>Number of Characters Representing Value Positions</th>
<th>Number of Novels Representing Value Positions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Traditional:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puritan morality</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-success ethic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future-time</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total traditional</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emergent:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relativistic morals</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present-time</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total emergent</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\*The total number of characters rated was 34; in The Naked and the Dead the eight characters in the platoon were counted as one.*
CHAPTER V

RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE RATIONALE

Chapter IV was concerned with the second major objective of the study--to determine whether content from modern novels provides a wide range of value positions--and presented the findings of content analyses made of ten modern novels for this purpose. Chapter V is concerned with the third major objective of the study which was to test the rationale at the perceptual level with a group of advanced graduate students in educational administration. To accomplish this objective an attitude inventory along with a background data sheet was administered to the sample test group, and interviews held with most of the respondents. The data, which include the respondents' attitudes and reactions to the major positions taken by the rationale as well as information about the respondents themselves, are now presented.

The Respondents

The educational backgrounds and professional experiences of doctoral students in educational administration are of continuing interest to persons responsible for planning preparatory programs. While the sample group of 84
respondents in this study is not considered statistically representative of the total population of graduate students in educational administration, some similarities undoubtedly exist between the smaller and the larger groups. In order to acquire a minimum amount of demographic data and some background information on educational and professional experiences, a background data sheet (Appendix D) was submitted to the respondents.

**Professional experiences:**

The respondent group started their teaching careers at a fairly early average age of 23.2 years (Table 16). Their first administrative positions in education were obtained only five years later at an average age of 28.3 years. But their average age at the time the data were gathered was over 39 years, indicating that their average age upon receiving the doctoral degree would be approximately 40 years, with 42 per cent of the group at age 40 or over. These figures do little to refute the notion that a way must be found to start doctoral students in educational administration through their graduate programs at an earlier age.

The teaching experiences of the respondent group were centered chiefly at the secondary level (Table 17). On the average, respondents spent less than a year (.71 years) in elementary classrooms compared to an average of over four years (4.26 years) at the secondary level including grades
7-12. Over twice as many respondents (77.3 per cent) had no experience at all in the elementary grades (K-6) compared to those having had no experience in the senior high school, grades 10-12 (33.3 per cent).

**TABLE 16**

**AGE OF RESPONDENTS, AGE AT FIRST TEACHING EXPERIENCE, AND AGE AT FIRST ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 20</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 29</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 - 59</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aTwo respondents marked no teaching experience.

**TABLE 17**

**YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING POSITIONS PREVIOUSLY HELD BY RESPONDENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Positions</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents with Number of Years Experience</th>
<th>Mean Years Experience for All Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary (K-6)</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high (7-9)</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high (10-12)</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=84)
The administrative experiences of the respondent group were also oriented to the secondary school as compared with the elementary level (Table 18). Respondents served twice as long on the average as secondary principals (3.08 years) compared to elementary principals (1.51 years). They had served an average of four years as superintendents or assistant superintendents, and a third of them (33.4 per cent) had worked in central office positions.

\begin{table}
\centering
\caption{Years of Experience in Administrative Positions Previously Held by Respondents}
\label{tab:admin-experience}
\begin{tabular}{lcccrc}
\hline
\multicolumn{2}{c}{Administrative Positions} & \multicolumn{4}{c}{Percentage of Respondents with Number of Years Experience} & \multicolumn{1}{c}{Mean Years Experience for All Respondents} \\
\multicolumn{2}{c}{} & 0 Yrs. & 1-3 Yrs. & 4-6 Yrs. & Over 6 Yrs. & \\
\hline
Elementary principal & 70.3 & 13.1 & 7.1 & 9.5 & 1.51 \\
Secondary principal & 38.1 & 28.6 & 13.1 & 20.2 & 3.08 \\
Central office & 66.6 & 17.9 & 9.5 & 6.0 & 1.33 \\
Assistant sup't. & 84.5 & 14.3 & 1.2 & 0.0 & 0.37 \\
Superintendent & 15.2 & 45.0 & 24.3 & 15.5 & 3.63 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

Both the teaching and administrative backgrounds of the respondents, then, lent support to the notion that doctoral candidates in educational administration may emerge much more often from the secondary level of education than from the elementary. The most recent study of the school superintendency in America\footnote{AASA, Professional Administrators for America's Schools, 1960.} indicated that over twice as
many of the superintendents reporting had held high school principalships compared to elementary school principalships, and that over three times as many had taught at the secondary school level as compared to the elementary level.

**Educational background**

The 1960 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators reported that the "commonly held stereotype of the superintendent [as] a graduate of a normal school or teachers college and [as a student of] only professional education . . . is not consistent with the evidence." Less than a fifth of the superintendents [840 reporting] majored in education and one-seventh of them minor ed in that field at the undergraduate level. . . . The undergraduate background of American school superintendents is strong in the intellectual studies of the modern liberal arts. . . . This finding should put to rest speculation that superintendents have been exposed only to professional education and physical education.

Yet the speculation persists. The majority of the respondents (64.3 per cent) in the present study were trained at the undergraduate level for teaching in secondary education (Table 19). A fourth of the group received little or no

---

2 AASA, Profile of the School Superintendent, p. 107.

3 Ibid., p. 109.


5 Ibid., p. 27.
### TABLE 19
RESPONDENTS’ PATTERNS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDY
BY MAJOR FIELDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns of Undergraduate Study by Major Fields</th>
<th>Respondents (N=84)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and biological sciences</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial arts</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational agriculture</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental music</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total secondary education</strong></td>
<td><strong>54</strong></td>
<td><strong>64.3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and biological sciences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total nonprofessional</strong></td>
<td><strong>21</strong></td>
<td><strong>25.0</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA degrees received</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-BA degrees received</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>67.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Professional preparation in education at the undergraduate level, however, indicating that there may be some attraction for the liberal arts graduate in the field of educational administration. A total of 10.7 per cent of the group was prepared for work in elementary education.

Bachelor of Arts degrees were received by 32.1 per cent of the respondents. The other 67.9 per cent received...
mostly Bachelor of Science degrees in secondary education.

While students in elementary education could probably be described as the only ones majoring in professional education (Table 20), the secondary areas of industrial arts,

**TABLE 20**

RESPONDENTS' MAJOR FIELDS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Field of Study</th>
<th>Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and biological sciences</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary education</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial arts</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational agriculture</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental music</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

business education, physical education, vocational agriculture, and to a lesser extent social studies, are sometimes thought of as professional education areas. The undergraduate backgrounds of the respondents in this study could not convincingly be described as "strong in the intellectual studies of the modern liberal arts" as only 59.5 per cent were majoring in liberal studies (omitting industrial arts, business education, physical education, vocational agriculture,
and social studies)\(^6\) nearly half of whom (23.8 per cent) were majoring in mathematics or the physical and biological sciences.

The respondents' minor fields of study are presented in Table 21. They do not vary extremely from the patterns established in their major concentrations.

### TABLE 21

RESPONDENTS’ MINOR FIELDS OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minor Field of Study</th>
<th>Respondents (N=84)</th>
<th>Number(^a)</th>
<th>Percentage(^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and biological sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Four respondents did not mark minor fields of study.

The findings presented in Table 22 are based on the respondents' descriptions of their educational backgrounds and were not derived from any official transcripts or similar documents. To the extent that the figures are accurate representations of the respondents' course work, however,\(^6\)

\(^6\)Social studies majors at some universities have received a strong liberal arts background. Most of these persons in this study would be classified under a "social sciences" major.
TABLE 22

SEMESTER HOURS EARNED BY RESPONDENTS IN PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION AND RELATED AREAS AT THE UNDERGRADUATE, MASTER'S, AND DOCTORAL LEVELS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Areas</th>
<th>Mean Semester Hours per Respondent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undergraduate Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative tasks(^a)</td>
<td>13.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative processes(^b)</td>
<td>6.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational foundations(^c)</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other professional education courses(^d)</td>
<td>22.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>35.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) Such courses as administration and organization, business management, curriculum, field experiences, public relations, pupil personnel, finance, school law, plant, staff personnel, and supervision.

\(^b\) Such courses as administrative theory, educational psychology, educational sociology, group dynamics, human relations, leadership, and research.

\(^c\) Such courses as comparative education, history of education, philosophy of education, and social foundations.

\(^d\) Such courses as adult education, elementary education, higher education, secondary education, and special education.

\(^e\) All professional undergraduate courses in education. Respondents were asked only for their professional education hours at the undergraduate level.
they indicate that approximately a third of both the master's and doctoral programs was made up of courses in the task areas (38.8 per cent and 36.0 per cent respectively); another third was made up of studies in the social sciences or courses in the administrative processes related closely to the social sciences (29.3 per cent and 38.5 per cent respectively); and the final third was divided between "other professional education" courses (15.1 per cent and 11.1 per cent respectively) and foundation courses or work from the humanities (16.8 per cent and 14.4 per cent respectively).

The social sciences were generally well-represented in graduate programs completed by the respondent group, both in course work from the regular social science disciplines and in educational courses such as group dynamics, leadership, and administrative theory which had been adapted to include content from the social science fields. This observation was supported in the interviews when interviewees related the patterns of courses of study they had taken, and it applied not only to the 11 universities from which the sample was drawn but also to many other institutions from which the respondents had earned their Master's degrees.

Courses in the administrative task areas continued to play a major role in graduate programs. Students reported that some of these courses were duplicated as they were required to fulfill state certification requirements for
administrative positions or as they shifted from one institution to another during their graduate study (50 of the 84 respondents changed schools after their master's program was completed).

Courses in the humanities, even when coupled with the courses in educational foundations, played a relatively minor role in the graduate programs of the respondent group.

**Professional aspirations**

The future career aspirations of doctoral students in educational administration must obviously be considered in developing preparatory programs. Table 23 indicates that over half (53.3 per cent) of the interviewees anticipated being in superintendencies five or ten years from now. The balance of the group expected to be professors in education (14.7 per cent--mostly educational administration), researchers in education (9.3 per cent), administrators in colleges or junior colleges (8 per cent), central office specialists (8 per cent), or secondary principals (6.7 per cent). Thus, only about a quarter of the interview group perceived themselves as having careers outside of the public school complex. There were sharp contrasts in career expectations among students from different universities; there were also indications from the interviews that a number of students would have preferred careers in higher education if more professorships had been available.
TABLE 23

INTERVIEWEES1 EXPECTATIONS FOR FUTURE CAREERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position Anticipated</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professorship in education</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in education</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration in higher education</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central office administration</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary principal</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1Interviewees were asked what position they would most likely be in five or ten years from now.

Summary

Data elicited from the respondents concerning their educational backgrounds and professional experiences indicated that on the average their teaching careers commenced at an early age (23.2 years), their administrative careers began only five years later, but the completion of their doctoral programs was delayed until the respondents were approximately 40 years of age. The average respondent had much more experience in secondary teaching and in secondary administration than in teaching or administration at the elementary level. He had served an average of four years as a superintendent or assistant superintendent.

It would be difficult to contend that the group received a strong preparation in liberal arts studies as undergraduates. As graduate students they completed approximately a third of their work in the administrative task
areas, a third in the social sciences and courses in the administrative processes, and most of the balance in a variety of other professional education courses; the humanities played a negligible role. Approximately half of the respondents anticipated careers as school superintendents, with the other half distributed among various other areas in education.

Programs of Preparation

In order to integrate the findings from the five attitude scales and the personal interviews, the data from both were tabulated around the five basic questions being investigated: (1) respondents' attitudes toward programs of preparation; (2) respondents' perceptions of the role of the future superintendent; (3) respondents' attitudes on the need for preparation in purpose-defining skills and values at the graduate level; (4) respondents' attitudes toward a balanced curriculum including content from the social sciences, the humanities, and the administrative technologies; and (5) respondents' perceptions of the relevance of using content from the modern novel in graduate programs. The findings related to these five questions are now discussed.

Table 24 lists the responses to each item on the attitude scale concerning preparatory programs for school administrators. Respondents were asked to express opinions in terms of all programs of preparation rather than just
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=20)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FAVORABLE ITEMS:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovations are constantly being introduced in graduate programs</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In taking exams in generally pays to state your own opinions even though they may differ considerably from the professor's</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The courses in administration are exciting and stimulating intellectually</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As graduate students we are generally treated as responsible adults</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of instruction in administration courses is better than average</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The program is made flexible to meet the needs of individual students</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A large variety of instructional methods is being used in administration courses</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=20)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My graduate program helped me to understand more clearly and feel more deeply about administrative concepts that had merely been phrases before</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>22.6 69.0 3.6 4.8 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculties in administration have a wide concern for the guidance and advisement of graduate students</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>9.5 40.5 16.7 21.4 11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs now offer plenty of opportunities for meaningful field experiences</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.4 26.2 14.3 42.9 14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simulated materials for training administrators aren't authentic enough to stimulate genuine responses</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>7.1 21.4 13.1 51.2 7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An administrator gains more advantage from the prestige of a doctoral degree than from what he actually learns in the program</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>13.1 29.8 22.6 31.0 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success in graduate work has little bearing on being a successful school administrator</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>7.1 25.0 21.4 38.1 8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many courses in administration are concerned with an over-analysis of what is already obvious</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>6.0 41.7 9.5 41.7 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=20)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In your graduate program the ability to get along with people is more important than what you know</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.6 21.4 16.7 54.8 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The content in administration courses is too repetitive</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>7.1 39.3 7.1 45.2 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The graduate program lasts too long</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>2.4 11.9 15.5 54.8 15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perseverance is more important than scholarship for success in graduate work</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>8.3 36.9 11.9 40.5 2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It isn't too safe for graduate students to have original or ingenious ideas</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.0 14.3 6.0 63.1 16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important thing in the graduate program is getting your degree</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>7.1 15.5 11.9 44.0 21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean item score</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of item scores</td>
<td>2.60 - 4.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of respondents' mean scores</td>
<td>2.15 - 4.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring below a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring above a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aCategories indicate Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

bWeighted scores are 5 to 1 for favorable items and 1 to 5 for unfavorable items.
their own. The mean item score\(^7\) of 3.18 with a wide range of respondents' scores from 2.15 to 4.40 gave support to the position that respondents tended to be ambivalent in their attitude toward graduate programs although they were slightly more favorable than unfavorable.

Respondents as a group agreed strongly (91.6 per cent)\(^8\) that their programs had helped them to understand more clearly and feel more deeply about administrative concepts that had merely been phrases before. They agreed to a lesser extent (60.9 per cent) that as graduate students they were generally treated as adults, and that innovations were constantly being introduced in graduate programs (58.3 per cent).

As a group they strongly disagreed (79.8 per cent) that it was not safe for graduate students to have original or ingenious ideas, that the graduate program lasted too long (70.3 per cent), or that the most important thing in the program was getting a degree (65.4 per cent). They also disagreed (57.2 per cent) that present programs offered plenty of opportunities for field experiences.

\(^7\)The theoretical range of scale scores was 5-1; a score of 5 would be the most favorable attitude possible and a score of 1 the least favorable.

\(^8\)For the purposes of discussion, figures giving percentages of respondents' agreeing with an item include both "agree" and "strongly agree"; respondents' disagreeing with an item include both "disagree" and "strongly disagree."
At the conclusion of the interview, the interviewees were asked to rate ten specific aspects of their own graduate programs, not so much in comparison to other programs but more in terms of a general image they might hold of their own. The ratings are shown in Table 25.

Interviewees generally supported their programs as "strong" or "average" and were reluctant to judge them as "weak" in any respect. The lowest ratings were given to the item "opportunities for meaningful field experiences," usually interpreted as internships and occasionally as research or survey studies in the field. While most respondents advocated a greater use of internships, a number expressed dissatisfaction with them as offering genuine administrative experiences.

The interviewees were asked to name one or two of the major strengths of their graduate program without referring to specific courses. This was an open-ended question in which no particular items were mentioned by the interviewer. Nearly half (41.3 per cent) of the group mentioned their work in other disciplines—usually the social sciences—as being quite worthwhile (Table 26). A number of the interviewees (30.7 per cent) appreciated the high quality of the staff in educational administration, and 28 per cent valued the opportunity given them to gain experiences in on-going research projects. There was often an expression that the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program Aspects</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class size and student-teacher ratio in administration courses</td>
<td>65.3  32.0  2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum materials and library resources</td>
<td>60.0  34.7  5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of fellow students in the program</td>
<td>58.6  34.7  6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for contacts with professional groups and associations</td>
<td>57.3  32.0  10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility of the program, permitting individualization</td>
<td>56.0  32.0  12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of faculty advisement</td>
<td>49.3  40.0  10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student financial aid</td>
<td>46.7  41.3  12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help in getting started on dissertation</td>
<td>44.0  45.3  10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for exploratory activities in research</td>
<td>42.7  41.3  16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for meaningful field experiences</td>
<td>33.3  38.7  28.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) These aspects were presented to all interviewees as a check list.

\(^b\) The three columns are Strong, Average, and Weak.
TABLE 26

MAJOR STRENGTHS OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS PERCEIVED BY INTERVIEWEES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Strengths</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interdisciplinary contacts across campus</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of staff in educational administration</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for experience in research</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close personal relationships with faculty in educational administration</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work in social sciences and administrative theory</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of a philosophy of educational administration</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association with fellow graduate students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aInterviewees were asked to name one or two of the major strengths of their graduate program other than specific courses; a list was not given them to check.

bPercentages total more than 100.0 since more than one choice was made in many cases.

informal aspects of the program had proved to be just as valuable as the more formal ones. This was particularly true in those institutions where a close personal relationship had developed with the faculty group in educational administration. It was evident that there was a wide variation among the different universities in the factor of social
distance that was maintained between the graduate students and the faculty.

Interviewees were also asked to name one or two of the most serious weaknesses in their programs. The "gap" that continues to exist between the university classroom and administrative practice was listed by 48 per cent of the group (Table 27). A need was frequently expressed that a circle of relevancy be drawn between the school and the university, and that more one-to-one relationships be established between individual first-rate public schools and university training programs.

Many interviewees (42.7 per cent) mentioned the poor quality of administrative task courses as a weakness. They were partially concerned in this regard about the professors whose faculty committee loads, publishing demands, and research commitments seriously hampered the time they could give to actual instruction.

Almost a fifth of the group (18.7 per cent) criticized the foreign language requirement as being irrelevant. Many of these recommended the substitution of work in statistics or computer technology.

Table 28 contains the interviewees' perceptions of the adequacy of their graduate programs for preparation in several specific career areas. Twelve per cent more of the group (52.0 per cent compared to 40.0 per cent) gave a "strong"
TABLE 27
MAJOR WEAKNESSES OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS PERCEIVED BY INTERVIEWEES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Weaknesses</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Failure to bridge the gap between the university and administration</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor quality of administrative task courses</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language requirement</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enough interdisciplinary courses or contacts</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value prescription in educational administration courses</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enough informal contacts with staff in administration</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor professional placement opportunities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Interviewees were asked to name one or two of the major weaknesses of their graduate program other than specific courses; a list was not given them to check.

b Percentages total more than 100.0 since more than one choice was made in many cases.

rating to their program as preparation for the professorship than as preparation for the superintendency. Preparation for a career in educational research was considered as the weakest of the three areas.
TABLE 28

INTERVIEWEES' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE QUALITY OF THEIR OWN
GRADUATE PROGRAM AS PREPARATION FOR
SPECIFIC CAREER AREAS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Career Areas</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As preparation for a professorship</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As preparation for a superintendency</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As preparation for research in education</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)The three columns are Strong, Average, and Weak.

Summary

Respondents to the attitude scale on preparatory programs tended to be ambivalent in their attitudes toward graduate programs although slightly more favorable than unfavorable. The interview group rated ten different aspects of their own programs strong to average, seldom calling them weak. Greatest strengths of the graduate programs were named by interviewees as interdisciplinary contacts, principally in the social sciences, the high quality of the staffs in educational administration, and various opportunities to participate in on-going research projects. Program weaknesses emphasized the continued difficulty of bridging the gap between university programs and administrative practices, and the poor quality of administrative task courses often resulting from instructors overloaded with demands to publish,
complete research, or carry on their various faculty responsibilities. Training programs were perceived as stronger in preparing candidates for the professorship than for the superintendency.

The Role of the Superintendent

It is important that possible roles of the superintendent be defined before final decisions are made about graduate programs and their content. Interviewees were questioned about their attitudes toward different generalizations of the superintendent's role, and an attitude scale on the role of the superintendent as a perceptive generalist was administered to the respondent group.

Interviews

The interviewees were first asked whether they perceived the superintendent as primarily exercising a leadership role in the areas of educational purposes and policies or a mediating role among or between various pressure groups in the community. Over half of the group (54.7 per cent) felt the superintendent ought to play a leadership role; 20 per cent thought he should play a mediating role; and approximately a fourth of the interviewees (25.3 per cent) perceived the role as frequently vacillating between leadership and mediation depending on the situation (Table 29).
TABLE 29
INTERVIEWEES' ATTITUDES TOWARD DIFFERENT GENERALIZATIONS OF THE SUPERINTENDENT'S ROLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role of Superintendent</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The superintendent ought to exercise a leadership role in the areas of educational purposes and policies</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The graduate program should prepare all administrators in a common curriculum for a professional administrative role which would be effective for any type of organization</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The perceptive generalist role is the most appropriate for the superintendent of the future</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>The three columns are Agree, Uncertain, and Disagree.

<sup>b</sup>Interviewees in this column perceived the superintendent's role as intermittently leadership or mediation.

<sup>c</sup>Interviewees in this category perceived the superintendent's role as a mediator between or among various spheres of influence.

The interviewees were then asked their reaction to a graduate program which would prepare administrators for a professional administrative role that would be effective for many types of organizations—schools, hospitals, businesses, and so on. Approximately half of the group (50.7 per cent) were opposed to this concept, a fourth approved (25.3 per cent), and a fourth (24 per cent) were uncertain.
An overwhelming majority (82.7 per cent) agreed that the perceptive generalist role, as described in the abstract of the rationale which they had received, was the most appropriate for the superintendent of the future. There were some reservations voiced along with this agreement: many felt the rise of the central office staff concept and the rapid development of large suburban districts made the generalist concept essential for this type of system; others felt a generalist was necessary only for smaller systems where the superintendent had to be competent in all areas; and a few interviewees feared that getting an administrative position would be made more difficult if they were not trained as specialists.

**Attitude scale**

Table 30 lists the responses to each item on the attitude scale concerning the superintendent as a perceptive generalist. The mean item score of 3.80 and the fact that all but one respondent scored higher than the mean of 3.00 indicated a favorable reaction by the group to the perceptive generalist concept.

Respondents as a group agreed strongly (98.8 per cent) that superintendents will need to perceive educational problems in their broader context, will need to develop an ability to see the whole picture (85.7 per cent), and will need to become more concerned with educational statesmanship.
## TABLE 30
RESPONSES TO ATTITUDE SCALE ON THE ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT AS A PERCEPTIVE GENERALIST

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=19)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents (N=19)</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA (5)</td>
<td>A (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Favorable items:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The superintendent of the future will be more and more concerned with educational statesmanship</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The model of the superintendent as an official to carry on the day-to-day business of managing the schools is outdated</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ability to create a harmonious unity out of antagonistic pressures is basic for a good administrator</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good superintendent must be able to switch adeptly from one role to another</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The chief qualification for a top administrator is the ability to see the whole picture</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ideal superintendent combines the intellectual aspects of administration with vigorous action</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 30 (Contd.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=19)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=34)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA (5)</td>
<td>A (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The broad demands on administration today make it difficult for a person who is narrowly specialized.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems at the higher level of administration are becoming less specialized and more general</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The challenge of defining education purposes can best be met by administrators with a generalist's orientation</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School superintendents will need to perceive problems in their broader context</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The future superintendent will spend a greater part of his time on execution of board policies</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would rather work under an administrator who was a recognized authority in one area than a jack-of-all trades</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In choosing a new superintendent the best bet would be a specialist in business administration</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=19)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents (SA)</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators should be concerned with how to get things done rather than with what ought to be done</td>
<td>3.89 1.2 9.5 7.1 63.1 19.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A generalist in administration has to rely too much on other people's advice</td>
<td>3.83 2.4 6.0 9.5 70.2 11.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good superintendent today should be an expert in some phase of administration</td>
<td>2.88 6.0 35.7 25.0 31.0 2.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A potential administrator who was as reflective about educational purposes as he was active in managerial duties would be a poor risk</td>
<td>4.05 0.0 2.4 14.3 59.5 23.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fact that we are living in an increasingly specialized society calls for specialists in positions of administrative leadership</td>
<td>3.14 6.0 34.5 7.1 44.0 8.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If a superintendent can get along well with people, he can solve all his other problems</td>
<td>4.04 0.0 4.8 3.6 75.0 16.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean item score</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of item scores</td>
<td>2.49 - 4.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of respondents' mean scores</td>
<td>2.89 - 4.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring below a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring above a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aCategories indicate: Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

^bWeighted scores are 5 to 1 for favorable items and 1 to 5 for unfavorable items.
They were strongly opposed (94 per cent) to the proposition that a specialist in business administration would be the best bet in choosing a new superintendent and to the statement that a potential administrator who was as reflective about educational purposes as he was active in managerial duties would be a poor risk (83.3 per cent). A large number of respondents (41.7 per cent) agreed, however, with the statement that a good superintendent should be an expert in some phase of administration.

Summary

Twice as many interviewees preferred the superintendent as a leader rather than as a mediator in the area of educational purposes and policies. There was a strong impression, however, that the leadership role should not extend beyond reasonable limits set by the restricting power structures of the community. Only half of the group opposed the development of more comprehensive university programs which would prepare administrators simultaneously for administrative work in different types of organizations. A favorable reaction was expressed to such a program concept if reasonable provisions could be made for both common and specialized learnings.

Responses to both the attitude scale and the interviews indicated a strong agreement with the position that the
perceptive generalist role would be most appropriate for the future superintendent.

Need for Preparation in Purpose-Defining Skills and Values

The rationale took the position that there was a need for preparation in purpose-defining skills and values. Interviewees were asked about their training in this area. Was there a "felt" need for such a preparation in graduate programs and, if so, what sort of approach might be appropriate? An attitude scale was also administered concerning the group's attitudes toward the need for this type of preparation experience.

Interviews

Previous data\(^9\) have indicated that a block of preparation time for the respondents was given over to courses in the educational foundations (approximately 10 per cent of the total program); presumably, some of this time would have been devoted to preparation in purpose-defining skills and values. Approximately four-fifths of the interviewees (78.7 per cent) indicated they had received some formal preparation in this area, most of it through courses in educational philosophy or social foundations but occasionally in administrative seminars (Table 31).

\(^9\)Supra, Table 22, p. 204.
TABLE 31

FORMAL PREPARATION OF INTERVIEWEES IN PURPOSE-DEFINING SKILLS AND VALUES AT THE GRADUATE LEVEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Preparation</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational philosophy</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal preparation</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad social foundations</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational administration seminars</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both educational philosophy and administrative seminars</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the interviewees (86.7 per cent) felt that some preparation in purpose-defining skills and values was important (Table 32); a majority (74.7 per cent) agreed with the rationale that values should not be prescribed or taught and that a deliberate process of value clarification as described in the rationale was feasible. Many interviewees were apprehensive, however, that such a process would prove unsuccessful, stressing the great importance of skillful leadership, safety for the student in disagreement, and the avoidance of "meaningless talk." Mention was made of several successful experiences with "brown bag" luncheon groups and both credit and noncredit seminars which featured informal sessions with prominent educators, superintendents, or leaders from other fields.
TABLE 32
INTERVIEWEES' ATTITUDES TOWARD GRADUATE WORK IN
PURPOSE-DEFINING SKILLS AND VALUES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you feel that some preparation in purpose-defining skills and values was important</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A deliberate process&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt; of value clarification is a feasible approach to preparation in purpose-defining skills and values</td>
<td>74.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>The three columns are Agree, Uncertain, and Disagree.

<sup>b</sup>The process was defined in the rationale.

Attitude scales

Table 33 lists the responses to each item on the attitude scale concerning the need for graduate preparation in purpose-defining skills and values. The mean item score of 3.71 and the fact that all respondents but one scored higher than a mean of 3.00 indicated a favorable attitude by the group toward the importance of graduate work in this area.

As a group, respondents felt strongly (100 per cent) that a good administrator should be intellectually aware of his purposes in education, that superintendents should be able to understand and assign priorities to opposing values in administrative situations (97.6 per cent), and that a need existed to re-examine one's own value system periodically.
TABLE 33
RESPONSES TO ATTITUDE SCALE ON THE NEED FOR GRADUATE PREPARATION IN PURPOSE-DEFINING SKILLS AND VALUES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=20)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favorable items:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While I hold pretty strongly to certain beliefs about education, it is</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.0 9.5 0.0 63.1 27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficult to verbalize my position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is difficult to define educational purposes</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>2.4 16.7 1.2 63.1 16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A superintendent must be able to understand and to assign priorities to</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>20.2 77.4 2.4 0.0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opposing values in administrative situations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since cultural values are gradually changing, each of us needs to re-</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>29.8 65.5 2.4 2.4 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>examine his own value system periodically</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ability to define educational purposes is basic to all other work in</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>11.9 71.4 7.1 9.5 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>administration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good administrator should be intellectually aware of his purposes in</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>32.1 68.9 0.0 0.0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 33 (Contd.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=20)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA (5)</td>
<td>A (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The average student entering a graduate program in educational administration knows little about his basic educational purposes</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training in educational purpose and in the processes of purpose development is a critical element in the education of an effective administrator</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items:</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best studies of administrative behavior omit the &quot;shoulds&quot; or &quot;oughts&quot; from consideration</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No good techniques can be developed for clarifying values</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is dangerous to raise questions about a person's values</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study about values is a waste of time because there is no right or wrong and values are all relative</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A person's values generally remain fixed after he reaches twenty-one</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=20)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values are derived from emotional preferences and not influenced by serious study</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education in values should be left to the church or the home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people I know taking graduate work in administration are not apt to change their basic values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We can't explore values rationally because our expressed values are not always the ones we really believe in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good administrator can't afford to change his value positions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is little point in studying values since an administrator usually adjusts his values to agree with the school board's</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational purpose should be left to the public and the school board</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA (1)</th>
<th>A (2)</th>
<th>U (3)</th>
<th>D (4)</th>
<th>SDa (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values are derived from emotional preferences and not influenced by serious study</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education in values should be left to the church or the home</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people I know taking graduate work in administration are not apt to change their basic values</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We can't explore values rationally because our expressed values are not always the ones we really believe in</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>72.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good administrator can't afford to change his value positions</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is little point in studying values since an administrator usually adjusts his values to agree with the school board's</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational purpose should be left to the public and the school board</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>59.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TABLE 33 (Contd.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean item score</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of item scores</td>
<td>1.92 - 4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range of respondents' mean scores</td>
<td>2.95 - 4.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring below a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents scoring above a mean of 3.00</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a* Categories indicate Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

*b* Weighted scores are 5 to 1 for favorable items and 1 to 5 for unfavorable items.
(95.3 per cent). They reacted unfavorably (96.4 per cent) to the suggestion that educational purposes should be left to the public and the school board or that education in values should be left to the church or the home (97.6 per cent).

While indicating agreement that a need existed for preparation in purpose-defining skills and values, respondents at the same time strangely disagreed (79.8 per cent) that it was difficult to define educational purposes or to verbalize their own beliefs about education (90.5 per cent).

Summary

The rationale's position that a need existed for preparation of doctoral students in purpose-defining skills and values was strongly supported both in the interviews and on the attitude scale responses. Interviewees had few ideas, however, about how the need could best be met. They resented prescriptive methods and wished to avoid courses "with meaningless talk." Informal seminars with skillful, down-to-earth leadership were often mentioned as successful experiences. There was agreement that the rationale's ideas about value clarification were feasible but there seemed to be only a moderate amount of understanding about the process and not a great amount of confidence that it would prove successful. Respondents expressed great confidence in their own
abilities to define educational purposes and to verbalize their beliefs about education.

A Balanced Curriculum

The rationale took a position in favor of a balanced curriculum including content in some sort of reasonable ratio from the social sciences, the humanities, and the technologies of administration. Attitude scales were administered on the use of content from the social sciences and the humanities and interviewees were questioned in the same vein with particular emphasis on their reaction to the balanced curriculum and their experiences with the social sciences.

Attitude scales

Table 34 lists the responses to each item on the attitude scale concerning the use of content from the social sciences in graduate programs. The mean item score of 3.66 plus the fact that 80 of the respondents scored above a mean of 3.00 suggested a favorable attitude toward the use of social science content.

Respondents as a group felt strongly (91.7 per cent) that the concepts and analytical methods of political science would be helpful to administrators, that understanding the sociology of organizations and group dynamics was essential to the proper administration of a staff personnel program
TABLE 34
RESPONSES TO ATTITUDE SCALE ON THE USE OF CONTENT FROM THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES IN GRADUATE PROGRAMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=18)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Favorable items:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrator's need to acquire a systematic way of looking at things can best be gained by work in the social sciences</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The administrator should be a social science engineer developing strategies for running his organization</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the sociology of organizations and group dynamics is essential to the proper administration of a staff personnel program</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science methods in administration make it possible to discard &quot;rule of thumb&quot; techniques</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A minor area of study in one of the social sciences should be required of all doctoral candidates</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The administrator of a school system should be familiar with the concepts and analytical methods of political science.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=18)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The administrator of a school system should be familiar with the concepts and analytical methods of political science</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>15.5 76.2 6.0 1.2 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students should participate in research conducted jointly by social scientists and professors of educational administration</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>15.5 73.8 7.1 3.6 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social sciences help administrators to become sophisticated in their ability to collect relevant data pertaining to school problems</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>10.7 64.3 15.5 7.1 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An internship under a good administrator provides better preparation for the superintendency than courses in the social sciences</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>19.0 35.7 22.6 19.0 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A study of the social sciences in depth is wasteful because they change so rapidly</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>2.4 1.2 2.4 59.5 34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=18)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since research in the social sciences is largely a description of what has-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happened, it offers a poor criterion for decisions about the future</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.0 0.0 3.6 70.2 26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is unlikely that scientific predictions of behavior in administration</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>2.4 16.7 16.7 59.5 4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can be made with any accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courses I have taken in the social sciences are largely a waste of time</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.0 2.4 6.0 60.7 30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors in educational administration have difficulty interpreting</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.2 23.8 11.9 53.6 9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>social science concepts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social science courses are too &quot;theory&quot; oriented</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.2 16.7 16.7 56.0 9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since research studies in schools are generally done by outside consultants,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extensive study in the social sciences isn't worthwhile</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.0 1.2 8.3 72.6 17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a danger that the currently popular study of the social sciences</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.6 29.8 27.4 33.3 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will become overemphasized</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 34 (Contd.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=18)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA (1)</td>
<td>A (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since research in the social sciences ignores what &quot;ought&quot; to be, it has minor relevance for educational administration</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean item score 3.66
Range of item scores 2.52 - 4.23
Range of respondents' mean scores 2.22 - 4.56
Respondents scoring below a mean of 3.00 4
Respondents scoring above a mean of 3.00 80

aCategories indicate Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

bWeighted scores are 5 to 1 for favorable items and 1 to 5 for unfavorable items.
(91.7 per cent), and that students should participate in research conducted jointly by social scientists and professors of educational administration (89.3 per cent). They disagreed (94 per cent) with the statements that "a study of the social sciences in depth is wasteful because they change so rapidly," and "since research in the social sciences is largely a description of what has happened, it offers a poor criterion for decisions about the future" (96.4 per cent). Ninety-two per cent of them disagreed that courses they had taken in the social sciences were largely a waste of time. Fifty-five per cent agreed, however, that an internship under a good administrator provides better preparation for the superintendency than courses in the social sciences.

Table 35 lists the responses to each item on the attitude scale concerning the use of content from the humanities in graduate programs. The mean item score of 3.66, the fact that all means of item scores were above 3.20, and the fact that all but three respondents scored above a mean of 3.00 indicated a favorable reaction to the use of content from the humanities.

Respondents strongly agreed (84.5 per cent) that the humanities helped them to perceive problems in their broader context and (85.7 per cent) that humanistic concepts broadened their perspectives and led to personal development. They also agreed strongly (83.4 per cent) that
## Table 35

**Responses to Attitude Scale on the Use of Content from the Humanities in Graduate Programs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (N=18)</th>
<th>Mean Score for all Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Favorable items:</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content from the humanities is the best source for studying attitudes and values</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>7.1 44.0 27.4 20.2 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish I knew more about the history and culture of other countries</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>17.9 65.5 7.1 8.3 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prestige of school administrators would be greater if they had a broader background in the humanities</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>6.0 51.2 25.0 17.9 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A broad liberal education is the best preparation for administrative leadership in today's world</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>6.0 41.7 23.8 26.2 2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students should study logic to improve their ability to make decisions</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>6.0 47.6 22.6 22.6 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts in the humanities broaden students' perspectives and lead to personal development</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>8.3 77.4 11.9 1.2 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The humanities help us to perceive problems in their broader context</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>14.3 70.2 13.1 1.2 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=18)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A better understanding of the contemporary social problems which involve schools can result from a study of good literature</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>4.8 61.9 23.8 9.5 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The influence of the humanities is conducive to creativity and imagination in administration</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>9.5 59.5 23.8 6.0 1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish there were more of a chance to take courses from the humanities in the graduate program</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>9.5 53.6 19.0 17.9 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The personal security necessary to be different in an over-conforming society can emerge from contact with the humanities</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>4.8 54.8 33.3 7.1 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfavorable items:</td>
<td></td>
<td>(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A study of art or aesthetics would have little significance for administrators</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.2 10.7 16.7 58.3 13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executives are men of action; humanists are dreamers</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>2.4 7.1 11.9 66.7 11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items (N=18)</td>
<td>Mean Score for all Respondents</td>
<td>Percentage of Respondents (N=84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The graduate curriculum is too crowded to permit the study of areas like the humanities</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.8 7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>56.0 11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are already too many educational foundations courses in preparatory programs</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>23.8 26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>41.7 4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators might read novels or plays for relaxation but nothing would be gained from studying them formally</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.8 9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>73.8 11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study of the humanities in depth leads to an attitude of reflectivity which is not conducive to good administration</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>64.3 23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies in philosophy may stimulate thinking but they don't help with administrative problems</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.4 6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77.4 14.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean item score 3.66  
Range of item scores 3.20 - 4.11  
Range of respondents' mean scores 2.27 - 4.44  
Respondents scoring below a mean of 3.00 3  
Respondents scoring above a mean of 3.00 81

*Categories indicate Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, Strongly Disagree.

*Weighted scores are 5 to 1 for favorable items and 1 to 5 for unfavorable items.
they wished they knew more about the history and culture of other countries and (66.7 per cent) that a better understanding of contemporary social problems which involve schools can result from a study of good literature. Sixty-nine per cent of the respondents felt the influence of the humanities to be conducive to creativity and imagination in administration, and 63 per cent of the group wished there were more of a chance to take courses from the humanities in the graduate program.

Respondents (88.1 per cent) disagreed with the statement that "a study of the humanities in depth leads to an attitude of reflectivity which is not conducive to good administration," and (91.7 per cent) with the notion that philosophy had no relevance for administrative problems. They also disagreed (85.7 per cent) that the reading of novels or plays had no relevance for administrative problems.

Seventy-eight per cent of the group disagreed with the statement that "executives are men of action; humanists are dreamers." Less than half of the respondents (47.7 per cent) agreed, however, that a broad liberal education was the best preparation for administrative leadership in today's world.

Interviews

The interviews supported the favorable attitudes expressed by the respondents to the use of content in graduate
programs from both the social sciences and the humanities (Table 36). Eighty-seven per cent of the interviewee group were in favor of a requirement that part of the graduate program be spent in the study of the social sciences, and over 85 per cent agreed that content from the humanities provided an effective approach to education in purpose-defining and value clarification. Furthermore, 71 per cent of the group agreed with the idea of a balanced curriculum which would

TABLE 36

INTERVIEWEES' ATTITUDES TOWARD A BALANCED CURRICULUM INCLUDING CONTENT FROM THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AND THE HUMANITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item a</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The balanced program c is a sound approach for graduate programs in educational administration</td>
<td></td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There should be a requirement that part of the graduate program be spent in the study of the social sciences</td>
<td></td>
<td>86.7</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content from the humanities provides an effective approach to education in purpose-defining skills and values</td>
<td></td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Items 2 and 3 are not equated.

b The three columns are Agree, Uncertain, and Disagree.

c The balanced program was defined in the rationale.
include content from the social sciences, the humanities, and the technologies of administration.

There were several reservations expressed to the balanced program concept, however, which were not necessarily shown by the figures, and which often were identified with students from certain universities. Eighteen of the interviewees felt a definite hierarchy existed with the task areas most essential, the social sciences next, and the humanities acceptable only if they could be "squeezed into the program." Another block of ten interviewees felt the task areas should be omitted; they should be learned on the job, leaving the university experience free for a broad education in the social sciences and the humanities. Twelve students thought the humanities should be dealt with at the undergraduate level but felt that this was not now generally done so far as educational administrators were concerned. A small but disturbing number of students gave the impression in varying degrees that the program content was of no real concern in their quest for a degree; whatever was required was just another obstacle to be overcome.

Seventy-six per cent of the interviewees felt the social sciences furnished either a conceptual base or a practical tool (or both) for the administrative processes (Table 37). In many cases they perceived them as a help in knowing, understanding, and dealing with people. A number of
interviewees valued the social sciences primarily for their intellectual stimulation but did not perceive them as functional in terms of school administration.

**TABLE 37**

**ROLE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AS PERCEIVED BY INTERVIEWEES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both a conceptual base and a practical tool</td>
<td>22 29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical tool for administrative processes</td>
<td>20 26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role in administration</td>
<td>18 24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual base for administrative processes</td>
<td>15 20.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a* Open-ended responses were coded into 1 of 4 roles.

Table 38 lists the interviewees' preferences of a social science area for graduate study. Political science and sociology were favored by the greatest number (22.7 per cent and 24.0 per cent respectively with 10.7 per cent for both), with a group (21.3 per cent) recommending that a sort of general education program in the comprehensive social sciences be developed which would be staffed by social science professors.
### Table 38

**INTERVIEWEES' PREFERENCES OF SOCIAL SCIENCE AREAS FOR GRADUATE STUDY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Science Area</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political science</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensive social sciences</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social psychology</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology and political science</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary**

The rationale's position for a more balanced curriculum including content from both the social sciences and the humanities as well as the administrative task areas was strongly supported both in the interviews and by the attitude scales on the use of content from the humanities and the use of content from the social sciences. The practical problem of "getting everything in" was emphasized with some students arguing to leave out the humanities, others the task areas, and others that the humanities should be covered before a candidate be allowed to enter the program. It was interesting that nobody spoke in favor of omitting the social sciences.

The social sciences were generally perceived as furnishing a conceptual base or a practical tool for dealing with administrative processes, but by some students as a valuable intellectual stimulation with no practical value in school administration. Students mostly preferred social
science courses in sociology or political science or that a comprehensive program covering all the social science disciplines be developed.

Content from the Modern Novel

The rationale took the position that the use of content from the modern novel in graduate programs would have certain advantages in developing purpose-defining skills and values. Interviewees were questioned about their familiarity with modern novels and their reaction to the possible use of novels in graduate curriculums.

Interviews

Interviewees expressed a moderate degree of familiarity with novels mentioned in the rationale or with similar books from the literature (Table 39). Thirty-two per cent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Familiaritya</th>
<th>Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One or two novels</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide range of novels</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Interviewees were asked whether, by any chance, they were familiar with any of the books mentioned in the rationale or similar books in the literature.
had read one or two modern novels, and 18.7 per cent were familiar with a wide range of contemporary novels; the remainder had had no contact at all with this sort of literature.

Interviewees were asked if they perceived the use of content from the modern novel as a valid approach to education in values and purposes in the graduate program. Seventy-two per cent agreed that it was a valid approach (Table 40), and the rest were uncertain or disagreed (18.7 per cent and 9.3 per cent respectively). It was felt by the interviewer that a sizable majority of the group sincerely supported the suggestion, recognized how it might be implemented, and were basically cognizant of the real advantages and numerous problems it might entail. Some opposed the idea, feeling that its implementation would be inadequate or that the program was already too crowded. A number of the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Percentage of Interviewees (N=75)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of content from the modern novel is a legitimate approach to education in values and purposes in the graduate program</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The three columns are Agree, Uncertain, and Disagree.
interviewees, expressing either disagreement or uncertainty about the suggestion, had no basis for judging it—the idea was too new, and the content too foreign to their experiences.

Summary

Approximately half of the interviewees had some familiarity with the content of modern novels. A decided majority of the group perceived the use of content from the modern novel as a valid approach to preparation in educational purposes and values. A number of the interviewees had no basis for judgment as the idea was too new or the material too foreign to their experiences.

Reliability of the Attitude Scales

The reliability of the five attitude scales was determined using the split-half method. The scales were each divided into two equivalent "halves"—one half made up of the odd-numbered items, the other half made up of the even-numbered items. The correlation was found for these two half-tests, and the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula used for estimating the reliability coefficient for the whole scale.

The means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients for the five attitude scales are given in Table 41. In general a reliability coefficient of .90 is desirable for a test but in view of the number of items in the scales the
coefficients seem to be satisfactory. In the scale concerning the superintendent as a perceptive generalist statement 19 was omitted when calculating the split-half reliability in order to have an even number of statements.

### TABLE 41
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS FOR THE FIVE ATTITUDE SCALES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparatory programs</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent as a perceptive generalist</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for value training</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of social sciences</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of humanities</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data have been presented in Chapter V on the attitudes and reactions of the respondents to the major positions taken by the rationale, as well as information about the respondents themselves. The study is summarized, conclusions are drawn, and implications both for administrative programs and for further investigation are suggested in the final chapter.

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CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

In this chapter the study is summarized, conclusions are drawn relevant to graduate programs preparing school administrators, and implications both for further investigation and for the training of administrators are suggested.

The Problem

Persons responsible for the shaping of graduate programs in educational administration are well-aware of the many instructional difficulties which need to be faced: parts of the professional sequence can still be characterized as lacking in stimulating intellectual experiences; the amount of graduate course work required by certification agencies and professional organizations is continuing to expand; and future administrators will need preparation for a role emphasizing leadership in purpose-defining and policy development, as well as the ability to cope with administrative task areas and processes. The need thus arises for program content which will complement present subject matter, provide imaginative and stimulating material for course expansion, and furnish preparation for the shifting emphasis in administrative roles.
A university staff attempting to develop and maintain a quality graduate program in school administration is inevitably faced with making difficult decisions about what should be included and what should be omitted in the curriculum: skills in administrative technologies, authentic or simulated experiences in administrative situations, knowledge in intricate concepts of administrative process, and competency and sophistication in educational purposes all have high priority for a viable training experience. Obviously, no program of any practical duration or reasonable depth could educate candidates for all the competencies seemingly required. Fundamental to an orderly process involving the selection and elimination of curriculum items is the prior need for program rationales to facilitate content analysis and assessment.

The problem in this study was to develop a rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate level programs for school administrators; to determine by analysis whether selected content from the humanities provided a wide range of value models—as was assumed in the rationale; and to determine whether the rationale was perceived favorably by advanced graduate students in educational administration who had had several years of experience as school administrators.

The development of the rationale was concerned with providing rational bases and a logical justification for
using selected content from the humanities in graduate programs. Content from the humanities was limited to modern novels, and a content analysis was made of a selected group of ten novels to determine their potential for providing the wide range of value models felt desirable in training for educational purpose-defining skills and values.

The following major positions taken by the rationale were examined at the perceptual level:

1. Graduate students hold ambivalent attitudes toward their own training program experiences, relating a variety of positive and negative reactions.

2. The most appropriate role of the future superintendent is a perceptive generalist.

3. Education in purpose-defining skills and values is an important function of graduate training programs.

4. A need exists for curriculum balance in graduate programs including content from both the social sciences and the humanities.

5. The use of content from the modern novel in graduate programs constitutes a valid approach to preparation in values and purpose-defining skills.

Development of the Rationale

The first major objective of the study evolving from the statement of the problem was to develop a rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate
training programs for school administrators. Since it was judged impracticable to develop a position for the use of all branches of the humanities, the rationale was limited to a discussion of content which might help to prepare an administrator to cope with the areas of educational values, issues, purposes and policies at a higher level of sophistication and competency. Although a strong case could have been made for using content from many of the humanistic fields in this regard, the modern novel was chosen as being particularly well-suited to a confrontation with changing cultural values and contemporary educational issues.

In the present century, programs of preparation have been influenced by administrative concepts or role images emanating from shifting societal values and the business model and emphasizing operational efficiency, human relations, and theory development and research. The increasing complexities of social organizations and the dualism of functions—leadership and management—involved in administrative behavior seem to demand a more comprehensive role image for the school superintendent of the future—a perceptive generalist role. Assuming the acceptance of such a role as a reasonable model for preparatory programs, a more balanced curriculum is needed not only to satisfy the demands of changing objectives but to repair certain inadequacies of present programs.
While contents in the administrative task areas and from the social sciences designed to develop practical and conceptual skills in the operational and process aspects of administration are well-established components of present programs, the formal preparation of future administrators to assume a leadership role in purpose-defining and policy development is often ignored. Imaginative new content and improved methods of instruction are needed for education in the values and value judgments which form the bases for a consideration of purposes and policies. This need is accentuated by the conflicts growing out of changing cultural values and the seeming disposition our culture and educational system have for closed strategies of value internalization.

Education in purpose-defining can be facilitated by helping the administrator to become aware of the basic components of his own value system and to clarify and set forth his educational purposes with some erudition. His perception of his own place in a pluralistic system of ideas and values can be improved as his growing aesthetic and axiological competence enables him to become more of a connoisseur in valuing. Existential psychologists have supported a system of value clarification in which value concepts are presented neutrally with no press for commitment, and in a nondirective process each individual gains skill in improvising enlightened solutions to various value questions as they emerge.
The modern novel has a strong potential for providing the pluralistic value models needed in such a presentation. Its content is diffuse enough in its own imaginative material and scope to embody the variations necessary. It can also furnish a measure of provocation and of stimulation sometimes found lacking in professional education studies.

Content Analysis of the Novels

The second major objective of the study was to determine whether selected content from the humanities—the modern novel—did, in fact, provide a wide range of value positions. Ten contemporary problems were selected by the researcher from the educational literature as illustrative of a large classification of topics having implications for educational purposes and policies. A panel of eleven literary experts then made a selection of twentieth century novels to match each of the problems, and a procedure for analyzing them in relation to their values was determined.

A résumé of the plot for each novel was prepared and a classification of the value positions of the leading characters and the total novel was made by the researcher using eight traditional and emergent cultural value positions adapted from Prince's Differential Values Inventory.² The classifications were supported by documentation from the

²Prince, "Individual Values and Administrative Effectiveness," pp. 36-81.
novels or literary reviews and were given increased validity by a comparison to the classifications of four additional outside readers with experience as students or teachers of English literature. A chi-square analysis of the differences between the value ratings of the researcher and those of the outside readers was calculated, and the null hypothesis of there being no larger than chance agreement was rejected at below the .01 level of confidence in eight cases and below the .05 level in two. The strength of the agreement that was found to exist between the value ratings of the researcher and those of the outside readers not only made the ratings of the researcher more valid but suggested that a similar range of values might be found by most readers of the same novels, in spite of generous disagreements that could prevail in terms of specific values or specific novels.

Testing the Rationale

The third major objective of the study was to determine whether the rationale was perceived favorably by advanced graduate students in educational administration.

The sample

From a potential sample of one hundred advanced graduate students (a few recent graduates were included) in educational administration at the eleven universities which make up the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC), 85
persons responded to an original mailing by completing the initial instruments and returning them to the researcher. Interviews were then held with 77 of these persons. Eighty-four respondents and 75 interviewees made up the final sample. Each university was represented by at least six respondents and five interviewees.

The instruments

In order to obtain the information needed for this study, the following instruments were used:

1. The attitude inventory on programs of preparation for school administrators made up of 95 Likert-type items divided into an almost equal number of favorable and unfavorable statements in five scales on attitudes toward contemporary programs, the use of content from the social sciences, the use of content from the humanities, the need for preparation in purpose-defining skills and values, and the superintendent as a perceptive generalist.

2. An abstract of the rationale for including selected content from the humanities in graduate programs.

3. An interview guide used by the researcher in interviewing the respondents.

4. A personal background data sheet designed to acquire a limited amount of demographic data and information about educational and job experiences from the participants.
The Findings

The attitude inventory and the background data sheet were submitted to the sample test group, and interviews held with 75 of the 84 respondents by the researcher. Attitudes and reactions to the major positions taken by the rationale were thus obtained.

The respondents

Data elicited from the respondents concerning their educational backgrounds and professional experiences indicated that on the average their teaching careers commenced at an early age of 23.2 years, their administrative careers began only five years later, but the completion of their doctoral programs was delayed until the respondents were approximately 40 years of age. The average respondent had over five times more experience in secondary teaching than in teaching at the elementary level and over twice as much experience in secondary administration as in elementary. He had served an average of four years as a superintendent or assistant superintendent of schools.

It would be difficult to contend that the group received a strong preparation in liberal arts studies as undergraduates since 64.3 per cent were trained for teaching in secondary education and 10.7 per cent for work in elementary education. Thirty-two per cent of the respondents received B.A. degrees. As graduate students they completed about a
third of their work in the administrative task areas, a third in the social sciences and administrative process areas, and most of the balance in a variety of other professional education courses. The humanities played a negligible role. About half of the respondents anticipated careers as school superintendents.

Programs of preparation

Respondents to the attitude scale on preparatory programs were ambivalent in their attitudes toward graduate programs although slightly more favorable than unfavorable. The interview group rated ten different aspects of their own programs strong or average, seldom calling them weak. Greatest strengths of the graduate programs were named by interviewees as interdisciplinary contacts, principally in the social sciences; the high quality of the staffs in educational administration; and various opportunities to participate in on-going research projects. Program weaknesses emphasized the continued difficulty of bridging the gap between university programs and administrative practices and the poor quality of administrative task courses often resulting from instructors overloaded with demands to publish, complete research, or carry on their various faculty responsibilities. Training programs were perceived as stronger in preparing candidates for the professorship than for the superintendency.
The role of the superintendent

Responses to both the attitude scale and the interviews indicated a strong agreement with the position that the perceptive generalist role would be most appropriate for the future superintendent.

Twice as many interviewees preferred the superintendent as a leader rather than as a mediator in the area of educational purposes and policies. There was a strong impression, however, that the leadership role should not extend beyond reasonable limits set by the restricting power structures of the community. Only half of the group opposed the development of more comprehensive university programs which would prepare administrators simultaneously for administrative work in different types of organizations. A generally favorable reaction was expressed to such a program concept if reasonable provisions could be made for both common and specialized learnings.

Need for preparation in purpose-defining skills and values

The rationale's position that a need existed for preparation of doctoral students in purpose-defining skills and values was strongly supported by the attitude scale responses and by 86.7 per cent of the interviewees. Interviewees had few ideas, however, about how the need could best be met. They resented prescriptive methods and wished to avoid courses with "meaningless talk." Informal seminars with
skillful, down-to-earth leadership were often mentioned as successful experiences. There was agreement (74.7 per cent) that the ideas in the rationale about value clarification were feasible but there seemed to be only a moderate amount of understanding about the process and not a great amount of confidence that it would prove successful. Respondents expressed disagreement (79.8 per cent) with the statement that it was difficult to define educational purposes or to express their own views about educational issues (90.5 per cent).

**A balanced curriculum**

Over 70 per cent of the interviewees agreed with the rationale's position for a more balanced curriculum, and the use of content from both the social sciences and the humanities was strongly supported by the attitude scale scores. The practical problem of "getting everything in" was emphasized with some respondents arguing to leave out the humanities, others the task areas, and others that the humanities should be covered before a candidate be allowed to enter the program. Nobody spoke in favor of omitting the social sciences.

The social sciences were perceived by 76 per cent of the interviewees as furnishing a conceptual base or a practical tool for dealing with administrative processes, but by the remainder as a valuable intellectual stimulation with no
practical value in school administration. Sixty-eight per cent of the interviewees preferred social science courses in sociology or political science or that a comprehensive program covering all the social science disciplines be developed.

Use of content from the modern novel

About half of the interviewees had some familiarity with the content of modern novels. Seventy-two per cent of the group perceived the use of content from the modern novel as a valid approach to preparation in educational purpose-defining skills and values. A number of the interviewees, expressing either disagreement or uncertainty to the suggestion, had no basis for judgment as the idea was either too new or the material too foreign to their experience.

Conclusions

This study has furnished evidence to suggest a number of conclusions that are relevant to graduate programs for the preparation of school administrators.

1. The stratified sample of advanced graduate students and recent doctoral candidates serving as the test group for the study supported the rationale and perceived it as having relevance for training programs for school administrators.

2. The test group held ambivalent attitudes toward preparatory programs in general, relating a variety of both positive and negative reactions to them. On the other hand,
they rated their own graduate educational experiences rather favorably and were seldom critical of the image of their own institution.

3. The perceptive generalist role as described in the rationale was perceived by the test group as most appropriate for the superintendent of the future.

4. The balanced curriculum in graduate programs for administrators as described in the rationale was supported by the test group. The balance, however, was tipped in a hierarchical ordering with content from the social sciences, study in the administrative task areas, and content from the humanities favored in that order.

5. The undergraduate preparation of students making up the test sample could not be described as "strong in the liberal arts."

6. Content from the humanities had not played a significant role in the graduate programs of those students making up the test sample.

7. Preparation in purpose-defining skills and values was perceived by the test group as an important function of graduate training programs. At the same time, students had few ideas about how such preparation should be carried out.

8. The test group supported the use of content from the modern novel as constituting a valid approach to preparation in purpose-defining skills and values.
9. A considerable range of value positions would be likely to be found in the content from any representative group of five or ten modern novels.

Implications

Certain implications for further research and the preparation of educational administrators follow from the study.

Further research

On the basis of the findings in the study a number of specific suggestions were made for further research:

1. The rationale developed in this study has been perceived favorably by a stratified sample of advanced graduate students. The implementation of the rationale should now be tested at the experimental level, perhaps with practicing administrators using in-service programs as well as graduate students at the master's or doctoral levels. The experimental design for such a project could be patterned after the evaluation by Viteles of the Bell Telephone Institute of Humanistic Studies held at the University of Pennsylvania.²

2. The rationale developed in this study was limited to the consideration of only one area of the humanities—-the modern novel—-for use in the preparation of potential potential

administrators for only one basic competency—purpose-defining skills and values. Rationales could be developed and tested perceptually or experimentally for any number of combinations of the two coordinates—areas in the humanities and objectives of preparatory programs. Thus, content from the various divisions of philosophy, literature, history, or fine arts could be held advantageous to the realization of the different objectives or targets of graduate programs including skill in communications, an improved cultural background, critical thinking ability, the understanding of values, developing a personal philosophy, and so on.

3. A more inclusive rationale could be developed for the humanities and the preparation of educational administrators comparable to Goldhammer's rationale for the social sciences.3

4. Previous research has been conflicting as to whether an increase or decrease of organizational effectiveness results from greater congruency in the values held by the different organizational role incumbents.4 Further research in this area would have importance for reaching decisions about administrator preparation in purpose-defining skills and values.


5. The classification of educational goals in the affective domain⁵ could be used as a framework for investigating such questions as whether value study is practicable past a certain age or what techniques of value study are most effective for administrators (if at all) at the graduate school level or for in-service programs.

6. More conclusive information needs to be gathered relative to the undergraduate backgrounds of potential administrators, the values of practicing administrators, the conservative or radical or dogmatic tendencies of administrators in relation to other groups, and so on. Does the public perceive the American school administrator as characterized by such stereotypes as "conservative," "dogmatic," "uncultured," or "having physical education origins," and, if it does, are the perceptions justified or quite erroneous?

7. Respondents in the study disagreed (79.8 per cent) that it was difficult to define educational purposes or to express their own views about educational issues (90.5 per cent). A study is indicated that would be designed to test the accuracy of these self-perceptions or to determine whether the length of service on the administrative "firing line" increased or decreased the administrator's confidence in his ability to cope with educational issues and purposes.

Programs of preparation

On the basis of the findings in the study a number of specific suggestions were made for the preparation of administrators:

1. An allotment of time should be provided in graduate programs for formal preparation in purpose-defining skills and values. Any number of methods or contents might be utilized:

   a) A seminar on administrative processes combining content from the humanities and the social sciences which could deal with the processes themselves or with the more abstract issues and dilemmas emerging from the processes (for example, the decision-making process or the dilemma of the individual versus the institution).

   b) A seminar on contemporary American social problems (for example, automation, population mobility, or adolescence) which have implications for educational policies, again combining content from the humanities and the social sciences.

   c) A practicum on contemporary American educational problems (for example, school integration, cultural deprivation, or shared-time instruction) involving actual field work or research in one or more of these areas with concurrent studies from the humanities and the social sciences.
d) A seminar on changing American cultural values using content from the modern novel with a background of readings from social psychology and anthropology.

2. Content from the modern novel could form an integral part of the study of any number of educational or administrative problems or concepts. Latham, for example, has adroitly reviewed a difficult problem in the administration of higher education—the managerialization of the campus—by comparing the concepts of a major text in college and university administration with the concepts contained in five contemporary novels written about university life.

In a similar manner, content from the World War II novel, The Caine Mutiny, could be introduced in a study of the concepts of authority in administration or a study of the role of the administrator in the social system of the school as illustrated in the Guba-Getzels model.


3. Master's level courses in the administrative task areas were reported by many respondents to be ineffective. If doctoral students were identified and encouraged to start their programs at an earlier age, the lower-level content of much of the master's work could be modified.

4. A continued effort to identify and recruit able students earlier in their teaching careers or directly from an undergraduate liberal arts training should be made. The tendency of well-qualified men in education to avoid careers in the elementary field also limits a potential source of strong doctoral candidates in administration.

5. Careful consideration should continue to be given by departments of educational administration to the possibility of greater cooperation with other departments in the university in offering common courses for the preparation of all administrators. This would not diminish the need for specialized learnings in the various departments.

6. The possibility should be explored of providing graduate work in the various departments of the humanities much as interdisciplinary activity is now carried on with the social science areas.

7. Continued efforts should be made by universities to establish the sort of one-to-one relationship with a few select area schools which would allow for an increased quality and quantity of administrative internships.
APPENDIXES
APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE WITH NOVEL SELECTORS
December 7, 1964

Dear __________:

I am writing a dissertation at The Ohio State University which will support the position that school administrators could be better educated if their graduate programs included some content from the humanities—specifically, a study of modern novels to give them some background in values and value judgments.

Since you are one of the country's leading critics of modern fiction, I thought it wouldn't seem too novel if you would agree to spend a few minutes helping to select a small list of books appropriate to the task at hand. I would be most appreciative.

Sincerely,

Gordon Foster

Enclosures
Many of us are aware of the efforts currently being made to upgrade standards in graduate programs for school administrators. Considerable progress has been made, particularly in utilizing concepts from the social sciences. I would like your help in developing a rationale for including content from the humanities in educational programs for school superintendents. This would simply involve your assistance in making a selection of ten modern novels to be used in the rationale.

The problem

As future administrators are prepared to assume a leadership role in purpose-defining and policy development for schools, new content is needed for training in values and value judgments. This need is accentuated by the conflicts growing out of changing cultural values and the seeming disposition our society has for closed strategies of value transmission and internalization. There is support for the position that each person can receive help in building or restructuring his own value system by having value concepts presented neutrally at a lower level of internalization than commitment; the diffuseness of modern fiction may give it a strong potential for providing the pluralistic value models needed in such a presentation.

An analysis will be made of ten novels to determine if they do, in fact, provide a wide range of value models. The rationale will take the position that such content, presented in a sound methodological manner, will help to provide the training in values made necessary by the inclusion of leadership in purpose-defining as a major task of the superintendency.

Selection of novels

Ten contemporary problems have been selected as illustrative of a large classification of subjects which have implications for educational purposes and policies. You are requested to make two choices of twentieth century novels to match each of the problems, using the following criteria: relevance of the novel to the problem, and the literary quality of the novel.

A few novels for each problem area have been suggested to stimulate your response and to indicate a general pattern. Please feel free to make your two choices from these sugges-
tions or to add your own. Indicate your first choice as (1), your second choice as (2).

(1) Automation and technological advance: some outcomes of modern technology may be unemployment, the increase of anomie, and social engineering.

(____) Player Piano (Vonnegut)
(____) Saturday Night and Sunday Morning (Sillitoe)
(____) Walden Two (Skinner)

(2) Autonomy of the individual: the sanctity of individual existence is giving way to the demands for group consensus and social conformity.

(____) The Caine Mutiny (Wouk)
(____) The Child Buyer (Hersey)
(____) The Roots of Heaven (Gary)

(3) Changing economic attitudes: the values associated with the Protestant Ethic are being gradually replaced by the more relaxed values of the Social Ethic in our affluent society.

(____) Keep the Aspidistra Flying (Orwell)
(____) Room at the Top (Braine)
(____) The Fountainhead (Rand)

(4) Changing moral attitudes: social class stratification, sexual behavior, religious loyalties.

(____) Howard's End (Forster)
(____) The Genius and the Goddess (Huxley)
(____) The Stranger (Camus)

(5) Interracial and intercultural conflict.

(____) Another Country (Baldwin)
(____) Native Son (Wright)
(____) The Victim (Bellow)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(6) Juvenile delinquency: the adolescent subculture.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(___) A Separate Peace (Knowles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) Lord of the Flies (Golding)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) Studs Lonigan (Farrell)</td>
</tr>
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<td>(___)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(7) Mental and physical illness.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(___) One Flew Over the Cuckoo's Nest (Kesey)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) Tender is the Night (Fitzgerald)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) The Snake Pit (Ward)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(8) Population increase and mobility: problems of urbanism and transient families.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(___) Grapes of Wrath (Steinbeck)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) The Dollmaker (Arnow)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) The Heart is a Lonely Hunter (McCullers)</td>
</tr>
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<td>(___)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(9) Poverty and cultural deprivation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(___) Rabbit Run (Updike)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) Of Mice and Men (Steinbeck)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) The Assistant (Malamud)</td>
</tr>
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<td>(___)</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(10) War and peace: the futility of modern war.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(___) All Quiet on the Western Front (Remarque)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) Catch 22 (Heller)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(___) The Naked and the Dead (Mailer)</td>
</tr>
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<td>(___)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR NOVEL READERS
I am engaged in a doctoral study in which, among other delights, I have made a content analysis of ten modern novels to determine the extent to which the novels and their major characters present pluralistic value models—that is, a wide range of value positions.

The criterion used in this determination is a categorization of traditional and emergent cultural values developed principally from the work of certain social psychologists--Riesman, Linton, Spindler, and Getzels—and used recently in several doctoral dissertations at the University of Chicago.

The classification of the value patterns in these novels which I have made would seem to possess greater validity—if they were accompanied by similar classifications from 3 or 4 other qualified readers. This is the task I am asking you to perform if you will be so gracious as to do so. The components of the traditional and emergent value patterns are as follows:

Traditional Values

Puritan morality: respectability, self-denial, self-constraint, and self-discipline; loyalty and respect for elders; a need for guilt feelings and absolute moral standards.

Work-success ethic: successful people work hard and have a high need to achieve; they choose jobs which will assure success; there is no resting on past glories as success and progress are continuous goals; ambitious to be more successful than parents.

Individualism: the individual is sacred and always more important than the group; in one extreme form this value sanctions idiosyncratic behavior and disregard for other people's rights; in its healthier form, the value sanctions originality and independence in work, ideas, convictions and attitudes.

Future-time orientation: living for the future; sometimes the sacrifice of one's self for a better world; present needs must be denied for satisfactions to be gained in the future; choice of job for promotion possibilities, rather than for immediate rewards.
Emergent Values

Sociability: wide social contacts and enjoyment in doing things with others; success in getting along with people; every opportunity to be with people is sought.

Relativistic moral attitudes: right and wrong are relative, not absolute terms; morality is what the group thinks is right at the moment; the best course of action is always a matter of opinion; some standards are appropriate for some people but not for everybody.

Conformity: all standards of taste, action, and manners are relative to the set of the peer group; actions should be taken with regard for others and their feelings; reliance on other's advice in behavior and in making decisions; group consensus and harmony is the ultimate goal.

Present-time orientation: no one can tell what the future will hold; therefore, one should enjoy the present; the ultimate goal is fun, pleasure and impulse release; enjoyment of the luxuries of life is important; fly now, pay later; it is better to enjoy moderate success and live longer than to be too ambitious.
TRADITIONAL AND EMERGENT VALUE POSITIONS IN
TENDER IS THE NIGHT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characters</th>
<th>Dick Diver</th>
<th>Nicole Diver</th>
<th>Baby Warren</th>
<th>Total Novel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Traditional Values:
- Puritan morality
- Work-success ethic
- Individualism
- Future-time orientation

Emergent values:
- Sociability
- Relativistic moral attitude
- Conformity
- Present-time orientation

Directions: Please designate (x) the value positions taken by the major characters as evidenced by their actions and assertions and in the choices they make. If you feel that characters other than the ones suggested are important enough to be considered, list them also. If a character seems to speak for conflicting values and in your judgment the impact on the reader would be of approximately equal strength, please mark both positions. If the novel in your opinion speaks in a broad way for one of the value positions, designate (x) this under the column headed "total novel."

Please return to:

Gordon Foster
452 McGuffey  
Reader
APPENDIX C

CORRESPONDENCE WITH FACULTY STAFFS
April 19, 1965

Dear __________:

Mr. Gordon Foster, a member of the staff of Miami University and a graduate student here at Ohio State University, has undertaken a study which will attempt to develop a rationale for including specific content from the humanities in graduate programs for school administrators. Mr. Foster would like to request your assistance in identifying nine graduate students in the area of educational administration to assist him in testing the rationale.

I will appreciate any consideration you can give to his request for assistance which is outlined in the attached letter.

Sincerely,

Roy A. Larmee
Associate Professor

RAL: jd
Attach.
Dear ____________:

Persons concerned with preparing school administrators are well aware of the continuing need to develop imaginative and stimulating materials for new program content but are generally reluctant to utilize new materials until rationales have been developed satisfying criteria emerging from a program's major goals.

I am engaged in a doctoral study at The Ohio State University which will attempt to develop a rationale for including specific content from the humanities in graduate programs for school administrators. The argument is based on the assumption that administrators exercise leadership in defining educational purposes and reach decisions of an administrative nature on the basis of some system of values. The need thus arises for preparation in the area of values and value judgments—an area for which the humanities have a considerable relevance.

I would like to request your cooperation in getting the rationale tested at the perceptual level. The eleven universities which make up the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC) are being asked to participate in the study, with the data-gathering phase to proceed this spring. Specifically, I would hope to get your faculty staff in educational administration to prepare a list of approximately eight or nine students for participation in the test pattern using the following criteria in the selection.

(1) students who have completed or are in the last stages of their course work for the doctoral degree in administration, and

(2) students with a minimum of three years experience as a superintendent of schools, or an equivalent experience in education or another area of public administration. It is thus anticipated that participants would have realistic bases for judging rationales of program content and some experience with more profound problems in administration than those of a merely technical nature.
The test group will be asked to supply descriptive data concerning the patterns of their professional training programs and job experiences. An attitude inventory will seek opinions about role expectations in administration and the learning experiences necessary for optimum preparation. No more than an hour should be needed for completing these. An abstract of the rationale will then be sent to each respondent who will be asked to react to it in a taped interview with the researcher. All data would be treated in strict confidence and would be used for research purposes only; the anonymity of the respondents as well as their institutions would be assured.

I would appreciate your early response to this request. I should think it might be helpful procedurally to designate one of the selected group as a contact person with whom I might work out the details of the study. I am indeed indebted to you for your consideration of this matter.

Sincerely,

Gordon Foster
452 McGuffey Hall

/Jh
APPENDIX D

INSTRUMENTS UTILIZED IN THE STUDY
May 23, 1965

Dear __________:

Dr. ______ has given me your name as one of a small group of advanced graduate students in educational administration at ______ University who has indicated a willingness to participate in a study I am doing on graduate programs for school administrators. Since you have just been involved in such a program, you are well aware of the continuing need to develop imaginative and stimulating materials for study and would be well-qualified to make judgments about curriculum content.

In order for new materials to be considered seriously, however, rationales supporting them must first be made available. The doctoral study in which I am engaged at Ohio State will attempt to develop such a rationale for including content from the humanities in graduate programs, and I am anxious to get your cooperation in reacting to it. As a graduate student myself, I realize how pressed you are for time and, consequently, am all the more appreciative of your assistance with the project.

Enclosed are two preliminary instruments which I would be grateful to you for completing and returning in the envelope provided:

(1) a descriptive data sheet about your training and job experiences

(2) an attitude inventory which seeks your opinions about training programs in general

I will next send you an abstract of the rationale I have developed and hope to be able to make arrangements to get your reactions to it in a brief interview. To facilitate this procedure, I am asking you to designate your summer address on the card attached to the data sheet.

It is understood that all data in this study will be treated in strict confidence and used for research purposes only. Your anonymity, as well as that of your university, will be secured. I am indeed indebted to you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Gordon Foster
452 McGuffey

Enclosures
ATTITUDE INVENTORY
ON
PROGRAMS OF PREPARATION FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

The following items are presented as generalizations about graduate courses and programs for preparing educational administrators and represent opinions rather than facts. There are no right or wrong answers, and your responses should indicate your opinions about all programs rather than just your own. Work at a fairly high rate of speed, answering what you believe rather than what you think you should believe.

Circle your opinion about each item as it first impresses you according to the following code:

SA....strongly agree
A....agree
U....uncertain
D....disagree
SD....strongly disagree

1. SA A U D SD Innovations are constantly being introduced in graduate programs.

2. SA A U D SD An internship under a good administrator provides better preparation for the superintendent than courses in the social sciences.

3. SA A U D SD A study of art or esthetics would have little significance for administrators.

4. SA A U D SD While I hold pretty strongly to certain beliefs about education, it is difficult to verbalize my position.

5. SA A U D SD The best studies of administrative behavior omit the "shoulds" or "oughts" from consideration.

6. SA A U D SD The superintendent of the future will be more and more concerned with educational statesmanship.

7. SA A U D SD In taking exams it generally pays to state your own opinions even though they may differ considerably from the professor's.
8. SA A U D SD Simulated materials for training administrators aren't authentic enough to stimulate genuine responses.

9. SA A U D SD The administrator's need to acquire a systematic way of looking at things can best be gained by work in the social sciences.

10. SA A U D SD Content from the humanities is the best source for studying attitudes and values.

11. SA A U D SD Executives are men of action; humanists are dreamers.

12. SA A U D SD It is difficult to define educational purposes.

13. SA A U D SD No good techniques can be developed for clarifying values.

14. SA A U D SD The model of the superintendent as an official to carry on the day-to-day business of managing the schools is outdated.

15. SA A U D SD The future superintendent will spend a greater part of his time on execution of board policies.

16. SA A U D SD I would rather work under an administrator who was a recognized authority in one area than a jack-of-all trades.

17. SA A U D SD A study of the social sciences in depth is wasteful because they change so rapidly.

18. SA A U D SD I wish I knew more about the history and culture of other countries.

19. SA A U D SD Since research in the social sciences is largely a description of what has happened, it offers a poor criterion for decisions about the future.

20. SA A U D SD The courses in administration are exciting and stimulating intellectually.

21. SA A U D SD As graduate students we are generally treated as responsible adults.
22. SA A U D SD An administrator gains more advantage from the prestige of a doctoral degree than from what he actually learns in the program.

23. SA A U D SD In choosing a new superintendent the best bet would be a specialist in business administration.

24. SA A U D SD The ability to create a harmonious unity out of antagonistic pressures is basic for a good administrator.

25. SA A U D SD It is dangerous to raise questions about a person's values.

26. SA A U D SD Success in graduate work has little bearing on being a successful school administrator.

27. SA A U D SD Many courses in administration are concerned with an over-analysis of what is already obvious.

28. SA A U D SD Study about values is a waste of time because there is no right or wrong and values are all relative.

29. SA A U D SD A person's values generally remain fixed after he reaches twenty-one.

30. SA A U D SD Administrators should be concerned with how to get things done rather than with what ought to be done.

31. SA A U D SD A generalist in administration has to rely too much on other people's advice.

32. SA A U D SD The administrator should be a social science engineer developing strategies for running his organization.

33. SA A U D SD It is unlikely that scientific predictions of behavior in administration can be made with any accuracy.

34. SA A U D SD The prestige of school administrators would be greater if they had a broader background in the humanities.

35. SA A U D SD Values are derived from emotional preferences and not influenced by serious study.
36. SA A U D SD Education in values should be left to the church or the home.

37. SA A U D SD The quality of instruction in administration courses is better than average.

38. SA A U D SD The program is made flexible to meet the needs of individual students.

39. SA A U D SD Courses I have taken in the social sciences are largely a waste of time.

40. SA A U D SD Professors in educational administration have difficulty interpreting social science concepts.

41. SA A U D SD The graduate curriculum is too crowded to permit the study of areas like the humanities.

42. SA A U D SD A superintendent must be able to understand and to assign priorities to opposing values in administrative situations.

43. SA A U D SD Since cultural values are gradually changing, each of us needs to re-examine his own value system periodically.

44. SA A U D SD A good superintendent must be able to switch adeptly from one role to another.

45. SA A U D SD The chief qualification for a top administrator is the ability to see the whole picture.

46. SA A U D SD A large variety of instructional methods is being used in administration courses.

47. SA A U D SD My graduate program helped me to understand more clearly and feel more deeply about administrative concepts that had merely been phrases before.

48. SA A U D SD A good superintendent today should be an expert in some phase of administration.

49. SA A U D SD The ideal superintendent combines the intellectual aspects of administration with vigorous action.
50. SA A U D SD There are already too many educational foundations courses in preparatory programs.

51. SA A U D SD Understanding the sociology of organizations and group dynamics is essential to the proper administration of a staff personnel program.

52. SA A U D SD Social science methods in administration make it possible to discard "rule of thumb" techniques.

53. SA A U D SD A broad liberal education is the best preparation for administrative leadership in today's world.

54. SA A U D SD The people I know taking graduate work in administration are not apt to change their basic values.

55. SA A U D SD A minor area of study in one of the social sciences should be required of all doctoral candidates.

56. SA A U D SD In your graduate program the ability to get along with people is more important than what you know.

57. SA A U D SD The content in administration courses is too repetitive.

58. SA A U D SD Social science courses are too "theory" oriented.

59. SA A U D SD Administrators might read novels or plays for relaxation but nothing would be gained from studying them formally.

60. SA A U D SD The ability to define educational purposes is basic to all other work in administration.

61. SA A U D SD The broad demands on administration today make it difficult for a person who is narrowly specialized.

62. SA A U D SD Faculties in administration have a wide concern for the guidance and advisement of graduate students.
63. SA A U D SD Programs now offer plenty of opportunities for meaningful field experiences.

64. SA A U D SD A potential administrator who was as reflective about educational purposes as he was active in managerial duties would be a poor risk.

65. SA A U D SD The graduate program lasts too long.

66. SA A U D SD Perseverance is more important than scholarship for success in graduate work.

67. SA A U D SD The fact that we are living in an increasingly specialized society calls for specialists in positions of administrative leadership.

68. SA A U D SD A good administrator should be intellectually aware of his purposes in education.

69. SA A U D SD We can't explore values rationally because our expressed values are not always the ones we really believe in.

70. SA A U D SD It isn't too safe for graduate students to have original or ingenious ideas.

71. SA A U D SD Students should study logic to improve their ability to make decisions.

72. SA A U D SD Concepts in the humanities broaden students' perspectives and lead to personal development.

73. SA A U D SD Since research studies in schools are generally done by outside consultants, extensive study in the social sciences isn't worthwhile.

74. SA A U D SD A good administrator can't afford to change his value positions.

75. SA A U D SD If a superintendent can get along well with people, he can solve all his other problems.

76. SA A U D SD There is a danger that the currently popular study of the social sciences will become overemphasized.
There is little point in studying values since an administrator usually adjusts his values to agree with the school board's.

The humanities help us to perceive problems in their broader context.

The administrator of a school system should be familiar with the concepts and analytical methods of political science.

A better understanding of the contemporary social problems which involve schools can result from a study of good literature.

The average student entering a graduate program in educational administration knows little about his basic educational purposes.

Educational purpose should be left to the public and the school board.

Study of the humanities in depth leads to an attitude of reflectivity which is not conducive to good administration.

Studies in philosophy may stimulate thinking but they don't help with administrative problems.

Problems at the higher level of administration are becoming less specialized and more general.

Since research in the social sciences ignores what "ought" to be, it has minor relevance for educational administration.

The most important thing in the graduate program is getting your degree.

The influence of the humanities is conducive to creativity and imagination in administration.

Training in educational purpose and in the processes of purpose development is a critical element in the education of an effective administrator.
90. SA A U D SD Students should participate in research conducted jointly by social scientists and professors of educational administration.

91. SA A U D SD I wish there were more of a chance to take courses from the humanities in the graduate program.

92. SA A U D SD The challenge of defining education purposes can best be met by administrators with a generalist's orientation.

93. SA A U D SD The personal security necessary to be different in an over-conforming society can emerge from contact with the humanities.

94. SA A U D SD School superintendents will need to perceive problems in their broader context.

95. SA A U D SD The social sciences help administrators to become sophisticated in their ability to collect relevant data pertaining to school problems.
BACKGROUND DATA

The following information is needed in order to make an analysis of the data obtained in this study and to determine the emphasis in your preparation program and job experiences. Your responses will not be used in any other manner, and no institution or individual will be identified in the report of the study. Most of the questions will be easy to answer; in a few cases you may have to give approximations only.

1. Name ____________________________________________________________

2. Your age (as of nearest birthday) _________________________________

3. Marital status ____________________________________________________

4. Number of children _______________________

5. List in chronological order your teaching and school administrative experiences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching positions (subject or grade)</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>Approximate beginning age</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Administrative or supervisory positions</th>
<th>Years of experience</th>
<th>Approximate beginning age</th>
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</table>

6. List any significant job experiences you have held other than in education:

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________

___________________________________________________________________
7. Approximately how many semester hours did you earn in professional education courses at the undergraduate level?

8. List the degrees which you have received (or will receive) and your areas of study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree received</th>
<th>Major areas</th>
<th>Minor areas</th>
<th>Schools attended</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergrad. level</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master's level</td>
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<tr>
<td>Doctoral level</td>
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</table>

9. List the approximate number of semester hours you earned in the following areas at the master's level and the doctoral level:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Master's level</th>
<th>Doctoral level</th>
<th>Education courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrative task areas - include such courses as administration and organization, business management, curriculum, field experiences, public relations, pupil personnel, finance, school law, plant, staff personnel, and supervision.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative processes - include such courses as administrative theory, educational psychology, educational sociology, group dynamics, human relations, leadership, and research.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational foundations - include such courses as comparative education, history of education, philosophy of education, and social foundations.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other educational - include such courses as adult education, elementary education, higher education, secondary education, and special education.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's level</td>
<td>Doctoral level</td>
<td>Related areas</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social sciences - include such courses as anthropology, economics, political science, psychology, and sociology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Humanities - include such courses as fine arts, history, literature, and philosophy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dear _________:

Thanks a lot for taking the time to complete and return the materials I had sent to you in relation to the doctoral study on graduate training programs for school administrators. You will be interested in knowing that over 75 fellows from the ten Western Conference universities--plus Chicago--are participating as respondents in the study, so that a good representative group is involved.

I am enclosing the position paper or rationale which supports the inclusion of content from the humanities in graduate programs, and particularly the use of the modern novel in dealing with educational purposes and values.

I am especially looking forward to the opportunity of talking with you and getting your reactions to the paper as it relates to your experiences in school administration or in your graduate program. In the next week or so a representative at your university or I will be calling to make an appointment for the interview.

Sincerely,

Gordon Foster
452 McGuffey

Jh

P.S. You might also be interested in seeing the enclosed article by Granville Hicks from the Saturday Review which was written after my correspondence with him about the study, and which generously supports the use of the modern novel in much the same manner as the rationale.
In the present century programs for preparing school administrators have been influenced by a number of administrative concepts or role images emanating primarily from the business model and related to shifting values in the larger society.

Administrative concepts and training programs

In its early stages administration was viewed as a practical art to be learned by empirical method or by following the experiences of successful practitioners.

Early studies in business administration focused on the goal of efficient job performance. In 1911 Frederick Taylor's concept of administration placed an emphasis on time and motion studies supplemented by wage incentives, and a line and staff form of organization which permitted maximum supervision and control of efficiency factors.

The Hawthorne studies, conducted in the 1920's under the leadership of Elton Mayo, introduced sociological and psychological concepts of human relations into administration. Mayo demonstrated the relevance for production outputs of the employee's personal security and of informal groups, and the need for more than one direction in any open social system of the flow of demand, communications, and authority. The principles of coordination set forth by Mary Park Follett and the maintenance of personal needs advocated by Ordway Tead promised the advantages of organizational consensus.

Meanwhile, a French industrialist named Henri Fayol was developing a concept of administration as a series of managerial processes with elements common to all types of organizations. Process theories have been advanced by a number of subsequent scholars such as Gulick and Simon and have centered more recently on the concept of administration as decision-making.

Interest in theoretical approaches to a science of administration was generated in 1938 when Barnard developed an integrated scheme for the functions of the executive in management and organization. The increasing complexity of administration brought on by expanding governmental agencies and a second industrial revolution--both stimulated by World
War II—encouraged social scientists to utilize more readily available research funds in the analysis of administrative processes, organizational structures, and interactions of social role expectations and behaviors both within and outside the organization.

While not directly involved in these movements, school administration and programs for preparing administrators were strongly affected by them, and the special emphasis of each era contributed to an expanded cognitive base for program content. Many texts in school administration, facing large-scale organizational problems for the first time, compared the schools to a factory and were quick to adopt Taylor's managerial techniques, viewing the students as raw materials to be processed and the teaching staffs as production line workers subject to scientific analysis and control (Cubberly, Public School Administration, 1916, and Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency, 1962).

After the Hawthorne studies, training programs in educational administration began to include the development of skills in communication and group processes, professional leadership in the utilization of personnel, and a value orientation for the worth of the individual and organizational consensus as opposed to conflict. Much of the early work of the Kellogg-sponsored Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) accentuated the concern for human relations in administration.

As the subject matter of school administration shifted from a practical orientation to a more theoretical one, relying heavily on content and method from the social sciences, the importance of making prior theoretical assumptions and of omitting value judgments in theory construction was stressed. Courses or seminars in administrative theory were offered, and social scientists were often called upon to form interdisciplinary instruction teams. Many graduate programs strongly recommended the inclusion of a minor area of study in the social sciences.

The superintendent as a perceptive generalist

Consensus on a modern concept of the educational administrator's role has not been reached. The educational enterprise may become so massive and complex that bureaucratic administration by an elite of managerial experts will inevitably be accepted (Burnham, The Managerial Revolution, 1941).
Or if it is assumed that common and distinct elements of administrative activity prevail in all organizations regardless of their purposes, a professional administrator more-or-less interchangeable among different organizations would be effective (Walton, *Administration and Policy-Making in Education*, 1959).

While organizations have common characteristics, they also exhibit wide differences in purposes and in demands on administrators. There is evidence that future school administrators must prepare for a role emphasizing leadership in purpose-defining and policy development, as well as the managerial functions: educational purposes are diffuse, and often abstract and difficult to express; the superordinate-subordinate relationship found between administrators and workers in most organizations is minimized in education by the workers' high level of training and specialization, making effective coordination dependent on either shared purposes or meaningful and continuing dialogue about purposes; public agitation over education and increasing school-community involvement are forcing administrators to exhibit more sophisticated purposes as well as some commitment to them; and finally, in a period of extremely rapid social change and shifting cultural values the *sine qua non* for education must be an uninterrupted and nonprescriptive consideration of purposes.

A role combining management and leadership calls for intelligence, skill in implementation, open-mindedness, compassion, a broad general knowledge, analytical ability, moral strength, and an axiological base. These qualities have been conceptualized by Cubertson and others in an ideal administrator image—the perceptive generalist.

The perceptive generalist will play a leadership role in purpose-defining and in policy development; will communicate effectively with his various publics—the staff, the community, and the board of education; will cope with innovation as an energizer and agent of change; will weight conflicting values and specializations in making decisions and maintaining organizational morale; and will have the breadth of vision to relate the microcosmic activities of his community to the macrocosmic realities of today's world.

A balanced program of preparation

As administration moves from art toward science, and graduate curriculums place a heavier emphasis on social science content and technical training in the administrative
task areas, efforts to develop content related to educational purpose are much less prominent. The ascendant position of all things scientific in our society raises the question of proper balance.

The study of the science of administration has already yielded invaluable results, extending knowledge and theoretical concepts and improving administrative practices; it must receive continuing encouragement and strong financial support. The emphasis on administrative science, however, is limited eventually by its dependence on criteria and goals; by its incapacity to take a position on philosophical issues which are at the very heart of the educative process; by its reliance upon routine research methods, appropriated originally by the social sciences from classical mechanics; and finally, by its inability to bridge the gap between practice and theory—a gap that can be bridged only by the kind of "developed with known variously as deliberation, calculation, prudence, common sense, practical wisdom, and experience," or in other words, administrative art.

Preparatory programs capable of attracting more able candidates at an earlier age and developing their technical, conceptual, and philosophical skills will have to be conceived. Seminal efforts in this direction characterized by an emphasis on rigorous scholarship in professional training have been made by the different professional groups—the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA), the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration (CASA), and the University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA).

If the validity of the perceptive generalist role for school administrators is assumed and the limitations of present programs for preparing candidates in this role are acknowledged, content which can provide a most effective education in value clarification and purpose-defining can be found in the humanities—in languages and literature, in history, in the fine arts, and in philosophy.

A recent study of the course structures of graduate training programs (AASA, The Professional Preparation of Superintendents of Schools, 1964) indicates that almost no work in the humanities is recommended or required at this level unless courses in the philosophy, history, or social foundations of education are considered to fall in this category. In spite of this, a strong support for their inclusion seems to be emerging: Goldhammer, in his monograph on the use of the social sciences in preparing administrators, felt the
humanities should play a complementary role in training programs and give major assistance in establishing organizational goals; Culbertson argued that value content from the humanities could assist potential administrators in dealing with administrative processes and illuminate organizational purposes and policies; Walton recommended that men representing the educational enterprise should be "unmistakably educated"; and Harlow proclaimed purpose-defining the central function of school administrators, citing the humanities as a major source for developing program content dealing with values and the making of value judgments.

There seemed to be a general position developing for a threefold division of content in preparatory programs which would include the humanities, the social sciences, and the technologies of administration. A publication by the AASA in 1963, The Education of a School Superintendent, supported this division of content and stressed the importance of the integrating effect of the total program, not its constituent parts; in other words, the training experience should not be a series of distinct educational experiences, but a genuine overarching gestalt.

Educating administrators in purpose-defining and values

Even if the perceptive generalist concept provides a good target for administrator training programs and content from the humanities offers the curriculum balance needed for preparing generalists, the problems and processes involved in education for the purpose-defining activity present serious difficulties. Purpose-defining is essentially the clarification of educational goals or objectives in order to facilitate decisions about what goals are of most worth. It is patently obvious that all educational goals and objectives stem from an expression of value judgments of the desired or the desirable, the valued or the valuable, which influence selection when choices have to be made from available modes, means, or ends of actions.

For this reason the educational process is inescapably value-laden. Administrators make choices on the basis of some system of values not only in exercising leadership in purpose-defining but also in handling staff morale problems, in communicating with their various publics, or in dealing with any of the administrative processes. Furthermore, administrators in our society are faced almost daily with an agonizing series of value dilemmas or ethical conflicts many of which are virtually unresolvable but need at least to be
understood for what they are. In addition to confronting such timeless abstractions as the individual vs. the institution, ends vs. means, and authority vs. conscience, today's administrators are beset with a plethora of urgent educational policy problems demanding immediate and difficult value positions—school integration, shared-time programs, education for the culturally deprived, and the like.

Ethical conflicts are sharpened by the shifting value standards in our culture which have been categorized by Spindler and Getzels as traditional to emergent: the traditional values of Puritan morality, work-success ethic, individualism, and future-time orientation are gradually giving way to the emergent values of sociability, relativistic moral attitudes, conformity, and hedonism or present-time orientation. Ethical conflicts in America are frequently observed in the discrepancies between professed values and actual behaviors, between adherence to the ideal and practice of the real. These discrepancies are well-known to practicing administrators.

In spite of the manifest affinity of values and administration, the former are generally ignored in the study of modern administration and often spoken of in a pejorative sense. The reasons for this are easily understood: it is partly a reaction to the content of biased and value-oriented courses in educational administration which, under the guise of human relations theories, asserted the effectiveness and rightness of democratic administration often in the absence of institutional models or any hard research demonstrating its actual worth; these were sometimes preceded or accompanied by educational foundations courses which neglected academic neutrality and stressed doctrinal values and commitment, frequently to social reconstructionism; courses in the humanities or educational foundations which involved the study of values or ethics were often bogged down in sterile academicism or what Dewey called a "dialectic of concepts" and seldom brought students into contact with vital moral subject matter or educational issues; and finally, the pressure to make research in educational administration scientifically respectable entailed the omission of value considerations.

Since educational purposes and the value systems that underlie them cannot remain in oblivion, it is imperative that guidelines be defined for training programs in purposes, that past errors and omissions in techniques be corrected, and that imaginative content and methods for training programs be perfected.
Education in purpose-defining should be facilitated by helping the administrator to become aware of the basic components which make up his own value system and to clarify and set forth his purposes with some erudition and sophistication. Past errors in training techniques centered chiefly in the utilization of such properties as force, precept, imitation, and experience to develop prescribed values in a nonrational manner and can be corrected by improved instructional methods in which pluralistic value models are presented neutrally with no pressure for commitment.

Existential psychologists offer one such method with the idea of helping each person understand or reconstruct his own value system, asserting that the most important teaching contributes to the learner's self-realization. The instructor first establishes a climate of psychological safety and then uses clarifying procedures, eliciting value statements from students or secondary sources and clarifying them in a nondirective manner similar to that used in Rogerian counseling.

Brameld recommends a more structured approach, employing a dialectic process he called consensual validation. This approach would lean more closely to commitment and be subject to the tyranny of group consensus.

Philosophy seminars proposed for school administrators by Castell are designed with four qualifications in mind: (1) they must provide a genuine encounter and be incitements to administrative reflection; (2) they offer contact with relatively high-level thinking; (3) they challenge the impulse to theorize and evolve difficult abstractions about administration; and (4) they present incompatible, irreconcilable points of view.

A number of program innovations involving the use of content from the humanities could be suggested to be used with these various methods:

(1) A seminar on administrative processes combining content from the humanities and the social sciences which could be geared to the processes themselves or to the more abstract issues and dilemmas emerging from the processes (e.g., the decision-making process or the dilemma of the individual vs. the institution).

(2) A seminar on contemporary American social problems (e.g., automation, population mobility, adolescents) which have implications for educational
policies, again combining content from the humanities and the social sciences.

(3) A practicum on contemporary American educational problems (e.g., school integration, cultural deprivation, shared-time instruction) involving actual field work in one or more of these areas with concurrent studies from the humanities and the social sciences.

(4) A seminar on changing American values using content from the modern novel with a background of readings about cultural values from social psychology.

While content from the humanities can be used effectively by itself in seminar-type situations at the graduate level, it would seem to be more efficient generally to combine this content with related materials from the social sciences and, where possible, with actual field or simulated experiences. Such a mix would come closer to achieving the maximum cognitive and affective impact.

Use of the modern novel for education in values

Different segments of the humanities have relevance for the study of values, value systems, and educational purposes: history—especially the history of movements and social ideas, aesthetics, ethics, drama, biography, and fiction. The novel, since it presents characters in action making choices and suffering their consequences, seems particularly well-suited to a thorough confrontation with values and purposes.

Matthew Arnold in 1889 took the position that imaginative literature would become the new interpreter of life, filling the vacuum left by the steady decline of organized religion. Literary critics have divided on the issue, some perceiving literature as a powerful social force, others as art for art’s sake. Since literature has, in fact, become a powerful force on occasion, moral censors—beginning with Plato and continuing through Arnold to the present—have attempted to subordinate much of it to political and moral ends. Only in the present century has the autonomy of literature been secured.

The avoidance of moral censorship or prescribed values has been cited as the major correction needed in the methodology used for informing administrators about values and purposes. The only aim for education in values—and this is
particularly true of literary education—consistent with an open social system is a general imaginative enlargement of content diffuse enough in its own material and scope as to make "its very diffuseness its essential virtue." The modern novel with its "undetermined fluidity, its experimentation, its reaching and exploration in a hundred different ways" provides exactly this type of content. It also furnishes a measure of provocation, of imagination, and of stimulation so desperately needed in professional education studies. It detracts nothing from a Great Books discussion group, a philosophy seminar in value theory, or a reading of Myrdal's An American Dilemma to suggest that many administrators would benefit equally—and perhaps more so in terms of acceptance of ideas and behavioral change—from an encounter with Wright's Black Boy, Ellison's Invisible Man, or Baldwin's Another Country. Both contents are valuable and actually complement one another.

The problem, in a sense, is how to present vividly to the student all the intricacies, all the anguish of the value dilemmas, the ethical issues, and the educational problems he will face as an administrator. It is interesting that professors in a large number of fields—sociology, public administration, business administration, education, ethics, and social work—are successfully using the modern novel as one answer to this problem.

To determine more definitively whether content from modern novels does, in fact, provide a wide range of value models, a portion of this study was devoted to a content analysis of ten novels selected by a panel of literary experts to match a list of ten contemporary social problems having implications for educational purposes and policies. The value patterns for each novel and its major characters were classified by the researcher and four qualified autonomous readers according to the traditional and emergent value components developed by Spindler and Getzels and referred to earlier in this paper. The novels analyzed were The Stranger by Camus, Saturday Night and Sunday Morning by Sillitoe, The Child Buyer by Hersey, Room at the Top by Braine, Another Country by Baldwin, Catcher in the Rye by Salinger, Tender is the Night by Fitzgerald, The Dollmaker by Arnow, The Assistant by Malamud, and The Naked and the Dead by Mailer.

An extremely wide range of value positions was found with no marked emphasis on either the traditional or the emergent value components. A moderately high level of reliability in the different ratings supported this range.
In summary, training programs for superintendents have followed societal values and the business model, progressing in emphasis from operational efficiency and human relations to theoretical research. As future administrators are prepared for a generalist's role to assume leadership in purpose-defining and policy development as well as in managerial and conceptual skills, new content is needed for training in values and value judgments. This need is accentuated by the conflicts growing out of changing cultural values and the seeming disposition our society and its educational system have exhibited for closed strategies of value internalization. There is psychological support for the position that each person can receive help in building or restructuring his own value system by having value concepts presented neutrally at a lower level of internalization than commitment; the diffuseness of the modern novel seems to give it a strong potential for providing the pluralistic value models needed in such a presentation.

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INTERVIEW GUIDE

Name _________________________ Code Number ____________________
Ph.D. School_______________ Undergraduate_______________
Master's_____________________

I. Initial rapport
1. Appreciation for participation.
2. Review purposes of the study.
3. Review purposes of the interview.
4. Describe respondent group.
5. Repeat confidential nature of the study.
6. Describe nature of the interview.
7. Review the highlights of the rationale.

II. Perception of superintendent's role

State need for defining the role of the superintendent before final decisions can be made about graduate programs and their content.

Q What role do you think the superintendent ought to play in the areas of educational purposes and policies? Do you perceive him primarily as exercising a leadership role or a mediating role among or between various pressure groups in the community?

Q In looking at the superintendent's role in a slightly different way, what would be your reaction to the university's establishing a graduate program in general administration which would prepare students as administrators for many types of organizations at the same time so that you could be more-or-less interchangeable as a hospital administrator, a school administrator, a business administrator, and so on?
Q Do you think the perceptive generalist role as defined in the rationale (read if necessary) is the most appropriate role for the future superintendent?

Agree_______ Uncertain_________ Disagree___________

III. Curriculum balance

The rationale favored a balanced program of preparation which would include content from the humanities, the social sciences, and the technologies of administration in some sort of reasonable ratio --perhaps 1/3 - 1/3 - 1/3.

Q What is your reaction to a so-called balanced program?

Agree_______ Uncertain_________ Disagree___________

The use of the social sciences--sociology, political science, economics, psychology, anthropology, and so on--in graduate course content is becoming very popular.

Q In what specific ways do you perceive the social sciences as helping the practicing school administrator?

Q Would you be in favor of a requirement that part of the graduate program be spent in the study of one of the social sciences?

Agree_______ Uncertain_________ Disagree___________

Q If required, which social science area would be best in your opinion?

Q Would you feel that some formal preparation in purpose-defining skills and the area of values was important?

Agree_______ Uncertain_________ Disagree___________
Q In your opinion would content from the humanities provide one effective approach to education in purpose-defining and value clarification?

Agree______ Uncertain________ Disagree________

Q Was any formal emphasis given to education in purpose-defining skills or values in your graduate program? (Be specific in answers.)

The rationale took the position that values should not be prescribed or taught but suggested a method of continuing clarification and critical validation by each individual.

Q Do you believe such a deliberate process of value clarification or formulation is feasible in graduate programs for administrators?

Agree______ Uncertain________ Disagree________

The rationale included a list of ten novels that were studied for values. It is obvious that graduate students or school administrators generally have almost no time for this sort of reading.

Q Are you, by any chance, familiar with any of the books mentioned or similar books in the literature?

Q What were your reactions to the use of the modern novel in educating for values and purposes? Do you perceive the use of content from the modern novel as one legitimate approach to education in values and purposes?

Agree______ Uncertain________ Disagree________

Q What were your reactions to the study itself in terms of your graduate work and your administrative experiences?

IV. Attitude toward your own program

Q As you think back on your graduate program in administration, can you recall what appeared to you as one or two of its major strengths?
Q What could you point out as one or two of the major weaknesses of your program?

There are getting to be more and more career patterns you can follow with a doctoral degree in educational administration: a superintendency, a professor in administration, research, a central office position, and so on.

As you think of yourself in the next five or ten years, which career pattern do you feel you will most likely follow?

Q Using a 3-point scale (strong - average - weak) how would you evaluate your graduate program as preparation for these different career areas?

As preparation for the superintendency... S A W
As preparation for a professorship......... S A W
As preparation for research in education.. S A W

I would like to get your impressions about a few specific features of your own graduate program which have been of major concern in the past to people most directly responsible for preparatory programs. Don't think of your ratings as a comparison of any one school with another, but more as a general image you hold of the program at your own school.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strong</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Weak</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. ___ student financial aid.</td>
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<td>2. ___ flexibility of your program, permitting individualization.</td>
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<td>3. ___ quality of fellow students in the program.</td>
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<td>4. ___ opportunities for meaningful field experiences.</td>
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<td>5. ___ class size and student-teacher ratio in administration courses.</td>
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<td>6. ___ quality of faculty advisement.</td>
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</table>
7. _____ help in getting started on dissertation.
8. _____ opportunity for exploratory activities in research.
9. _____ curriculum materials and library resources.
10. _____ opportunities for contact with professional groups and associations.
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