

THE CONSTRUCTION OF OKLAHOMA SCHOOL
REFORM: KNOWLEDGE-CONSTITUTIVE
INTERESTS IN THE CLASSROOM

By

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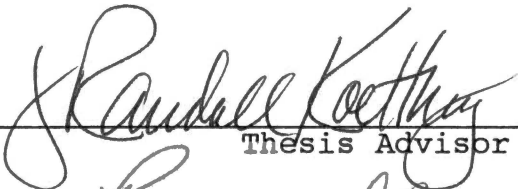
Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
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1979

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1990


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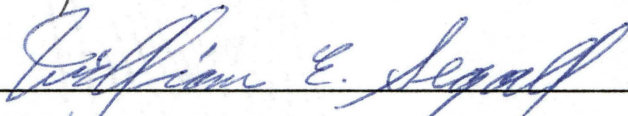
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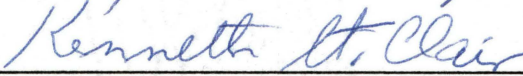
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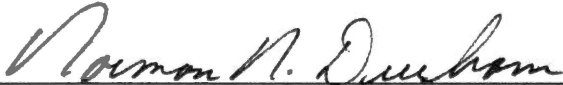


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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this study would not have been possible without the support and assistance of many people.

The philosophical base from which this study evolved was developed over a period of many years. I have been fortunate to have been advised by a number of faculty members which all contributed to the development of this philosophy.

Dr. Russell Dobson began to challenge my opinions and, at the same time, was able to help me begin to deliberate my own thoughts and actions in a critical manner. I also came to know that Dr. Dobson would give me practical advice. This study could not have been attempted without this influence.

As time passed, I came to know Dr. Randall Koetting. I was pleased that he agreed to chair my committee. Dr. Koetting continued to allow me, as a student, to look at issues in ways that I had not previously thought of. These processes of developing personal insight continued to play an important role in my development as a student. The advice and assistance of Dr. Koetting has played a major role in the presentation of this study.

The selection of two other members for my committee was an easy decision for me and I am honored that they agreed to assist me. Dr. Kenneth St.Clair represented consistent, sound advice and was instrumental in introducing me to the concept of instructional supervision.

Dr. William Segall helped me to keep current events and educational practices in historical perspective. This influence has had a direct impact on my outlook of education and society.

Completing this study, however, required the support of several other people. My wife, Susan, helped to keep me focused on my goals and was there to motivate me. She helped to minimize the negative effects of this endeavor on our family.

I was also fortunate to have the backing of my superintendent and my co-workers. Dr. Sharpton, Ms. Bear, Mrs. Sprague and Mr. Franklin can share in the completion of this study.

To these, and the countless other teachers who have influenced me, I am most grateful and appreciative.

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CHAPTER I

THE SITUATION: EDUCATIONAL REFORM AND THE THEORY OF KNOWLEDGE- CONSTITUTIVE INTERESTS

Introduction

Educational reform has been a process which has, even if unreported, been in development or discussion in educational systems around the world. Historians have documented the changes of the world and nations. The study of educational history has indicated that as a nation changes, so too, do the schools (Good and Teller 1973, 3).

The catalyst for reform in education is a determination that a change is needed in the current structure or conduct of the institution. To more clearly understand the concept of educational reform, the term reform must be defined. The root word, "form", is "the shape and structure of something as distinguished from its substance." For anything to be reformed, it must be "improved by the removal of faults or improved by conduct or character" (Guralink 1984, 502).

School reform has been a topic of recent discussion in America and in the state of Oklahoma. While school reform is an ongoing process in theory, the process is accelerated

or decelerated by certain international, national and local phenomena. The decade of 1980 to 1990 has provided an acceleration of the school reform process in America and in the state of Oklahoma. The current school reform interest in Oklahoma began in 1980 with the enactment of legislation designed to change the teacher education/certification and staff development program in Oklahoma. The most recent national school reform movement began with the national publication of a "A Nation at Risk" in 1983. This report left no doubt that the current educational systems of America were perceived by some as a failure.

Our nation is at risk. Our once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation is being taken over by competitors throughout the world.... We report to the American people that while we can take justifiable pride in what our schools and colleges have historically accomplished and contributed to the United States and the well-being of its people, the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a nation and a people. (National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983, 12)

Study and reflection of this passage helps to point out the wide scope of schools as an institution and its importance at the national level. It must be argued, however, that schools are not primary institutions but, rather, represent secondary institutions. This is proposed because of the nature of schools being a workhorse for other social institutions. Indeed tasks and policies are passed on to the schools to implement. National reports serve a very clear purpose in developing the tasks for schools to carry out. The importance of the national school reform reports

which have surfaced during the 1980's cannot be overlooked nor underestimated.

It is important that we focus on reports of this type since they act to alter the very discourse of education. The terrain of the debate shifts from a concern with inequality and democratization (no matter how weak) to the language of efficiency, standards, and productivity. Alterations in the terrain of debate affect our collective memories in major ways. We lose sight of the years of effort it took to establish the progressive tendencies that do exist within state institutions such as schools, and these changes provide an ideological horizon against which we locate the policies and practices of curriculum and teaching. Thus, these documents are not only useful indicators of ideological shifts. They are themselves part of the cultural production of such altered public discourse and as such need to be seen as constitutive elements of a particular hegemonic project. (Apple 1987, 200)

Just as national educational reform reports have played a role in the current national focus on school reform, so too, have Oklahoma state reports played a similar role. The most recent state educational reform report, "Oklahoma's Public Education: A Blueprint for Excellence" (1989), also describes the wide cultural scope of importance of Oklahoma educational reform.

Oklahoma is a relatively new state which maintains much of its cultural identity in the face of a rapidly changing nation and world. It is a relatively rural state, even though a clear majority of its citizens now live in and around its urban centers. It is a state whose economy has been heavily resource based -- agriculture and energy -- and is now moving, along with other states, toward a more commercial and service-based economy. The changes in economic focus have resulted in changing educational needs within the state. Where Americans in general and Oklahomans specifically could, in past years, rely on hard work and dedication, a higher order of skills is now required. In the evolving information-based economy of which Oklahoma is a part, like it or not, our citizens must be able to read, think, compute and communicate if we are going to prosper (or even survive). Oklahoma does not have the luxury of saying, "No thank you!" to the rest of the world. We are part of a global economy and even as we seek to retain our individual identity we must accommodate ourselves to a changing set of rules and requirements. (Task Force 2000 1989, 4)

Reflection on the national and state educational reform reports leads this writer to believe that educational reform is much more than reform of educational programs. It does, indeed, represent a reflection of American and Oklahoman culture.

While specific factors of culture, such as political influence, legal influence, and economic influence are major contributors to educational change, the totality of these influences must be considered in the process of educational reform. Indeed, culture is difficult to study.

If culture is a major influence of educational reform in America and in Oklahoma, then reform, itself is a mirror of culture. The classroom teacher, then, becomes the image the student sees as he stands before the mirror.

The importance of this image cannot be disputed. This importance has led this writer to engage in the description of Oklahoma classroom teachers as they relate to the construction of educational reform. This description will consider culture as a component of educational reform, national school reform proposals, Oklahoma school reform proposals, the view of the teacher of school reform measures and the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests as it applies to teachers.

The remainder of the first chapter will be devoted to establishing the background from which the description will be developed.

Culture: Its Role In School Reform

The nature of culture begins with the assumption that it is essential to all individuals. Culture could, in fact, be the sum total of individual beliefs and practices. This statement can be made because of the building nature of culture and its ability to endure. Culture is the direct result of any group of individual's history and their reactions to the society in which they live. From this interaction, tradition and current practices are evident.

Culture has been defined by anthropologists as "the totality of learned attitudes, values, beliefs, traditions, and tools shared by a group of people to give order, continuity, and meaning to their lives" (Kroeber and Kluckhohn 1952). Ricardo Garcia, having summarized many definitions, suggests the following descriptions of culture. They include: "culture as having discrete elements, culture as a process that functions at varying levels of explicit and implicit realities, culture as a process that is learned and taught, and culture as a process of shared gratification" (Garcia 1982, 22). A final, and most important, definition offered by Frank Boas states: "Culture may be defined as the totality of the mental and physical reactions and activities that characterize the behavior of the individuals composing a social group. . . . It also includes the products of these activities and their role in the life of the group" (Boaz 1938, 159). What makes this definition so important is its

closeness to what many believe to be the purpose of education. That is, to provide experiences from which reactions and products can be derived and then implemented in the individual's life.

After defining culture it is still necessary to look at its structure. In order to facilitate further examination, it seems appropriate to consider a structural framework proposed by Ralph Linton (1936). Linton has proposed that the elements of culture can be classified into three categories. These categories are Universals, Specialties, and Alternatives. The Universals of a culture are the values, beliefs, and customs that are prevalent within the adult population. While a certain group may generally share the same values or customs, a different group, or culture, may have total disregard for the same value.

While a group may hold the same universal values, it may be divided into several sub-groups by differences found in individual reactions or products. Linton calls this element, Specialties. It is in this area that a culture can allow for vocational differences and those found between social classes. Even though the groups hold the same general beliefs, the sub-groups still possess characteristics which make that sub-group unique to the culture as a whole.

Linton's third element is called, Alternatives. These are the beliefs and customs that differ from the established values. These alternate beliefs come about due to the need of the individual or group to solve a problem. While the

alternate belief is not shared by the entire group, it is also not shared by any existing sub-group. It is in this manner that culture may change over a long period of time. This description of culture serves to provide a clearer view of how the process of educational reform is related to the cultural processes of a nation.

One of the greatest problems facing the implementation of educational reform is being aware of the values which are being emphasized in the process.

Schools exist for some purpose. At least those who pay the bills and make educational policy think they do. In any society one might assume that a central function of schooling is to socialize students to the knowledge and values considered important in that society. This assumes, of course, both that there is some consensus on which knowledge and values are most important and that the schools can teach them.
(Selakovich 1984, 29)

Indeed the task of determining cultural values in the process of educational reform is, at best, difficult. What represents, perhaps, an even greater challenge is attempting to distinguish "whose" values are being identified. As Linton points out, there are true divisions from which cultural values originate. If true change is to occur over time, it would most likely originate in the "Alternatives" category. Action originating from the "Universals" category would not be change at all since it represents that which is already consensus. The dilemma, it seems, rests in the "Specialties" category. Whichever sub-group happens to be most persuasive or powerful at any one time would have dramatic influence on the nature of the make-up of educa-

tional systems. As the sub-groups come in and out of power, changes could occur in the values of the culture. This is as evident during the 1980's as at any other time.

Capitalizing upon the waning confidence of the general public and a growing number of teachers in the effectiveness of public schools, the new conservatives argue for educational reform by faulting schools for a series of crises that include everything from growing trade deficit to the breakdown of family morality. As is the case with many public issues in the age of Ronald Reagan, the new conservatives have seized the initiative by framing their agreements in a terse rhetoric that resonates with a growing public concern about downward mobility in hard economic times, that appeals to a resurgence of chauvinistic patriotism, and that points toward a reformulation of education goals along elitist lines. (Giroux and McLaren 1986, 217)

This description helps to point out the very clear division between "Specialty" groups. Barbara Finkelstein (1984) discusses this issue in terms of political and economic groups, both of which have had their influence on American culture and education reform.

Contemporary reformers seem to be recalling public education from its traditional utopian mission-to nurture a critical and committed citizenry that would stimulate the processes of political and cultural transformation and refine and extend the workings of political democracy. . . . Reformers seem to imagine public schools as economic rather than political instruments. They forge no new visions of political and social possibilities. Instead, they call public schools to industrial and cultural service exclusively. . . . Reformers have disjoined their calls for educational reform from calls for a redistribution of power and authority, and the cultivation of cultural forms celebrating pluralism and diversity. As if they have had enough of political democracy, Americans, for the first time in a one hundred and fifty-year history, seem ready to do ideological surgery on their public schools-cutting them away from the fate of social justice and political democracy completely and grafting them onto elite corporate, industrial, military, and cultural interests. (Finkelstein 1984, 280-281)

It is by the domination of change brought about in the "Specialties" category that the individual becomes lost in the process of change and educational reform. For true cultural change to take place there must be a conscientiza-

tion of individuals. In other words, a process must allow "men, as knowing subjects to achieve a deepening awareness both of the socio-cultural reality which shapes their lives and of their capacity to transform that reality" (Freire 1970, 221-22).

Freire goes on to elaborate on man's relationship to his world and the culture he encounters.

It is as conscious beings that men are not only in the world, but with the world, together with other men. Only men as "open" beings, are able to achieve the complex operation of simultaneously transforming the world by their action and grasping and expressing the world's reality in their creative language.

Men can fulfill the necessary condition of being with the world because they are able to gain objective distance from it. Without this objectification, where by man also objectifies himself, man would be limited to being in the world, lacking both self-knowledge and knowledge of the world. (Freire 1970, 452-53)

It is because of this view of man and his relationship to culture that this writer believes the key to cultural change and educational reform is in each individual. Thus, teachers become a focal point of cultural action and educational reform action in the schools.

Oklahoma teachers have faced a tremendous amount of dialogue and school reform proposals during the 1980's, from both the national level and the state level. As study of these teachers unfolds, it is necessary to review the general content of these reform proposals from both national and state sources.

National Educational Reform Proposals

When looking at the current status of the national educational reform movement, there appears to be at least two prevailing lines of thought. The first is that there should be a national agenda for the rebuilding of the American public school system because of a drastic change needed in the nations's economy.

We do not believe the education system needs repairing: we believe it must be rebuilt to match the drastic change needed in our economy.... The 1980's will be remembered for two developments: the beginning of a sweeping reassessment of the basis of the nation's economic strength and the outpouring of concern for the quality of American education. The connection between these two streams of thought is strong and growing. (Carnegie Forum Task Force 1986)

The second point of view sees the current national educational reform movement in a much different light. This viewpoint centers around the disagreement on the dissatisfaction of the public with the schools in America.

The idea that most people believe schools are in disastrous shape is, I think, quite mistaken. If anything, people exhibit a rather mindless, ill-informed satisfaction about the schools. This is why our political system avoids challenging the basic assumptions and merely strengthens and extends them: or schools are basically OK: let's just push them a little harder, add an eighth period to a seven period day, add thirty days to a 180 day-a-year schedule, test the kids more. That approach certainly does not suggest people are tremendously upset with the schools as they are. (Sizer 1984)

Regardless of which viewpoint a person would agree with, it has to be agreed that the national educational reform movement has produced a "recent tidal wave of school reform" (Danner 1984, 40).

In order to better understand the concept of national educational reform, a brief historical description will be offered culminating with a description of the key educational reform measures proposed during the 1980's.

As education began in America, it was founded and implemented because of social reformers. The early Americans were coming to find freedom for their particular religious and political beliefs. Their schools served as a way to pass these values on to their children and reflected what was deemed to be educationally appropriate. Most schools consisted of education for males in the classical subjects.

As America's needs changed so did the structure and the content of the schools. By the 1800's, educators were calling on the schools to instruct in the practical sciences and agriculture. The New Harmony school was started in Indiana by Robert Owen in 1825. This school provided instruction for a group of students in the manual arts and the sciences. Earlier in 1823, The Gardner Lyceum was established and was considered to be the first school of agriculture. Perhaps the greatest school reform of the time, however, occurred as more students were offered the opportunity to attend school (Good and Teller 1973, 121-22).

After the turn of the century, education began to be effected by the country's transformation during the industrial revolution.

Historians of education agree that American education went through a kind of metamorphosis after the turn of this century Even a cursory examination of the work of educational reformers during this period, however, indicates that influential leaders differed widely in the doctrines they espoused and in the pedagogical reforms they advocated. (Kliebard 1975, 51)

While John Dewey represented the progressive view of education, it was not the most prevalent idea at the time. Educators seemed to be more persuaded to a strong and powerful bureaucratic model of education which was also very prevalent in the business and industry community. The educational leaders of this movement were led by the works of Fredrick Taylor and John Franklin Bobbitt. Taylor was the leading proponent of the scientific management theory. Taylor's chief concern was for efficiency. Whatever the task, the best way was the way that resulted in the most efficient use of man, materials, and time. The ultimate goal of this method of organization was productivity. The individual was looked upon as simply one of the elements of the system. The notion of scientific management and its application in the schools was well stated by Ellwood Cubberly in 1916.

Every manufacturing establishment that turns out a standard product or a series of products of any kind, maintains a force of efficiency experts to study methods of procedure and to measure and test the output of its works. Such men ultimately bring the manufacturing establishment large returns, by introducing improvements in processes and procedure, and in training the workmen to produce larger and better output. Our schools are, in a sense, factories in which the raw products (children) are to be shaped and 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 production to see if it is according to specifications, the elimination of waste in manufacture, and a large variety in the output. (Cubberly 1916, 338)

Bobbitt held these same views and began to implement the scientific management model into curriculum development. One major task was to eliminate the "waste and the playfulness" from the schools. Bobbitt advocated trained specialists who would determine the methods of teaching and the characteristics of the teachers for efficient implementation. Quality control was advocated and was to be achieved through quantitative measurement of the product (learning). After measuring a student's achievement, Bobbitt advocated directed training (compensatory teaching). He stated:

The curriculum of the directed training is to be discovered in the shortcoming of the individuals after they have had all that can be given through undirected training. (Bobbitt 1912, 260)

In expanding on these ideas of management and curriculum, other educators developed the notion of "curriculum steps" and "objectives". While there was some disagreement among educators as to the merit of this theory, the position was not altered, and formed the basis for reform in the early part of this century. Indeed, as this century has progressed, other ideas have been attempted. The end result of these ideas, however, has not made a great impact on the current trend of national educational reform.

As has already been alluded to, the current national educational reform movement had its beginning with the publication of "A Nation At Risk". This report, written by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), set off a serious debate about the condition of American

schools and, in fact, had a great impact on educational thought.

What is most surprising, however, is the fact that "A Nation At Risk", unlike most government reports, actually provoked significant changes in school policy, what the Department of Education called "a tidal wave of school reform". (Danner 1984, 40)

The spark "A Nation At Risk" emitted, caused an avalanche of national and state educational reports to follow. These reports included follow up reports by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, the Carnegie Foundation, the Rand Corporation and many others. While some of the specifics differed between reports, many recommendations and philosophies were common.

As of 1984, forty-one states had followed the reports' recommendations and had stiffened graduation requirements, enacted stricter student evaluation and testing programs and lengthened the amount of time spent on instruction either through a longer school day, a longer school year, or both (Danner 1984, 41).

A report written in 1986 by the Carnegie Forum's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession entitled, "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century", outlined further reform measures directed primarily toward teachers. These reform measures consisted of the following major elements:

- Create a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, organized with a regional and state membership structure, to establish high standards for what teachers need to know and be able to do, and to certify teachers who meet that standard.
- Restructure schools to provide a professional environment for teachers, freeing them to decide how best to meet state and local goals for children while holding them accountable for progress.
- Restructure the teaching force, and introduce a new category of

Lead Teachers with the proven ability to provide active leadership in the redesign of the schools and in helping their colleagues to uphold high standards of learning and teaching.

- Require a bachelor's degree in the arts and sciences as a prerequisite for the professional study of teaching.
- Develop a new professional curriculum in graduate schools of education leading to a Master in Teaching degree, based on systematic knowledge of teaching and including internships and residencies in the schools.
- Mobilize the nation's resources to prepare minority youngsters for teaching careers.
- Relate incentives for teachers to school-wide student performance, and provide schools with the technology, services, and staff essential to teachers productivity.
- Make teachers' salaries and career opportunities competitive with those in other professions. (Carnegie Forum on Education 1986, 47-48)

Even as this writing is taking place, national educational reform measures continue to be discussed. President Bush has just concluded an educational summit from which seven general goals for school improvement were proposed. These proposals included recommendations on student readiness to start school, student performance on international achievement tests, reduction of student dropout rates, improvement of student academic performance, functional literacy of adult Americans, training a competitive work force, providing a supply of qualified teachers and technology, and the establishment of safe disciplined and drug-free schools (Education USA 1989, 44).

While this description of national educational reform has been brief, it is hoped that it has provided insight into the total process of educational reform. A review of the literature pertaining to national school reform proposals shall follow in Chapter II.

Just as there are an abundance of national educational reform proposals being considered, there are also a great

amount of Oklahoma state educational reform proposals being considered. The following section will be devoted to a brief description of Oklahoma educational reform proposals during the 1980's.

Oklahoma Educational Reform Proposals

To propose that the state of Oklahoma is currently addressing its most serious attempt at educational reform cannot be documented. The general consensus, however, among many professional educators and private citizens is that educational reform has never before been approached with as much "vigor, urgency, publicity, politics, risk, and economic impact" in the state of Oklahoma (Oklahoma Academy on State Goals 1989).

Oklahoma, as a state, has followed much of the same historical development in education as has the nation. After 1980, Oklahoma has engaged in frequently recommending educational reform measures for school improvement. These recommendations have typically come from the State Department of Education, the state legislature and, most recently, from Task Force 2000, a specially formed committee to study Oklahoma education. While many school reform measures have been enacted in the state, some commentators insist that the proposals have been less than effective because of a lack of adequate funding. Howard Barnett Jr., a member of Task Force 2000, spoke about this problem with funding as well as

the urgency of the entire reform process in Oklahoma School reform.

There is general consensus that education in the United States is in critical condition. The president's recent education summit underlined the risk that we face as a nation if we do not drastically improve our education system.

But as the task force's report states, "In Oklahoma, the challenge is more immediate and the outcome even more critical. If we do not find a way to create a measurably superior system of elementary and secondary education, we may well be relegated to a kind of domestic Third World status."

Why is this so? Very simply, it is because Oklahoma has for years underfunded its education system. As the report states, "Quality education cannot be purchased at a discount."

As important, the world of work is changing. An education system which prepared workers for the assembly line of the industrial age is not preparing people to work in the emerging information age. The world is changing and education must too. (Barnett 1989)

Much of the reasoning in the pursuit of Oklahoma school reform stems from the economic survival of the state itself. In 1987, John Folks, State Superintendent of Schools proposed that education should be improved for the purpose of building a stronger economic climate in the State along with providing more employment opportunities to the citizens of the state of Oklahoma (Folks 1987, 3).

Task Force 2000 has also established goal statements which reflect the current reasoning behind the need for Oklahoma educational reform.

No longer will Oklahomans be dependent upon the production and the price of oil and gas or on the production and price of agricultural products. Further, we will no longer depend on recruiting or enticing major companies to locate in Oklahoma in order for Oklahomans to be successfully employed. The intellectual capital resulting from our education system will assure the economic success of our citizens. This outstanding system will develop graduates who: (1) know our heritage and the heritage of other cultures and have discovered the interconnective nature of our world; (2) can think critically and integrate ideas; (3) have the motivation for lifelong learning; (4) possess self-esteem and are tolerant of others; (5) are responsibly engaged

in their communities; and (6) are overall prepared to be productive workers, committed citizens and better people. (Task Force 2000 1989, 3-4)

Within this context, since 1980 the state of Oklahoma has enacted and legislated school reform measures in the general areas of teacher education, certification, teacher testing programs, entry year programs for first year teachers, staff development, redefinition of basic curriculum, school testing programs, kindergarten screening, class size reduction, gifted and talented programs, teacher plans, Oklahoma School of Sciences and Mathematics, revision of school funding, school district annexation elections, voluntary school consolidation, school performance indicators, school district accounting, A.I.D.S. education, alcohol and drug abuse prevention, and health insurance for school district employees.

A review of these programs and a review of the current Oklahoma school reform proposals will follow in Chapter II.

In continuing the background information which forms the basis for the study of educational reform, attention must now be focused on the source of implementation of the proposed reform. This source is the teacher.

The Teacher's Role in Educational Reform

A very paradoxical situation exists in describing the teacher's role in school reform. Ernest Boyer, president of the Carnegie Foundation, very clearly points out this dilemma.

Whatever is wrong with America's public schools cannot be fixed without the help of those in the classroom...Yet in most states, teachers have been front-row spectators in a reform movement in which signals are called by governors, legislators, state education officials - those far removed from the field of action (Boyer 1988, 13).

If, as Boyer states, "teachers overwhelmingly control the place where education truly takes place" (Boyer 1987, 28), there becomes a very great need to examine the role of classroom teachers as they contribute to the construction of Oklahoma educational reform.

For the most part, looking at Oklahoma teachers as a powerful force in determining educational reform policy, or for that matter, looking at these teachers as individual curriculum decision makers in their own classroom, has not been adequately discussed. The rationale for this statement comes from this writer's belief that a majority of reform literature discusses teacher programs, teacher skills and teacher behaviors. Very little discussion addresses the disposition of teachers as they engage in the construction of educational reform. The term disposition refers to habits of mind, or characteristic ways of looking at an environment. There is a big difference between having the skill to teach and having the disposition to teach.

Early attempts at looking at the dispositions of classroom teachers by this writer have led to frustration. This frustration has been manifested in a search for new solutions to new problems and has been complicated by an abundance of "blank faces" when questions arise that require critical thinking and decision making. It is as though the

very ones who should make decisions have become deskilled and are no longer able to do so.

Part of the reality of this observation is due directly to the school reform movement itself.

Instead of addressing these issues (emphasis on quantification, lack of control over curriculum, isolation from peers and condescending treatment), many of the reforms taking place at the state level further consolidate administrative structures and prevent teachers from collectively and creatively shaping the conditions under which they work..Within this paradigm, the development of curricula is increasingly left to administrative experts or simply adopted from publishers, with few, if any, contributions from teachers who are expected to implement the new program. In its most ideologically offensive form, this type of prepackaged curriculum is rationalized as teacher-proof and is designed to be applied to any classroom context regardless of the historical, cultural and socio-economic differences that characterize various schools and students. (Giroux and McLaren 1986, 219)

What further complicates this reality is that, even though teachers wish to have more control over the prescriptive nature of their profession (Darling-Hammon 1985, 209), they are not consciously opposed to the technical control imposed upon the process. Michael Apple states:

A crucial fact that is often neglected in the debate over procedure is that "scientific" outlooks have become so ingrained in our consciousness that they have become values (Apple 1975, 123).

Because values form the basis for action and because of the importance of addressing educational questions in a "critical" manner in Oklahoma, it is necessary to know about the dispositions that teachers bring with them into the classroom and use to construct knowledge. These dispositions serve as key elements in the construction of values. These values, then, lead to the determination of a teacher's

knowledge. The prevailing dispositions become extremely important when the teacher's role as the "reformer" and the "reformed" are discussed.

By definition, educational reform should not alter the substance of education. Reform might be an easier process if there was agreement on the "substance" of education. Education, thus, is not a fixed concept but rather a cultural construct. Educational reform, then, becomes a way of organizing educational practices which allow for this construction.

Knowledge-Constitutive Interests

A framework for constructing knowledge of educational practices is provided by the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests proposed by Jurgen Habermas (1972). Habermas proposes this theory as a way of explaining how fundamental human interests influence how knowledge is constituted or constructed. It is from the construction of this knowledge that values are developed, and it is from these values that action is taken. The controlling interests in the construction of knowledge and values serve to influence the actions which are taken. "Interest in general is the pleasure that we connect with the existence of an object or an action" (Habermas 1972, 198). Habermas explains that, fundamentally, what gives pleasure is the presence of conditions which will enable the species to reproduce itself. Grundy discusses the concept of interests by stating:

Interests, in general, are fundamental orientations of the human species and pure interests are fundamental rational orientations. This does not mean just that human beings have a fundamental orientation towards rationality, but rather that the fundamental interest in the preservation of life is rooted in life organized through knowledge as well as action. Put simply, even something as basic as the survival of the human species is not a matter of instinct and random behaviors. It is grounded in knowledge and human action...That is, rationality can be applied in a number of different ways to ensure self-preservation. The manner in which rationality manifests itself will determine what a social group is prepared to distinguish as knowledge. (Grundy 1987, 9)

Habermas has identified three basic cognitive interests: technical, practical, and emancipatory. The technical interest is concerned with the need of the species to survive, reproduce itself and promote aspects of human society which have been deemed as the most important. The technical interest is seen in the empirical-analytical sciences and favors a disposition of control and management of the environment. This control is derived from knowledge which is arrived at through observation. Knowledge then becomes predicted and is justified by the degree to which it can be observed.

The action associated with technical interest is control (Habermas 1971, 91). In general, the technical interest is "a fundamental interest in controlling the environment through rule following action based upon empirically grounded laws" (Grundy 1987, 12).

While the basic disposition of technical interest is control, the disposition of a practical interest is understanding (Habermas 1972, 310). This understanding is not a

technical one but, rather, one which allows for understanding of the environment so that interaction with that environment may occur.

The practical interest is grounded in the fundamental need of the human species to live in and as part of the world, not to be, as it were, in competition with the environment for survival. (Grundy 1987, 13)

The central question of practical interest moves away from what a person can do toward what a person ought to do. This question is addressed by the individual becoming focused on the meaning of each situation then deciding on the "right" action to be taken. Interest in the right action, then, is what Habermas calls the practical interest.

The process of making meaning of actions is best associated with the historical-hermeneutical sciences.

The historical-hermeneutical sciences gain knowledge in a different methodological framework than the empirical-analytical. Here the meaning of the validity of propositions is not constituted in the frame of reference of technical control... Theories are not constructed deductively and experience is not organized with regard to the success of operations. Access to the facts is provided by the understanding of meaning, not observation. The verification of lawlike hypothesis in the empirical-analytic sciences has its counterpart here in the interpretation of texts. (Habermas 1972, 309)

The disposition, then, of the practical interest is in interaction for understanding. This interaction, however, is not objective. Rather, it is grounded in subjective action with the environment. The knowledge constructed from this practical interest is found through the understanding of meaning, not through observation of actions. The practical interest is defined as "a fundamental interest in under-

standing the environment through interaction based upon a consensual interpretation of meaning" (Grundy 1987, 14).

The third fundamental human interest identified by Habermas is the emancipatory interest. Although all of the cognitive interests are fundamental in nature, Habermas explains that these interests can be stimulated by either inclination or by principles of reason. Most people would associate interest with inclination or desire. This position, however, would leave the thought that people are non-rational in nature. Given the premise that people are intrinsically motivated, or at least strive to be, Habermas contends that this rational inclination procures a more fundamental interest than that generated by inclination (Habermas 1972, 198ff).

The emancipatory interest, then, is seen by Habermas as the most fundamental interest. While emancipation is defined by Habermas as "independence from all that is outside the individual," it must also be stated that individual freedom can never be separated from the freedom of others. This individual freedom is derived from self-reflection and is grounded in the critical science theory.

Critical theory explains how coercion and distortion operate to inhibit freedom. This critical thought must take the position of "authentic insight". Each individual or group must believe that certain knowledge is true and also true for them individually.

The disposition of the emancipatory interest is em-

powerment. Through self-reflection individuals are empowered to take control of their lives and move toward autonomy and responsibility. The emancipatory interest is defined as "a fundamental interest in emancipation and empowerment to engage in autonomous action arising out of authentic, critical insights into the social construction of human society" (Grundy 1987, 19).

Focus Of The Study

The theory of knowledge-constitutive interests has great implications for a better understanding of Oklahoma teachers' roles as they engage in the construction of educational reform. It is at this personal level of interaction between individuals, culture and educational reform that the focus of study will be concentrated. Political implications will result from a study of classroom teachers' knowledge-constitutive interests in that a locus of control of political power might become evident in the educational reform process. Cultural implications will be evident as the cultural role of the teacher surfaces during study. Most importantly, however, are the personal implications of the study which will describe the teacher's role as a person engaged in the construction of Oklahoma educational reform.

These implications become extremely important as the state of Oklahoma continues its transition from rural to urban society. It is in this transition that the individual

teacher becomes the predominant focus in the process of educational reform.

Thus the new style of political life found in transitional societies is not confined to the manipulative role of its leaders, mediating between the masses and the elites. Indeed the populist style of political action ends up creating conditions for youth groups and intellectuals to exercise political participation together with the people. Although it is an instance of manipulative paternalism, populism offers the possibility of a critical analysis of the manipulation itself. Within the whole play of contradictions and ambiguities, the emergence of the popular masses in transitional societies prepares the way for the masses to become conscious of their dependent state. (Freire 1970, 465)

It is the pursuit of this consciousness that should guide individual teachers in their involvement in the Oklahoma educational reform process. Oklahoma teachers are "knowing subjects." It is hoped that this study will provide information as to the interests which constitute these teachers' knowledge resulting in the conscientization of Oklahoma teachers. By becoming aware of the cognitive interests which are present in the classroom, and reflecting upon their personal dispositions, teachers can make better curriculum decisions and participate more appropriately in the school reform process.

This writer will engage in the descriptive study of the knowledge-constitutive interests of Oklahoma classroom teachers as they participate in the construction and implementation of Oklahoma school reform.

This descriptive study will begin based upon the theoretical framework presented in this chapter. Chapter II will include a review of the literature on national and

Oklahoma educational reform recommendations since 1980, the roles and views of the teacher associated with these reforms recommendations, and the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests as it applies to teachers engaged in the educational reform process. Following this review of literature, Chapter III will describe the method of the study. Chapter IV will present the description of the results of the study and will focus on the critical analysis of the results as it relates to the teachers' knowledge-constitutive interests in the state of Oklahoma. Chapter V will summarize the study and identify areas for further consideration.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE: EDUCATIONAL REFORM, TEACHERS, AND KNOWLEDGE- CONSTITUTIVE INTERESTS

Introduction

As has been proposed in Chapter I of this study, the construction of Oklahoma school reform and the knowledge-constitutive interests of the teachers engaged in this construction, takes into consideration a great amount of information. Because it is felt by this writer that this process of construction of school reform cannot be viewed in isolation, it becomes necessary to review literature in several areas. The review will focus on the time period beginning in 1980 and continuing through 1989. This chapter will review the school reform proposals made at the national level, review the school reform proposals made in the state of Oklahoma, review the roles and views of the teacher associated with these reform recommendations, and review the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests as it applies to teachers engaged the educational reform process.

National Educational Reform Recommendations

Since the 1983 federal report, "A Nation At Risk", the national educational reform movement has flourished. "A Nation At Risk" called the nation's attention to the opinion that schools had sunk to levels of mediocrity and that the country was threatened (National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983). This report led the way as many other reports by other groups followed suit in proposing changes in the American education system. The Carnegie Forum's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) proposed that the system did not need repairing but rather needed rebuilt to match the drastic change needed in America's economy.

Since these early reports, there has been a sustained drive for excellence in the schools. With all this effort, however, there is still a large gap between the rhetoric of the reports and results from them (Boyer 1989). Kearns (1988) proposed that the first wave of school reform has left only incremental changes in education and has left an outmoded educational structure in place. Gallup polls in 1987 and in 1989 seem to verify that the public has also noted little change, and that not much progress has been made in school reform (National Association of Elementary School Principals 1989). The usual response to these polls at the national level, has consisted of writing more reports.

Table I depicts a chronological order of thirty-seven national reports which give specific recommendations for the

national reform of education (Northwest Regional Education Laboratory 1987). These recommendations have become the focus of the national educational reform movement. While there is disagreement over the merits of the recommendations and even the direction that they are leading (Update 1989), educators at the front of the national reform movement believe the public is less concerned about local control than about national results. They believe that if the nation is at risk, then the nation should respond (Boyer 1989).

It is at this point, that it seems appropriate to review the many recommendations which have come from various national educational reform reports. For purposes of organization and understanding the following sections of review of the national educational reform recommendations will utilize Table I. Each report has been numbered and reform recommendations cited will be followed by the numbers of the reports which include the recommendation. The national reform recommendations can be grouped into the categories of school leadership, teachers, curriculum and instruction, school equity, and school restructuring.

TABLE I
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL REPORTS

Reference Number	Year of Report	Title of Report	Author/Organization
1.	1980	Why Do Some Urban Schools Succeed?	Phi Delta Kappa Study of Exceptional Elementary Schools
2.	1982	The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto	Mortimer Adler
3.	1982	The Reports: Challenge and Opportunity	Ad Hoc Committee on Phi Delta Kappa's Response to Reports on the State of Education.
4.	1983	High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America	Ernest Boyer
5.	1983	Academic Preparation for College: What Students Need to Know and Be Able to Do	The College Board
6.	1983	Educational and Economic Progress Toward a National Education Policy: The Federal Role	The Carnegie Corporation
7.	1983	Action for Excellence: A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Our Nation's Schools	Education Commission of the States

TABLE I (continued)

Reference Number	Year of Report	Title of Report	Author/Organization
8.	1983	A Summary of Major Reports on Education	Education Commission of the States
9.	1983	Educational Reform: A Response From Educational Leaders	Forum of Educational Leaders
10.	1983	Reform of Public Education: A Synopsis of Studies	James Haget
11.	1983	Merit Pay Task Force Report	U.S. House of Representatives Committee on Education and Labor
12.	1983	Almanac of National Reports	National Association of Secondary School Principals
13.	1983	A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform	National Commission on Excellence in Education
14.	1983	Educating Americans for the 21st Century: A Plan of Action for Improving Mathematics, Science and Technology Education for All American Elementary and Secondary Students So That Their Achievement is the Best	National Science Board Commission

TABLE I (continued)

Reference Number	Year of Report	Title of Report	Author/Organization
15.	1983	Making the Grade	Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy
16.	1984	Action in the States	Educational Reform Reports
17.	1984	A Place Called School: Prospects for the Future	John Goodlad
18.	1984	Make Something Happen: Hispanics and Urban High School Reform	National Commission of Secondary Education for Hispanics; Hispanic Policy Development Project
19.	1984	The Educator's Digest of Reform: A Comparison of 16 Recent Proposals for Improving America's Schools	Sara Lake
20.	1984	A Celebration of Teaching: High Schools in the 1980's	TheodoreSizer
21.	1984	Policy Options on Quality Education	Task Force on Education Quality of the National Association of State Boards of Education
22.	1985	Investing in Our Children: Business and the Public Schools	Committee for Economic Development

TABLE I (continued)

Reference Number	Year of Report	Title of Report	Author/Organization
23.	1985	Reconnecting Youth: The Next Stage of Reform	Education Commission of the States
24.	1985	The Great School Debate: Which Way for American Education	Beatrice and Ronald Gross (eds.)
25.	1985	Barriers to Excellence: Our Children at Risk	National Coalition of Advocates for Students
26.	1985	Unlearned Lessons: Current and Past Reforms for School Improvement	Barbara Presseisen
27.	1986	...the best of education: Reforming America's Public Schools in the 1980's	William Chance
28.	1986	Tomorrow's Teachers: A Report of the Holmes Group	The Holmes Group
29.	1986	Educational Reform for Disadvantaged Students: An Emerging Crisis	Henry Levin
30.	1987	Children in Need: Investment Strategies for the Educationally Disadvantaged	Committee for Economic Development
31.	1987	Challenges to Urban Education: Results in the Making	The Council of the Great City Schools

TABLE I (continued)

Reference Number	Year of Report	Title of Report	Author/Organization
32.	1987	The National Forum for Youth at Risk: Participants Handbook	Education Commission of the States/Interstate Migrant Education Council
33.	1987	New Schools for the Disadvantaged	Henry Levin
34.	1987	...And Justice For All: The NEA Executive Committee Study Group Reports on Ethnic Minority Concerns	National Education Association
35.	1987	Making America Work: Bringing Down the Barriers	National Governors Association and Center for Policy Research
36.	1987	Dealing With Dropouts: The Urban Superintendents' Call to Action	Office of Educational Research and Improvement
37.	Not Cited	America's Competitive Challenge-- The Need for a National Response	Business - Higher Education Forum
38.	Not Cited	Improving Our Schools: Thirty-Three Studies That Inform Local Action	Marilyn Clayton Felt

Source: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. "Summary of National Reform Recommendations." Prepared for the Chicago School Reform Project. December 31, 1987.

School Leadership

The national reports consider the principal of the school almost exclusively when reporting on school leadership. The reports generally see the principal as a key person in the implementation of school reform. The primary message in many reports is that principals need to improve their skills (1,7,16,21). Principals can improve these skills by being responsible for improved training. Principals should receive the same core courses as teachers (4), and should attend academies or other pilot programs to learn management skills (16,21). Some reform reports suggest that states should set high standards for training principals (7,16,21) and that principals should confer with one another often (36).

In recruiting principals, women and minorities should be attracted to the profession (19,21), and these recruits should be pursued vigorously by states and local districts (21,25). The salary of principals should be related to their responsibilities and performance (7,21). At the same time school leaders are being paid better, they are also being monitored more closely for higher standards (7,16,21) and that, in general, administrative evaluations need to be improved (11).

Principals should spend more of their time being head teachers in their schools (2) and should be responsible for the instructional programs in the school (7) as well as the budget and teacher selection (4).

Teachers

Boyer (1989), has proposed that teachers should be given more dignity and status and that a program of recognition, recruitment and renewal must be expertly implemented. The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) contends that, in order to bring teachers to the front of the education process, professional entry standards must be raised, and other reform reports add that academic competence and aptitude for teaching should be mandated (7,13,14,21,28). In order to recruit teachers who are masters of knowledge; scholarships, loans, and other university incentives should be offered (4,9,11,21) (Kearns 1988). While standards are being raised, states and local districts must improve teacher recruitment (7,9,11,15,28) especially for minorities (35).

At the same time that national educational reform reports call for raising standards of teachers entering the profession, they also call for teachers themselves to raise their personal expectations of the profession and their students (4). Recognizing that these higher standards might actually decrease the number of teachers available for employment, several reports suggest that certification processes should encourage qualified people from other professions to serve in the schools (4,7,13,14,21).

In addition to raising entrance standards, many reports also address staff development and college training for

teachers. These suggestions begin with proposing that the states update and restructure the teacher training program content of instruction (7,11,27) and that these programs be reviewed in three to five year cycles (21).

The criteria for judging these programs should focus on the performance of the graduates (13).

Several national educational reform reports go into more depth as to the content of teacher training programs. Some reports call for "academic core" learning areas (4,14), while others offer that a liberal arts education is better for teachers, including elementary science and mathematics teachers (2,14). Even more specific recommendations include that all teachers be computer literate (14) and that the top scientific minds should be enlisted as teachers (6,11). Teacher training programs are seen as needing to better address multi-cultural issues in schools. Reports advocate providing more training in this area along with focusing on their unique learning styles (25,31,34).

Inevitably, most educational reform reports must address how all of its recommendations for increased teacher requirements are going to be funded. While specific suggestions vary, it is generally argued that the method of pay and reward systems of teachers should be improved (2,4,6,7,9,11,13,16,21,22,31). Some incentives for teachers have included forming a national master teacher program with salaries up to \$40,000 (15), forming a "teacher excellence fund" for teachers to carry out special projects, and

establishing two-week professional development terms which would include study, travel, and extra pay (4).

While there is some agreement that the teaching profession needs higher compensation, there is, nevertheless, disagreement on how teachers should "earn" the pay. Some reports have argued that merit pay has failed in practice (9) and, that to increase the pool of highly qualified teachers, across-the-board increases should be mandated (9,21). It has been proposed that the average salary should be increased 25 percent over inflation during a three year period (4).

Another viewpoint advanced by some national educational reform reports for teacher compensation centers around the concept that teachers should be rewarded only for excellent performance (11). This viewpoint advocates that salary, promotion, tenure, and re-employment should be tied into evaluation systems that include peer review (4,9,13) and is tied into teacher performance (11). In addition, career ladders should be used to distinguish between instructors, experienced teachers, and master teachers (4,7,9,13,16,17,28). Further, incentives should be given to teachers who are employed to teach in critical areas of need (7,9,13,14).

In concluding the section of national reform reports that deal with teachers, a final area of concern centers around the worklife of the teacher. These items include the proposal that teachers should be treated as professionals, given autonomy and included in decisions that concern them

(36). Mention is also given to the idea that teachers should be less isolated, and efforts should be made to involve them in more integrated interaction with the school environment (17). If the work environment of teachers needs to be improved as proposed by some reports (11,28), then school discipline must be addressed by establishing and implementing drastic conduct codes which are fair, and firm (7,9,11,13,36). The suggestions for the improvement of the teacher's workday also include lengthening the employment year (14), including 20-day summer planning periods (17), and including daily planning periods (4).

Just as the national education reform reports have made recommendations for teachers, they have also had much to say about the content of instruction in the classrooms.

Curriculum and Instruction

The importance of the area of curriculum and instruction in national educational reform has fluctuated during the period of the 1980's. This fluctuation in the level of importance, however, has not affected the number of proposals recommended by various reports. In response to the recent release of the National Governors Association's 1989 report: "Results in Education", Iowa Governor, Terry Bradstad proposed that the changes in American schools will "matter very little if what is being taught and how it is being taught remains unchanged" (Bradstad 1989).

While there appears to be little disagreement that

school curriculum is important in the reform of education, there is great debate over the role of national curriculum reform. There has been a call for a "national literacy" in schools (Hirsch 1988) and a recent push to establish a national agenda for school reform (Boyer 1989).

On the other hand, two-thirds of the teachers believe that a national curriculum is not the answer (Instructor 1987), and that a national focus misses local initiative and professionalism (Noblit 1986).

Most national educational reform reports have not specifically addressed the issue of the location of development of the curriculum. They do, however, make many general recommendations. Many of the reports begin with statements about the expectations schools should have for their curriculum.

Communities and states should have clearly defined skills that the schools are to teach (7,31), and that these skills would be better defined if educational priorities were evaluated (16,22,23). The purpose for these proposals is centered around the desire for education to develop the potential for every student (22). This potential, however, is most commonly reduced to high expectations for students (36) as measured by their movement through an intense and productive academic experience (16,31,37). With an increased amount of time being spent in core subjects (16,21) with higher academic standards (21,31), mastery, not age, should then guide promotion from grade to grade (7,13,21).

The national educational reform reports have not typically ended with mere recommendations for higher standards. They have also outlined specific course content and requirements. With the recent "back to basic" movement, there is a thought by some in the public that schools do not pay enough attention to the teaching of basic skills (Bennett 1988). Most of the emphasis on basic skills has been directed to the curriculum areas of math and science. Many reports have recommended specific lengths of time for study in these areas (4,5,6,9,13,14). Other areas of study, however, have not been omitted from the list of recommendations. The study of English, history, social studies, foreign language and writing are also pointed to as needing mandated study (4,5,13,14,15). Along with this call for traditional curriculum study, comes recommendations that "soft" nonessential courses be eliminated (7,14,17).

Within this context of higher academic expectations and raised graduation requirements (14,16), the idea has emerged that the whole child must be addressed in terms of the school, the family, and the community (30,35). Reform reports call for programs for Hispanic students (18,34), pre-school programs (22), bilingual study (18 25), racial awareness (25,31,34), drug and alcohol programs (31,35), and an increased emphasis on extracurricular activities (16, 30).

It is paradoxical that while national school reform reports call for certain areas of curriculum to be empha-

sized, the end result of this national process is that "everything" is important. This points out the dilemma some educators have with a "back to basics" emphasis. It can be perceived as being "one-tracked" (Roberts 1985) and is repetitious. It also emphasizes narrow skills and isolated facts (National Governors Association 1989).

Even with the existence of this difference of agreement, national educational reform reports continue to "cover all the bases."

Assessment of curriculum has become a highly publicized aspect of educational reform and has centered, primarily, on testing for minimum competency, promotion, graduation, remediation, and state mandated achievement comparisons of schools (7,14,16,21,25,27,35). In all of the emphasis for testing, there exists one report recommendation that proposes more attention be given to the purposes and relevance of student testing (27). This recommendation does not stand alone, however. There is a thought that many tests are working against the very reforms being proposed and do not promote a thinking curriculum (Resnick 1989).

For the curriculum recommendations proposed to be meaningful in practice, further proposals have been made for school instruction. Instructional programs are recommended to increase motivation and achievement (35). This motivation is addressed in a number of proposals. These include giving students and parents choice in program options (35), encouraging a greater variety of teaching styles (2,4,36),

providing flexible schedules for students with special problems (7,30), and providing mentor programs for student role models in business (17,23,35,36).

With the proposal of changes in curriculum and instructional programs, many reform reports go beyond student performance and turn their attention to the concept of educational equity.

Educational Equity

While many national educational reform reports call for improved student performance and raised standards on one hand, many also propose, that for some special populations, programs of remediation, alternative school settings, and work study programs should be offered to students to assist them in meeting school standards (9,21,25,29,36). This call for equity is prompted, in part, by much publicity and national attention given to the literacy rate in America. According to Kearns (1988), there are 700,000 illiterates in the country. These 700,000 are often considered disadvantaged, and some reform reports suggest that goals should be started early for these identified students (29). These same reports call for more interaction with family and community service (Boyer 1989), and communicate the idea that such programs must be accompanied by increased funding tied to accomplishing performance goals (29).

While minorities and/or non-English speaking students may also be considered to be disadvantaged, they are singled

out as often needing supported programs (29,36). These programs are followed by recommendations for proposals to help dropouts have opportunities to complete their education (4,35,36).

Restructure of Schools

The central theme, by definition, behind school reform is change for the improvement of the school. Much of what has been proposed by national educational reform reports cannot take place without a great deal of change. Much of this change can be directed to the structure of schools as an organization. The primary purpose for this restructuring should be the improvement of student performance (Council of Chief State School Officers 1989).

This restructuring should include redefining the purpose and organization of the way schools are staffed, managed, and financed (30). These changes should identify and support academically gifted students (7,21) while at the same time solve the problems of the disadvantaged (23,30). Among the suggestions for accomplishing these diverse objectives are residential academies (4), schools within schools (4,17), non-graded schools (17), summer programs, alternative learning environments (29,36), and magnet schools (16, 36). It is further asserted that if schools cannot respond to reform measures they should be closed (36).

The current cry for school restructuring rests on the premise that the public should be able to choose which

schools their children attend. Two-thirds of those interviewed in a recent Gallup poll indicated that they wished to have more choice of the schools available to them (National Association of Elementary School Principals 1989). The issue of school choice has created a variety of responses from educators. Current Secretary of Education, Lauro Cavazos (1989), has called parental choice the "cornerstone for restructuring schools."

On the other hand, Finch (1989), contends that school choice is not a new idea and that this choice creates an educational system of inequity. Information recently released indicates that several states are considering school choice issues. However, the Iowa School Board Association (1989) reports, that in Iowa, where school choice is an option, only three in one-thousand students have taken steps to change school districts.

In addition to the parental choice issue, site-based school management is seen as a critical element in the restructuring of schools (Boyer 1989). This concept of site-based management is accompanied by a call for greater trust in the initiative of individual schools, teachers, and administrators (2,17,22,36). This trust should be included in the concept of shared decision making in which principals, teachers, parents, students, and other school personnel participate together as a team (30,36).

While a segment of educational reform ideology advocates the expansion of the concepts found within site-based

management theory, other segments continue to promote the idea that national and state involvement are desired in producing appropriate goals. An analysis of the many, and often contradictory, national educational reform reports would cause an educator to wonder about the nature of current national educational goals, or, whether or not, they should even exist.

National Educational Goals

Historians and social scientists have discussed the role of the nation in the educational process. The focus here, then, will not be to argue one side or the other in the debate over local versus national educational involvement as recently discussed at President Bush's national educational summit.

While the call for presidential involvement in education is frequently heard (Boyer 1989), the reasons for these calls are less frequently announced. Many of the publicized reasons for national involvement are reduced to funding issues with the federal government being seen as the solution.

Another, much broader, national ideology of education centers around the concept of schools seen as a foundation of democratic society. This foundation should reject the notion that work is the most important outcome of education and promote the importance of a greater degree of self-understanding for the purpose of self-government (Carnegie

Forum's Task Force on Teaching as a Profession 1986). In this case, knowledge and the process of learning become the primary focuses of the educational process. The success of the educational system, then, depends on the whole society coming to place a higher emphasis on not just schooling, but on learning.

It is argued, however, that the issues of national focus and democratic education are much more than just school and learning issues. "Family stress, social alienation, and cultural dislocation do not exist in a vacuum. We need to look at the economic context of education" (Bastain 1988, 29). Such calls for study have, however, fallen by the wayside in the debate. President Bush (1989) has called for the study to end and the action to begin. This action has recently centered around a consensus that national performance goals are needed for schools (Bush 1989). This consensus, however, has been limited to the notion that there should be national educational goals for the purpose of establishing an educational vision (Mills 1989), and there continues to be debate and disagreement as to the scope and focus of the national educational goals.

Much of the call for national educational goals has resulted because of information that indicates school reform over the past five years has not been perceived as effective by the general public (National School Public Relations Association 1987). Boyer (1989) has also called for a "national agenda for school reform."

These calls for national education goals have resulted in an educational summit conference between state governors and President Bush. This summit produced the following general educational goals. The goals included the readiness to start school, the performance on international achievement tests, the reduction of the dropout rates and improvement of academic performance, the functional literacy of adult Americans, the training level guaranteeing a competitive work force, the supply of qualified teachers and technology, and the establishment of safe, disciplined and drug-free schools (National School Public Relations Association 1989).

It is within this context of national educational reform that educators in the state of Oklahoma currently find themselves. If, as has earlier been proposed, the national reform reports constitute a language for educational reform, then the states function to solidify this language at a more "local" level.

Attention will now be turned to a review of the educational reform recommendations in the state of Oklahoma.

Oklahoma Educational Reform

Recommendations

Educational reform in the state of Oklahoma can be summarized by one common term. That term is legislation. Just as educational issues are identified at the national level, they are also selected and identified at the state

level. This process of issue identification appears, to this writer, to take on the appearance of politics. Most of the state initiated educational reform discussion originates in the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. As a state political officer, the State School Superintendent becomes responsible for providing for the "leadership and direction" of the state's public school system (Folks 1985). In establishing this direction, state reports are provided which single out educational issues for consideration at the state level. These issues, in return, create a state language of educational reform. Some terms gain in popularity while others fade away. As terms of educational reform gain in popularity, their future, or fate, is determined politically by acts of legislation. Indeed, it appears that whether educational change occurs, or not, depends more on legislative debate than on educational debate.

....Improving the educational programs offered by Oklahoma public schools has been an objective of the Oklahoma State Legislature throughout the 1980's. Efforts to improve the educational program in Oklahoma have characteristically been employed within what could be called a "power strategy" of improvement, i.e., a strategy that emanates from the top downusually this strategy takes the form of legislation, court orders, or directives from superordinates. (Floyd and McKeon 1989)

Educational reform then, in the state of Oklahoma can be reviewed by taking a look at educational legislation. A review of educational legislation in Oklahoma will show that much has been changed during the 1980's.

Review of State Educational
Reform Legislation

Recently, the Oklahoma Education Association and the Oklahoma State School Boards Association (1989) prepared a report summarizing the educational legislation during the 1980s. The following review of state educational reform legislation is adapted from that report.

Teacher Education, Certification, and Testing Programs.

In 1980 a program increasing the requirements for teachers was passed in order to better screen education applicants and to provide more field-based experiences for education students while in college. This program was later expanded in 1985. The legislation included testing teachers in the content of their teaching field(s) before awarding a license or standard certification. The teacher testing program has been in effect for all graduates of teacher education programs since February, 1982. After October 1, 1986, any educator applying for a new teaching certificate must pass the appropriate test in order to add the new certificate.

A total of 86 separate tests have been developed and approximately 4000 teachers or prospective teachers are tested each year. The passing rate currently stands at 76 percent.

Entry Year Teacher Assistance Program. Legislation mandated that, beginning with the 1982-83 school year, every beginning teacher would be given guidance and assistance by a committee consisting of a teacher consultant, a school administrator, and an educator from an institution of higher learning.

Staff Development. Beginning in 1980, all teachers and administrators were required to continue professional development beyond initial certification. This has been implemented by requiring local school districts to design a four year staff development plan which is submitted annually to the State Board of Education for approval. These plans are to be developed by local committees comprised mainly of teachers.

Redefinition of Basic Curriculum. The state Department of Education developed a curriculum review model in 1980 which consisted of step-by-step suggestions for five main curriculum review areas. These areas were identified as curriculum philosophy, desired student learner outcomes, program evaluation, identification of specific skills and concepts, and program course descriptions. A statewide curriculum review identified suggested learner outcomes by grade level for basic skill areas. In 1982, the Legislature redefined basic skills as math, reading, science, social studies and language arts. In addition, local boards have been required to annually review the district's curriculum.

Oklahoma School Testing Program. In 1985, a standardized, norm-referenced test was required for all students in grades 3, 7, and 10. In 1989, these tests were expanded to students in grades 5, 9, and 11. In addition to the norm-referenced tests, writing assessments were added for 7th and 10th grades beginning in 1987 and 1988. This was then followed by the addition of a criterion-referenced test requirement for high school graduation in 1993. While most Oklahoma students have performed above the national average on most areas of the test, test scores have been used to prescribe local remedial programs, used in required school improvement plans, and used to publicize performance to the public.

Kindergarten Screening. Initiated in 1985 and fully implemented in 1986, all schools have been required to screen kindergarten students for their ability to do first grade work. This screening is to be done at the local site by local staff or by staff at a Regional Education Service Center.

Class Size Reduction. While the reduction of class size has been included in several pieces of legislation, the original program to reduce class size in grades 1 through 3 to a maximum of 20 students by the 1989-90 school year has been slowed down because of budgetary constraints. In 1989, the Legislature set class size limits for grades 1 through 3 at 21 pupils for the 1990-91 school year. Kindergarten

class size is also to decrease to 22 students by the 1992-93 school year. Local school districts are financially penalized for being above class size limits.

Teacher and Administration Evaluation. During 1985 the State Department of Education developed criteria for effective teaching practices based upon research information. This criteria was then followed by ongoing training workshops for administrators centering on the evaluation of teachers using the criteria.

School Improvement Plans. Since 1986, each local school district has been required to write a plan for school improvement to be implemented over a four year time period. The plan is to be evaluated and updated each year and must address test scores from the testing program and instructional programs in the basic skills.

Gifted and Talented Students. Schools are now required to have programs and policies for serving the 38,000 gifted and talented students in the state of Oklahoma. To accomplish this, additional funding has been allocated in the school funding formula to serve students who excel in creative thinking, visual and performing arts, or specific academic areas.

Oklahoma School of Science and Mathematics. In 1983, the Legislature authorized the development of a school as a full time residential program for high school juniors and

seniors with exceptional ability in math or science. The school will begin accepting students in 1990 and will provide summer institutes as well as enrichment and staff development programs for staff and students of the state.

Voluntary School Consolidation. To encourage school consolidation in Oklahoma, 1989 legislation provided funding incentives for small school districts which consolidate. These funds are to provide assistance in text book supplies, course offerings, and construction costs.

School Performance Indicators. Beginning in 1989, the State Board of Education will develop and publish a set of indicators which will allow for the comparison of school district and school site outcomes. Those indicators will be weighted to take into consideration social and economic factors and must include test scores, dropout rates, class sizes, and percentage of graduates continuing their education or going into employment. Schools performing in the lowest one-fourth of Oklahoma schools on the student testing program will be declared "academically at risk" and will be subject to state level evaluation and intervention.

State School Reform Legislation Conclusion. The legislated educational reform measures presented in the previous sections provide an overview of the educational issues being discussed in the state of Oklahoma. A comparison of these issues and the national educational reform recommendations

proposed by the national school reform reports further reveals the "trickle down" theory of educational reform. While this writer believes that much of Oklahoma's educational legislation can be attributed to ideas outside of Oklahoma education, it must be noted that, at least recently, an attempt has been made by Oklahomans to look at Oklahoma's educational system.

Task Force 2000 was appointed by the Oklahoma Legislature in 1989 to study and make recommendations for the improvement of education in Oklahoma. With the work of the task force completed, the recommendations which have come from it serve a purpose similar to that of "A Nation At Risk". The task force report, "Oklahoma's Public Education: A Blueprint for Excellence" (1989), establishes, through its recommendations, a basis from which discussion can begin on the reform of Oklahoma education.

A Review of Task Force 2000 Recommendations

Because of the comprehensive nature of this educational reform report and the fact that its release has occurred at the time of this study, it is important that the report be reviewed. Task Force 2000 was formed by legislative mandate as a result of a special session of the Oklahoma Legislature called by Governor Henry Bellmon in August, 1989, to address Oklahoma's public school system. The task force was charged with studying the current status of Oklahoma public educa-

tion and bringing forth recommendations for improvement in that system.

Task Force 2000 has stated that the time has come for radical change in Oklahoma education. This change, however, cannot be viewed as the traditional action of mandating changes in the educational process. The focus should shift to results. While specific recommendations are given to direct these results, it is the Task Force 2000 report's intent that local educators, especially teachers, will determine the way in which the results are arrived at and will be held accountable for them. While this is a noble intent, it, nevertheless, can be relegated by legislative action to another set of state mandates.

Table II, beginning on the following page, provides a condensed view of the areas of education which were identified by Task Force 2000 as needing changed and the general recommendations given for initiating that change.

While this table addresses recommendations for action within the report, it is not the writer's intent to ignore the philosophy stated in the report. This philosophy, however, can better be described within content found in subsequent sections and chapters of this writing. What must be pointed out, though, is that the vast majority of literature and action from the Task Force 2000 report deals almost exclusively with the action recommendations and very little with the philosophy of implementation.

TABLE II
 TASK FORCE 2000 EDUCATIONAL REFORM
 RECOMMENDATIONS

Report Topic	Report Recommendation	School Year Initiated
Early Childhood Education	-Required half-day kindergarten attendance	1991-92
	-Required offering of full-day kindergarten	1993-94
	-Required offering of preschool program	1993-94
	-Funding of preschool materials	1993-94
	-All newly hired early childhood teachers must be early childhood specialists	1993-94
Curriculum	-Curriculum Development Committee	1990-91
	-New Health Curriculum	1992-93
	-New curriculum is fully in place	1993-94
	-Tuition funding for concurrent enrollment in college	1990-91
Testing	-Supplemental "customized" testing	1991-92
	-Education of the public about student testing and indicators program	1990-91
	-No pass no play	1992-93
Teacher/ Administrator Evaluation	-Replace teacher tenure with expanded due process	1990-91
	-Allow for teacher dismissal for educational deficiencies	1990-91
	-Establish peer review panels in districts	1990-91
	-Liability protection for peer review panelists	1990-91
	-State Department to train peer review panelists	1990-91
	-Administrator Evaluation Committee established	1990-91
	-Administrator training program	1990-91

TABLE II (Continued)

Report Topic	Report Recommendation	School Year Initiated
Accreditation	-Adoption of new accreditation standards for high schools	1990-91
	-All high schools required to meet new accreditation standards	1994-95
	-Adoption of new accreditation standards for elementary, middle and Jr. High Schools	1990-91
Consolidation/ Reorganization	-Provide additional incentive funds for voluntary consolidation	1990-91
	-Require school board members to have high school diploma or GED	1990-91
	-Expanded school board member training	1990-91
	-Legislative review of statutes related to school boards	1990-91
Class Size	-Redefinition of current class size limits	1990-91
	-New class size ratio	1993-94
Length of Instructional Day/Year	-School year lengthened to 190 days	1990-91
	-Move all extracurricular activities outside of regular school hours	1990-91
Parental Involvement	-Increased use of parent/school contracts	1990-91
	-Require parents to attend one teacher/counselor conference each semester	1990-91
	-Parental role awareness training for teachers	1990-91
	-Establish parent training program	1991-92

TABLE II (Continued)

Report Topic	Report Recommendation	School Year Initiated
Deregulation/ Choice	-Committee on Deregulation established	1990-91
	-Begin deregulation of schools	1991-92
	-Implement an open transfer (choice) plan	1992-93
	-Establish forum through which appeals regarding educational transfers can be heard	1990-91
Technology/ Innovation	-Additional funding provided for technology and innovation	1990-91
	-Upgrading of school administration through computer use	1990-91
Office of Accountability	-Establish Position of Assistant Superintendent for Accountability	1990-91
	-Accountability Oversight Board	1990-91
	-Constitutional amendment to make the State Superintendent appointed	1990-91
Compensation	-\$1500. average pay increase for teachers each year for 4 years	1990-91
	-Committee on incentive pay	1990-91
	-Incentive pay for teachers and administrators	1990-91
	-Additional funding for hiring teacher's assistants each year for 5 years	1990-91
	-Provide tuition money for teachers taking college courses	1990-91
Vocational and Technical Education	-Apply "core" curriculum to vocational students	1993-94
	-Provide students with "hands on" career exploration activities	1991-92
	-Teacher training program on new technologies	1990-91

TABLE II (Continued)

Report Topic	Report Recommendation	School Year Initiated
Teacher Training	-Review of current teacher training practices	1990-91
	-Program to encourage minorities to become teachers and administrators	1990-91
	-Financial assistance for prospective teachers	1990-91
Other Issues	-Abolish corporal punishment	1990-91
	-Renew efforts to help dropouts	1990-91
	-Reporting requirements on home schools	1990-91
	-Reduce maximum attendance age from 18 to 16	1990-91
	-Increase number of professional personnel in schools	1990-91
	-Encourage innovative educational strategies	1990-91
	-Develop alternative certification program	1990-91
Educational Service Areas	-Development of regional educational delivery system plan	1990-91
	-Implementation of regional educational service area plan	1992-93
Unfunded Mandates	-Provide funding for unfunded mandates	1990-91
	-Legislation to prohibit enactment of education mandates without funding	1990-91
Funding Equity	-Distribute school land monies through the formula	1990-01
	-Distribute Public Service monies through the formula	1990-91
	-Direct gross production revenues through the formula	1990-91
	-Direct all other state revenues through the formula	1990-91
	-Distribute textbook monies through the formula	1990-91
	-Abolish "hold harmless" funding	1990-91
	-Distribute all excess and ad valorem revenue through the formula	1990-91
	-Transfer fee for capital costs	1990-91

TABLE II (Continued)

Report Topic	Report Recommendation	School Year Initiated
	-Increase economically disadvantaged student weight/formula	1990-91
	-Implement isolation factor in school funding formula	1990-91
	-Delete small school weight in formula	1990-91
	-Review current formula weights relative to special education	1990-91
Other Funding	-Spend \$50 million from rainy day fund on textbooks, supplies and instructional equipments	1990-91
	-Spend \$20 million from rainy day fund for ad valorem reform	1990-91
	-Complete implementation of computer appraisal system	1992-93
	-Make provisions for special students that are placed in schools	1990-91
	-Repeal personal household property tax	1990-91
Capital Needs	-State bond issue of \$200 million to assist with school capital needs	1990-91
	-Constitutional amendment to allow 50% majority in school bond elections	1990-91

Source: Task Force 2000. "Oklahoma's Public Education: A Blueprint for Excellence." November, 1989.

National educational reform recommendations, in general, and state educational reform recommendations specifically, have great impact on teachers and teacher's work. The study will now turn its attention to the classroom teacher and the views of the teacher on educational reform recommendations and the reform process.

Teachers' Views on Educational Reform Recommendations

There seems to be a discrepancy between what the role of the teacher should be in educational reform and the role the teacher actually takes in the educational reform process. On one hand, the teacher is seen as the predominant factor and key individual in the educational reform process (Boyer 1987). On the other hand, the most highly qualified teachers are more dissatisfied with their work because of a lack of administrative support, more bureaucratic interference in their work, and the lack of autonomy in their work (Darling-Hammond 1984, 13).

Both of these factors pose special points of interest for study. This paradoxical situation will be reviewed through the literature in this section. The example cited above by Boyer is seen in other educational reform reports. Particularly, the Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986) has stressed that the role of the teacher in the process of improving education becomes more important, not less important. Along with this call for more

emphasis on the importance of the classroom teacher, there also exists a feeling that the individual school should be more involved in the educational reform process (Wise 1988). Regardless of these views, the literature indicates most educational reform discussion has been initiated at the state and national level. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1988) has stated that true excellence occurs when reform reaches the classroom level but is surprised to find that teachers only give the national school reform movement a grade of "C".

The reason for the Carnegie Foundation's surprise is because their research had shown great support from teachers for reform ideas (1988). This writer is not nearly as surprised to find that teachers would support dialogue at the national and state level, yet be less supportive of its effect in the classroom. This information, however, does point out a contradiction which would be surprising for the general examiner. How can teachers indicate agreement with the same items of reform which they say are not effective? A closer look at this dilemma will begin with educational reform issues which teachers support.

A nationwide teacher opinion poll done by the National Education Association (1979) found that teachers generally felt that basic skills were being taught and that a student's lack of performance was due primarily to an absence of home support. These teachers felt that the number of students in classes needed to be decreased, there needed to

be stricter discipline rules and attendance requirements, parents needed training in assisting students at home, and there needed to be higher standards in student performance. While the teachers in this study thought student performance was important, they considered standardized testing as having no effect on teaching if they were eliminated from schools. The teachers felt that scores become an "end" in themselves.

Despite this, a Carnegie survey in 1988 states that student testing has become one of the most remarkable outcomes of the reform movement. In this study, "Report Card on School Reform: The Teachers Speak" (1988), it is reported that sixty-three percent of the teachers indicated that their student testing has increased because of state and district regulations.

This Carnegie report seems to justify the concept that as reform proposals are identified nationally they are also given attention at local schools. The Carnegie Foundation (1983) has called for clearly established school goals and now reports that more than three-quarters of the teachers surveyed said goals at their school were better defined than before. The same number also said that student expectations were higher.

Two-thirds of the teachers in the survey were of the opinion that student achievement had gone up in core subjects, while at the same time increasing core requirements in sixty percent of the schools. While these numbers would

appear to be positive, they must be balanced by the fact that they have occurred as a result of outside control and have resulted in sixty percent of the surveyed teachers stating that "red tape" and state regulation has increased.

Despite seemingly positive reports about national reform measures, another survey of 22,000 public school teachers done by the Carnegie Foundation does not report teacher satisfaction with reform proposals. "The Condition of Teaching; A State by State Analysis" (1988), reports that teachers are frustrated by their "powerlessness" in teaching and most teachers are not asked to participate in major school decisions such as teacher evaluation, staff development, school budget, and student promotion.

Even though many teachers welcome the development of new curriculum, they also hope that the opportunity will allow the use of creativity and judgment (Instructor Curriculum Poll 1987). These wishes of teachers for more judgment opportunities are often ignored and are substituted with more state regulation (Goldberg 1987, 373). While the cry is sounded by reformers for teacher empowerment (Bicouraris 1989), (Boyer 1988), teachers are paying the price for school reform with less freedom (Carnegie Forum's Task Force 1986). Could it be, then, that the real issue in school reform has less to do with regulation and more to do with the way a teacher thinks about himself as a professional (Boyer 1987)?

Perhaps, then, the educational reform movement has

concentrated on items that actually make less difference in the education of students. This same thought may help to explain why the school reform movement of the early 1980's is the same reform movement of 1989. This "top-down" approach to educational reform serves to not necessarily make schools more interesting places or help to change schools in a positive way. They, instead, promote the continuation of trends that have already had a number of negative effects on schools and teachers (Apple 1987).

While the number of educational reform recommendations has steadily increased over the decade of the 1980's, including the desire for more teacher autonomy and empowerment, a question remains. What is the teacher currently feeling and thinking? It is, at least, conceivable that the secret to educational reform lies more in teacher disposition than in regulation.

The next section will explore the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests as it relates to teachers engaged in the process of educational reform.

Teachers and The Theory of Knowledge-

Constitutive Interests

The intent in this section will not be to review the theory of knowledge-constitutive interests as developed by Habermas (1971) in its entirety but rather to use the literature as a guide in relating how the theory can enter into the dilemma facing teachers as they engage in the education-

al reform process. While Habermas has much to say about the nature of knowledge, Shirley Grundy has much to say about how the Habermas theory emerges in the actions of teachers. Much of this section will focus on the work of Grundy as written in Curriculum: Product or Praxis (1987), and at its conclusion should provide the reader with a broader understanding of the issues facing teachers as they engage in educational reform.

Knowledge

As teachers proceed in the educational reform process, it is almost as if there is little debate over the concept of knowledge. However, upon closer examination, there appears to be a general lack of agreement over just what knowledge is. On the other hand, perhaps the definition of knowledge is not what is at issue, but, rather, the way an individual perceives knowledge.

In its narrowest sense, knowledge is merely a "body of facts, etc. accumulated by mankind: (Garlink 1984). Even in this definition the public's emphasis seems to be on the "facts". The "etc." seems to get lost in interpretations. Further examination of the word "knowledge" reveals that it occurs through a process. The act of knowing requires understanding and the amount of knowledge would be influenced by the amount of understanding. Grundy (1978, 8) relates that there is a view that knowledge exists in isolation and is left to be discovered. This view of knowledge

is predominant in the educational reform recommendations at both the national and the state level. Indeed, examination of the educational reform recommendations previously presented in this chapter will show an emphasis on information and regulation. This emphasis does not change information, but it does have a tremendous effect on teachers.

.....The result is that many of the educational reforms appear to reduce teachers to the status of low-level employees or civil servants whose main function is to implement reforms decided by experts in the upper levels of state and educational bureaucracies. Furthermore, such reforms embrace technological solutions that undermine the historical and cultural specificity of school life...(Aronowitz and Giroux 1985, 23)

Indeed, this has not been a recent development. Henry W. Holmes, Dean of Harvard University's Graduate School of Education, criticized a 1930 National Survey of The Education of Teachers as proposing that teachers were "routine workers under expert direction" and that the report failed to support teachers as critical thinkers (Counts 1976, 4).

The focus on the specific information and technical aspects of educational practice and reform have led, then, to a way in which knowledge is perceived by teachers. Schelling (1958, 299) proposed that a rush from the theoretical to the practical resulted in a shallowness of action and knowledge. This thought was based upon the premise that if the action were guided by the desired product and not the idea behind the action, the true amount of action is diminished. It is in this context that Habermas contends "the only knowledge that can truly orient action is knowledge that frees itself from mere human interests and is based on

ideas - in other words, knowledge that has taken a theoretical attitude" (Habermas 1972, 301).

While knowledge-constitutive interests were reviewed in Chapter I, there become some related issues and concepts which should be expanded here.

Knowledge-Constitutive Interest

Interest has previously been described as the pleasure that is connected with an action (Habermas 1972, 198). Yet, the manner in which the interest is arrived at will determine what develops as rational knowledge (Grundy 1987, 9).

The technical, practical, and emancipatory interests identified by Habermas and discussed in Chapter I are obvious when the actions of teachers are looked at. This section will continue by examining, in more detail, the technical, practical, and emancipatory interests which serve to constitute a teacher's knowledge and are evident in a teacher's actions.

Technical Interest. Evidence of the technical interest in the knowledge of teachers engaged in educational reform is found primarily in the logical-positivist way in which questions are looked at and at which teacher actions are aimed. Current school reform and research reports are dominated by positivism concerned with empirical results and the ability to generalize behavior to the school population. The volumes of recommendations reviewed in the current

reform reports emphasize standardized testing, more course requirements, and student and teacher competencies. These are all outcomes of the technical language of positivism and focus on the end product. When the technical interest is emphasized or is predominant, the resulting action is determined by the skill of the teacher.

Grundy (1987, 22-23) has used Aristotle's work, "Nicomachean Ethics", to look at the question of human action and the dispositions which influence that action. The action to be made (poietke) is influenced by the skill (techne), of the practitioner and the guiding idea (eidos) of the action. When the action (poietke) is informed by technical interest (techne) the product of the action takes on the skill. In other words, when teaching is informed by the skill of the teacher, the product (education) takes on the appearance of the things done by the teacher. If the skills which have been emphasized are testing, knowing facts, managing records, and the like, these will also be the products of education. Through this approach, teachers become "de-skilled in decision making and re-skilled as educational managers" (Grundy 1987, 32-33). This re-skilling intensifies the "control" aspect of the technical interest and, over time, establishes a shift in the role of the teacher.

The rash of reform proposals for reorganizing schools points to a definition of teacher work that seriously exacerbates conditions which are presently eroding the authority and intellectual integrity of teachers... (Giroux and MacLaren 1986, 218)

As this intellectual integrity is eroded, teaching pedagogy is reduced to enactment of text book lesson plans, and teaching is further reduced to work for clerical technicians (Aronowite and Giroux 1985, 24). This "production" model of education becomes what Apple (1979) calls a "mechanistic portrayal of the social function of schooling". What is seen as a product oriented process actually becomes a reproductive process and allows no room for change or improvement in education (Green 1986). It would seem that the technical interest involved in educational reform would, in fact, prevent the very thing it was designed to do; improve education. If a teacher were to address this apparent contradiction he/she would have to include the presence of another knowledge-constitutive interest. That interest would be the practical interest.

Practical Interest. From an earlier section it has been established that practical interest is concerned with making judgment by the person taking action through understanding of the meaning of a situation (Grundy 1987, 57). This process of making meaning through interpretation and deciding about action is grounded in hermeneutical interpretation. It is critical in making practical decisions to know both the meaning of the rules and the situation in which they are to be applied (Grundy 1987, 59). While technical interest is primarily concerned with skill, practical interest is concerned with judgment through under-

standing. The judgment here, does not, however, connote simple yes or no answers. It also does not represent a set of rules or norms that are true for every instance. Gadamer (1979) has likened judgment to taste.

[Taste] cannot be separated from the concrete situation on which it operates and cannot be reduced to rules and concepts... It constitutes a special way of knowing. It belongs in the area of reflective judgment.... Both taste and judgment are evaluations of the object in relation to the whole to see if it fits with everything else, whether, then, it is "fitting". (Gadamer 1979, 36)

The combination of knowledge with judgment creates "strategic" actions (Habermas 1971) and reflects "good actions" rather than "correct actions". These actions, then, are characterized by choice and deliberation since "right cannot be fully determined independently of the situation" (Grundy 1987, 63).

What further complicates the practical interest is that the results of its actions can never be completely known in advance. Practical action is a risk, and it becomes even more of a risk in education because it deals with action among people, not objects.

Practical interest, then, has a very definite role to play in the current school reform movement. It must be played, however, by the right people. The teachers are the individuals who must be first in asking the questions which promote deliberation. It is through asking these questions that teachers can begin to change the nature of their work and improve education. If deliberation does not take place, Apple (1986, 212) contends that "technique wins out over

substance, and education is turned into nearly a parody of itself."

Even when deliberation occurs, it must result in personal meaning for the teacher and result in the personal good of the participants in the action (Grundy 1987, 65).

What might the influence of the practical interest of knowledge be on educational reform? It would surely shift the focus from regulation to understanding of educational goals. A teacher who is influenced by practical interest will reject the notion of right answers for the sake of right answers, and will adopt such a program only if meaning of the content can be made personally. Teacher or student empowerment and critical thinking are a myth if they are accompanied by mandates from the outside.

While the practical interest is in opposition to the technical interest, the practical must be developed to a point beyond that of thinking and understanding. It is at this point that emancipatory interest can result.

Emancipatory Interest. While technical interest promotes a pre-conceived method of educational delivery, the practical interest encourages development from the educational situation in an interactive manner. Emancipatory interest at work not only points out constraints and inequities, it strives to overcome them (Schubert 1986, 314). For this emancipatory action to occur, there must be a "transformation in the way in which one perceives and acts

in the world" (Grundy 1987, 99). The action which results from this transformation and becomes a critical pedagogy is praxis. This form of pedagogy places the control of knowledge with the group that is applying the knowledge (Grundy 1987, 104).

Praxis is not a linear action in which practical interest determines emancipatory interest. It is, rather, an interest which builds from interaction. Paulo Freire's work proposes several concepts which help explain the concept of praxis and emancipatory interest. Freire claims that men's activity consists of action and reflection. This action is found through interaction in the "constructed world" and is not absolute (Grundy 1987, 105).

A key element in emancipatory interest is speech and the concept of dialogue.

As we attempt to analyze dialogue as a human phenomenon, we discover something which is the essence of dialogue itself: the word. But the word is more than just an instrument which makes dialogue possible...there is no true word that is not at the same time a praxis. Thus to speak a true word is to transform the world...Human existence cannot be silent, nor can it be nourished by false words, but only by true words, with which men transform the world. (Freire 1972, 60-61)

The words that Freire speaks of must, however, be delivered to those with problems. This is not done just to communicate, but to move to action. What is most important to note is that a lack of action causes frustration and ultimately can lead to self-destruction.

The emancipatory knowledge-constitutive interest looms, in many instances, as an unknown idea in the minds of teach-

ers. It is almost as if the concept of emancipation does not exist in the political and social works of education, yet, as Shankara, a ninth century Hindu philosopher said; "knowledge alone effects emancipation. As a fire is indispensable to cooking, So knowledge is essential to deliverance."

The unknown nature of emancipatory interest is not by accident, but rather, a result of hegemony.

.....hegemony acts to "saturate" our very consciousness, so that the educational, economic and social world we see and interact with, and the common sense interpretations we put on it, becomes the world "tout court", the only world. Hence hegemony refers not to congeries of meaning that reside at the abstract level somewhere at the "roof of our brain". Rather it refers to an organized assemblage of meanings and practices, the central effective and dominant system of meanings, values and actions which are "lived". (Apple 1979, 5)

The conflict between the emancipatory interest and hegemony at work in the schools may or may not be known. Enlightenment through dialogue, then, becomes an important first step. However, emancipation does not come from enlightenment. It comes through individual, autonomous action (Grundy 1987, 113). The review of literature in this chapter has come the full circle from information to a call for action.

Conclusion

Teachers find themselves in a hegemonic institution called school. Their knowledge of the school "culture" is constituted by technical, practical and emancipatory interests.

The technical interest is represented by the educational reform recommendations so widely proposed and documented. The practical interest is manifested in the struggle of teachers to understand educational reform and to act on that understanding, while the emancipatory interest fluctuates from the unknown to the imaginary.

The actual relationship of these interests to each other has been well developed in the literature, and references in the previous sections can serve as a beginning for further study. The actual relationships and existence of these knowledge-constitutive interests in the lives of teachers has not been as frequently studied. If true educational reform is to happen, it must proceed at the level of the individual. The study of teachers and knowledge-constitutive interests must occur to begin a process of enlightenment culminating in critical praxis.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Earlier, in Chapter I, a relationship between culture and educational reform was presented. This presentation centered around the concept that educational reform was a direct reflection of culture in general. It has been further asserted that culture represents the total knowledge people use to interpret their experiences and generate personal action (Spradley 1980, 6). The meaning of this knowledge, as personally derived, becomes a critical element in the individual's behavior. Symbolic interaction, a theory that attempts to explain individual behavior in terms of the meanings of knowledge, proposes that:

...human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them, that meaning of such things is derived from, or arise out of, the social interaction that one has with one's fellow, and that meanings are handled in, and modified through, an interpretive process used by the person dealing with the things he encounters. (Blumer 1969, 2)

To study, then, the knowledge-constitutive interests of teachers in the classroom as they engage in the construction of Oklahoma educational reform, the meaning of the teachers'

knowledge of educational reform must be described and interpreted.

The meaning of a teacher's knowledge, as related to Oklahoma educational reform, could be studied in two ways. One way would be to observe teachers' actions resulting from this knowledge. The other way would be to listen to what teachers have to say about Oklahoma educational reform. It has been proposed that "language is the primary means for transmitting culture from one generation to the next, much of any culture is encoded in linguistic form" (Spradley 1983, 7).

In order to describe the knowledge-constitutive interests of teachers as they engage in the construction of Oklahoma educational reform, an attempt to derive meaning that teachers give to the educational reform movement has been initiated through the use of a semi-structured interview process. The goal, then, of this process of study is to describe the knowledge-constitutive interest of Oklahoma classroom teachers through the interpretive understanding of dialogue.

This method of study has emanated from the belief that cultural/educational study is the product of human minds and is therefore connected to our minds including the subjectivity, emotions, and values. The result of this type of study, then, must be descriptive as opposed to predictive in nature (Smith 1983, 7).

Instrumentation

To describe the knowledge-constitutive interests of Oklahoma classroom teachers, dialogue with those teachers must be initiated. The instrument chosen to initiate this dialogue was a semi-structured interview. In this study, a semi-structured interview is one in which there are identified questions which are asked of each teacher, but the questions, or comments, of either person are not limited to the identified questions. While these questions are asked in a standard sequence, other questions or comments may be inserted at any time by the teacher or the interviewer. This freedom of questioning and responding allows both parties to clarify meaning and develop understanding of that which is being said. Schwab (1970) refers to this process as "reciprocity through deliberation."

The combination of the structured questions along with the opportunity for free exchange of dialogue is what makes this interview process semi-structured.

In developing the interview's structured questions, much reflection was given to the type of questions that should be asked of all teachers. Effort was made to structure the content of the questions so as not to lead the teacher to any particular conclusion. Thus, the questions were generated in an attempt to begin the dialogue in each question from the teacher's point of view. The focus of knowledge, then, was from within the teacher and not, as

much, from the question asked. The initial interview questions are found listed in sequence on the next page in Table III.

Because of the importance of the structured questions, two pilot study interviews were conducted. The results of these interviews prompted the interviewer to re-arrange both the way the questions were stated and the order in which they were asked. This was made necessary because of requests by the teachers to restate the question or clarify the question's meaning. Since there was a reluctance to establish prior interviewer meaning to the questions by design, the questions were re-organized to maximize the teacher as the initiator of personal meaning and dialogue. The results of this re-organization generated the structured questions in the interview. These questions are found listed in Table IV.

TABLE III
INITIAL QUESTIONS OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Sequence of Question	Interview Question
1	What is the purpose of education?
2	What does educational reform mean to you?
3	What reform practices have you implemented in your classroom that were suggested by someone else?
4	Why were these changes needed?
5	What changes have you personally made in your classroom?
6	Why were these changes made?
7	Describe any roles you have played in educational reform decisions at the local, state, or national level.
8	What role do you feel you should play in constructing educational reform?
9	What have you done in your classroom when asked to implement a new reform measure?
10	If you could make any changes in your classroom you wished, what would they be?
11	Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it is.
12	Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it should be.
13	If there is a difference between the education process as it is and the way it should be, explain what you are doing to change the process.

TABLE IV
FINAL QUESTIONS OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Sequence of Question	Interview Question
1	What is the purpose of education?
2	Much has recently been said about school reform. What does the term, educational reform, mean to you?
3	How do you decide what things to do, or to teach, in your classroom?
4	What factors influence whether or not you make a change of some kind in your classroom?
5	Describe any roles you have played in educational reform decisions at the local, state, or national level.
6	What roles do you feel you should play in the construction of educational reform in Oklahoma?
7	What have you done in your classroom when asked to implement a new reform measure?
8	If you could make any changes in education you wished, what would they be?
9	Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it is.
10	Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it should be.
11	If there is a difference between the education process as it is and the way it should be, explain what you are doing to change the process.

Selection Of Subjects

The subjects of the study were drawn from the population of Oklahoma classroom teachers in Tulsa County. In selecting the sample, several factors were considered.

It was, and is, not the intention of the study to generalize any findings or to, necessarily, generalize meaning to other populations as a result of the study. The descriptive nature of the study, then, relates only to that population which was selected.

Another factor considered was the availability of a large concentration of diverse teachers within a manageable physical distance from the interviewer.

A factor which had influence on narrowing the scope of the population was the size of the sample to be selected for study. The pilot interviews provided information in this regard. Each interview, when completed, consisted of eleven to sixteen pages of information from which description was to take place. The magnitude of quantity and the desire to adequately manage the dialogue focused the study sample at twenty (20) teachers.

The final determination was made that the study sample would be comprised of twenty (20) regular subject, elementary and secondary, classroom teachers from Tulsa County, Oklahoma, employed during the 1989-90 school year.

The twenty (20) teachers to be interviewed were selected randomly from each independent and dependent school

district in the county. The number selected from each district was determined by the number of teachers employed in the district as a percentage of the total number of teachers employed in Tulsa County. This percentage was then multiplied by twenty (20) to arrive at the number of teachers selected from that district. Table V, on the following page, shows a breakdown of the teacher sample numbers per district. Because of the small percentages involved in small school districts, certain districts were grouped together for the purpose of sample selection.

As the number of teachers from each district was selected, a directory list of teachers from each district was obtained. Working with one district at a time, the directory pages were randomly assigned numbers by random drawing. The teacher's names on each page were also assigned a number by random drawing. The numbers available for random assignment were determined individually for each page based upon the total number of teachers on the page. A table of random numbers (Kerlinger 1973, 712) was then used to select a directory page and an appropriate teacher from the selected directory page. This process was repeated for each district until the sample was selected. Because some school districts were small and did not have a staff large enough to be represented exclusively, these districts were grouped appropriately and treated as one district in the selection process. This grouping is shown in Table V.

TABLE V
COMPOSITION OF STUDY SAMPLE BY SCHOOL DISTRICT

School District	Total Teachers	Percentage Of County Teachers	Number of Teachers In Sample
Tulsa	2,105	.41	8
Broken Arrow	766	.15	3
Union	517	.10	2
Jenks	427	.08	2
Sand Springs	351	.07	1
Owasso	267	.05	1
Bixby	142	.03	1*
Collinsville	108	.02	0*
Glenpool	100	.02	0**
Skiatook	97	.02	0**
Sperry	50	.01	1**
Liberty	44	.009	0***
Berryhill	40	.008	1***
Leonard	30	.006	0***
Keystone	25	.005	0***
Mingo	16	.003	0***
<hr/>			
Totals			
16	5,085	99.1	20

* These districts were grouped together for purposes of selection of teachers. The number of *'s indicate which districts were grouped together.

Source:
Oklahoma Educational Directory, Oklahoma Department of Education, 1988-89.

Historical Factors At Implementation

As with any social phenomena, educational reform and a teacher's knowledge of it does not occur in isolation. There are several factors which are continuously at work. These factors are cumulative in nature and serve to influence the educational reform process. It is important to present these historical and situational factors in an effort to assist the reader in understanding the context of the descriptions offered by teachers.

A primary factor of importance which, no doubt, has a large influence on the interests of educational reform lies in the political area. At the time the study was implemented the Oklahoma State Legislature had concluded a special session of the legislature called by the Governor for the sole purpose of dealing with public school funding. During this special session in August of 1989, the legislature faced its challenge by calling for a task force to study education in the State of Oklahoma and to bring forth a recommendation to the legislature. This act resulted in the formulation of Task Force 2000 and temporarily delayed action to increase the state and local funding of public education. This special session began with optimism by professional educators and was seen as a step in the right direction. Opposition was soon to emerge, however, because the issue of increased school funding, very quickly, became an issue of taxation and property tax reform. The appoint-

ment of Task Force 2000 seemed to quiet the issue, at least temporarily. The task force was comprised of both educators and leading business leaders in the state.

As the task force began its work there was much discussion and input received from educators on educational issues which needed to be addressed, but very little input from the public on the taxation issues. Some on the task force became concerned during open hearings that the discussions were dominated by educators (Harman 1989). This process, then, seemed to present an unclear image to teachers. Education was to be studied and reformed, but those knowing most about the subject were those that were criticized for speaking out. It was during the formulation of the Task Force 2000 report that the emphasis on a shortage of school funding shifted to a call for school reform. The task force, however, did not lose sight of the problem at hand and in addition to making educational reform recommendations also made significant taxation recommendations.

The Task Force 2000 report was released in November, 1989 and was well received by most in the education profession. It was less enthusiastically received by the legislature because it called for increased taxation and tax reform in addition to school reform.

The state legislature again convened in December to take legislative action on the Task Force 2000 proposals. The work done was once again subject to the political process. The interviewing process was completed as the Task

Force 2000 proposal was presented to the legislature.

During the period of study another factor which might have influenced the teachers' interests in educational reform was the media. Because the study sample was conducted in Tulsa County, most of the media coverage was generated from a local source. This fact provided, at least, for similar information being presented to the sample from the media. This is not to say that all subjects received the same information from the media, but just that all subjects were exposed to media from the same source.

While the political process and the media have been singled out as historical factors influencing the interests in educational reform, it must be restated, here, that this writer's opinion is that study cannot be isolated to specific historical factors but, rather, is influenced by the totality of culture. In this regard, knowledge-constitutive interests of teachers while engaged in the construction of educational reform are influenced by all that is perceived. As an example, few would argue that the political process as outlined above does not represent a direct influence on the process of educational reform. That process, however, can be perceived by teachers in many ways. This perception is influenced by the teacher's knowledge of other factors such as the past actions of the Oklahoma legislature, the teacher's personal financial position, the number of years the teacher has worked in Oklahoma, or even the geographical areas in which the teacher has lived.

The purpose of this section, then, has been to call the reader's attention to the present political process and resulting media coverage present at the time of study. This should assist the reader in better understanding of the descriptions offered by this study.

Procedure

After completing the random sample selection process, two pilot interviews were conducted for the purpose of refining the interviewing instrumentation. This process of developing the instrument used during the interview has been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Each of the twenty (20) teachers selected were contacted by phone. It was explained that a study was being conducted on school reform, and that they had been randomly selected to share their ideas and views with the interviewer during an interview which consisted of some universal questions but allowed for other questions or comments by either participant. The teacher was told that the purpose of the interview questions were to provide a basis for dialogue to develop on educational reform. The teacher was read the two questions dealing with metaphors, (Table IV, number 9 and 10), but no other questions were revealed.

After the brief description of the study was presented, the teacher was asked if they wished to participate, and upon agreement, a time for the personal interview was arranged.

Each interview began formally with a statement describing the intent of the interview.

I am very excited that you are sharing your time and ideas about educational reform with me. I am not looking for any "answers" to my questions but have rather listed some questions to help guide our dialogue. I am really interested in what you have to say and do not want to miss a word or thought. I would ask your permission to record our discussion. The thoughts you share with me and your identity will remain confidential, and I will be pleased to share the study with you upon its completion, at your request. Do you have any ideas before we begin?

The opening statement was then followed by the first question. Each question was asked in sequential order, however, other questions or comments were added between standard questions to facilitate dialogue and to promote reciprocity.

Each interview was taped and was transcribed to print. For purposes of organization of information, each question was transcribed individually for each interview. This type of organization allowed for questions to be looked at both in terms of the interests of the individual teacher and in terms of the interests of teaching as a profession.

Each transcript was studied and specific language and/or language themes were identified which were interpreted by the writer to be influenced by technical, practical, and emancipatory knowledge-constitutive interests of the teacher. Chapter IV will provide a more detailed account of this process of description.

Limitations Of The Study

Much care should be taken by the reader in responding to this study of knowledge constitutive interests. Because the study is descriptive in nature, the reader must be aware from the beginning that generalization is not attempted nor desired. What is desired, is for the reader to use the information in the study in a way which will promote expansion of knowledge for each reader in whatever area that becomes relevant.

This is a difficult disposition to maintain for a reader who has been accustomed to the quantitative research which occupies much print space. The limitation here is that the nature of the research, or its intent, can be understood in a manner not intended by the writer. This limitation is brought about by the disposition of the reader as they experience descriptive and qualitative research.

There could be limitation of the study as to the scope of the study sample in the mind of the reader. Again, this is a self-imposed limitation in the mind of the reader, and in some cases, the writer. There is a desire to be as thorough and complete as possible when describing culture. Therefore, a narrow sample scope must be looked upon as a beginning of study which will hopefully lead others to look at themselves, and others, in an effort to collectively recognize the aspects of the culture being described. In reality, it is through individual consensus that the "big

picture" is described. This is in direct opposition to the notion that one study can be so all-encompassing as to describe that which exists in its entirety and that it is "true" for all.

Summary

This chapter has provided the reader with a description of the methodology of study used to describe the knowledge-constitutive interests of classroom teachers as they engage in the construction of Oklahoma educational reform. It is hoped that the semi-structured interview process and its subsequent description in the next chapter will provide the reader with a cognitive conflict which will serve as a basis for the expansion of individual knowledge of the reader.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF
TEACHER INTERVIEWS

Introduction

The sample of teachers selected and the subsequent interview with each teacher proceeded without negative incident. Each teacher contacted agreed to participate in the interview with the exception of two. One teacher, an elementary level instructor, declined, stating that she did not "know enough" to participate. The second teacher, a secondary instructor, indicated she was "too busy" to schedule the interview. These incidents did not create problems in completing the selection process.

Table VI indicates the make up of the sample of teachers interviewed and is offered on the next page as demographic information.

An interview conducted during the study has been transcribed and is included in the appendix as an example.

It was proposed at the end of Chapter III that it was hoped the following sections of this chapter would create a cognitive conflict within the reader. Such a desire by the

TABLE VI

STUDY SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS

Teacher Interview	School District	Gender	Grade Level	Years Experience
1	Tulsa	Female	Elementary	6
2	Tulsa	Female	Elementary	3
3	Tulsa	Female	Secondary	12
4	Tulsa	Male	Secondary	5
5	Tulsa	Female	Elementary	21
6	Tulsa	Female	Elementary	2
7	Tulsa	Female	Secondary	6
8	Tulsa	Female	Elementary	10
9	Broken Arrow	Female	Secondary	4
10	Broken Arrow	Male	Secondary	7
11	Broken Arrow	Female	Elementary	17
12	Union	Female	Elementary	3
13	Union	Female	Elementary	9

TABLE VI (Continued)

Teacher Interview	School District	Gender	Grade Level	Years Experience
14	Jenks	Male	Elementary	4
15	Jenks	Female	Elementary	14
16	Sand Springs	Female	Elementary	8
17	Owasso	Female	Secondary	5
18	Bixby	Female	Elementary	0
19	Sperry	Male	Secondary	7
20	Berryhill	Female	Elementary	19

Totals: Interviews - 20
 Districts - 9
 Males - 4
 Females - 16
 Elementary - 13
 Secondary - 7

Average Years Teaching Experience: 8.1 years

author is motivated by the personal belief that, through critical analysis, the reader may make meaning from the presentation of interview results which is independent of the conclusions reached by the author. In aiding the critical intent of interpretation, ideas or interpretations of the teacher's language will be proposed for the purpose of emphasizing cognitive conflict.

There were, in fact, cognitive conflicts which evolved during the interview process. These conflicts will be highlighted in further sections but are mentioned here to emphasize the critical aspect of dialogue.

The dialogue generated during the interviews centered around the eleven questions proposed in Chapter III. These questions can be grouped into four concept areas. The first concept has to do with the teacher's "idea" of what education is and is addressed by the question asking the purpose of education. Dialogue in this area helps to clarify the "guiding idea" behind the teacher's work and provides a basis from which to deliberate on the other areas of questioning.

The second concept area pertains to making decisions about the actions which take place in the classroom. These actions are revealed through dialogue in questions three and eleven. These questions address how actions in the classroom are decided upon and how a teacher changes action if there is a conflict as to the purpose of the action. This area provides dialogue which speaks to the knowledge-con-

stitutive interests as they relate to decisions on actions taken in the classroom.

The third concept area addressed deals with Oklahoma educational reform and represents dialogue from interview questions two, five, six, seven, and eight. This area combines the teacher's "idea" of educational reform, the roles the teacher plays, or should play, in the process, actions which have resulted from mandated reform and a vision of what should be changed in the Oklahoma educational situation. Dialogue in this area will provide the basis for the interpretation of how Oklahoma educational reform is constructed.

The fourth concept area uses metaphors to address many of the same issues as discussed in the previous three areas. The use of metaphors here attempts to discuss Oklahoma education in a "non-educational" language. Comparisons of this dialogue with previous dialogue should be useful in providing opportunity for critical understanding of teacher's knowledge-constitutive interests in the classroom.

The remainder of this chapter, then, will address the dialogue generated in the four concept areas of the "idea" of education, decisions and action in the classroom, teachers engaged in Oklahoma educational reform, and the metaphoric language of Oklahoma education.

The "Idea" of Oklahoma Education

The dialogue in this area generated three distinct aspects of the purpose of education. First, there was an action verb which indicated what the teacher or school was to do in the process of education. The second area which emerged, centered around "why" the action of the teacher or school should take place, and the final area dealt with the desired action of the student or a result of education.

A tendency, here, would be to treat each area separately. This approach, however, would inevitably result in lists. Lists are not what are important in this type of study, rather, meaning in context is the goal of interpretation.

As teachers expressed their "ideas" on the purpose of education, it was not surprising that several indicated that the purpose was to teach. What was interesting, however, was that there was no reference to student learning. The one reference to learning was that "students should know what to learn." This is a very content, product, oriented statement and was meant to deal more with "what" is learned rather than the student's role as a learner in the educational process.

This "teaching" oriented idea seems to solidify a technical disposition in that the "fact" to be learned is predominant over the act of learning itself. This concept also has technical implications for knowledge as well.

One teacher commented "I think that's what education is; just being able to know where you go to look for what you want to know." This statement seems to perpetuate the notion that there is a body of knowledge that exists outside of the individual and that all the individual needs to know is where to find that body of knowledge.

Other action words which seem to support this disposition were found in many interviews. The words develop, prepare, maintain, give, and make appeared in the review of dialogue on the purpose of education. Again, these words seemed to indicate that the student needed acted upon by the educational system. The purposes for this action appeared in several phrases in the interviews. Teachers indicated that students "must be able to be trained," "must be able to function in society," "be successful and self-motivated when they get older," and "give society what society gives to them." These statements further reflect the technical interest at work in determining what teachers value as knowledge. A further statement proposed that education should "prepare students to be good productive adults." Again, these statements refer to the interest that proposes the concept of a developed, "good" society which is pre-determined and is available for those students who are "educated."

In most of the cases where these phrases were used, students were seen as the receivers of that which was given by education. A critical situation was noted in this dis-

cussion of the purpose of education. In the majority of dialogue, teachers did not internalize the process of education to the teacher. Even though many of the statements indicated "doing" something "to" students, the source of the action was not identified as a person but, rather, was a result of the process of education. So, while teachers did not see students as active participants in education, they also did not refer to themselves as active participants.

This disposition, or attitude, is of the same type referred to by Habermas (1971) when he spoke about the rational behavior of individuals. When a teacher's knowledge is controlled by technical interest, the teacher would feel less involved in the world. Their primary concern is for their survival within the culture. The interview dialogue included a statement that students should learn "to live with people, get along, and survive." This idea of the outcome of education is a classic example of the technical interest in education.

All the interview dialogue, however, was not technical. There were some references to language which can be attributed to a practical interest.

One interview in particular pointed to the purpose of education being to "provide experiences" in order for "judgments to be made about living." This was to be accomplished through the "sharing" of experiences by both the teacher and the student. The result of this effort was that students would have a "good feeling" about what they had

done.

This concept of judging what is "good", results from a much different knowledge-constitutive interest. It is from the individual's interaction and "sharing" in the environment that knowledge influences action. It is within this context that Habermas (1971) proposed that the practical knowledge-constitutive interest was present when the individual existed as a part of society, not in competition with it.

The "idea" of education in this interview was seen as important because "there are other things in the world just as important as getting a job."

It should be inferred by the reader here, that the amount of discussion of this practical interest is related more to frequency of this dialogue in the interview than to its importance in the study.

In summarizing the "idea" or purpose of Oklahoma education it should be pointed out that there was no dialogue which represented the presence of emancipatory interest influencing knowledge. The calls for action in the majority of the interviews focused on conforming to rules of society which are comprised of pre-determined values as determined by culture.

This conforming attitude is maintained by a technical interest influencing the knowledge of teachers and is evidenced by the frequent language of "production" and "product" in the teacher interviews. A critical point to keep in

mind here is that, in the case of school reform, change cannot occur through reproduction of the system or institution needing changed.

With the purpose or "idea" of Oklahoma education having been discussed, the focus now shifts to how Oklahoma teachers decide what actions to take in the classroom.

Teacher Decision Making and Teacher Action in the Classroom

This section of the results of the teacher interviews focuses on how teachers decide what to do in their classrooms each day. Another very important aspect of these decisions, however, is the teacher action which results from these decisions. The following discussion, then, will concentrate primarily on these two concepts.

The response most often appearing in the dialogue dealing with making decisions about what to do in the classroom was related to students. Many teachers indicated that their classroom decisions could be made by "getting to know the students". Through dialogue, it was explained that knowing a student usually referred to knowing what the student's skills were. Further, there was only infrequent mention of students' strengths. Most comments were directed toward what a student "needs". This disposition was clearly one of deficit teaching. In other words, teachers seemed compelled to find the weaknesses of the students and adjust their teaching because of deficits. This need to find deficits in

students was related often during the interviews as teachers saw themselves spending much of their time "finding out what their students needed."

This deficit model of teaching provided no dialogue as to the individual nature of the students. Indeed, teachers seem to think of students as abilities or skills. This view had great bearing on how teachers said decisions were made in their classroom. It was almost as if the students dictated the decision to the teacher because of their educational "need."

Teachers reported, in fact, that much of what they do in their classroom is decided for them. "Part of it is decided for us. The children are placed in your room. You have no control over who you get or what you get."

When questioned further about the implications of the above statement on classroom decision making, teachers often stated that their action focused on whatever area of subject matter the "class as a whole was having difficulty with."

Student's needs were not the only reason teachers gave for making their classroom decisions. Teachers interviewed related that curriculums and textbooks played a very important role in making classroom decisions. The predominant theme, here, was that the curriculum and textbooks came from outside of the classroom.

Teachers proposed that their curriculum was set for them by state department officials or by other groups of teachers. "Basic curriculum is set by groups, and even

though they are teachers, it is still set for you." Paradoxically, teachers appear to desire curricular control from the outside. One teacher stated, "Ever since I've been teaching, I don't feel like I've been led enough...Sometimes you almost feel like you're playing god because you have to make a lot of decisions on your own."

Another contradiction was noted in whether, or not, the teacher viewed the curriculum and textbooks as a set of rules. While many teachers felt comfortable with making changes in the material presented in textbooks based upon students' needs, the same teachers would often qualify their statements. As an example, one teacher expressed, "I don't feel like I have to go straight through it (a textbook)... Usually I do go pretty much through the text as presented. I try not to go too far off on a tangent because I do feel like I'm going to have to justify everything that I'm doing. It does need to be justified. I don't want to be off in left field somewhere." This statement seems to reflect the disposition that while teachers recognize control in their work, they require it as a form of justification. Indeed, deciding what to do in the classroom can be an easy decision. As one teacher suggested, "It's easy. You just follow the book."

In the absence of outside curricular control, one teacher responded by saying, "When I started I didn't have a curriculum, so I wrote my own and the school accepted it. They didn't give me any basic ideas of what we needed...I

would have used a state curriculum if I could have had one."

As dialogue continued as to the possible reasons for this desire to follow a curriculum or a textbook, many teachers eventually mentioned achievement testing. It is noteworthy that the teacher who had written her own curriculum did not feel that tests were that important. Other teachers, however, indicated that achievement testing had a great influence on making classroom decisions. Some dialogue indicated that teachers "would not teach the same way if there was no test." Other dialogue proposed that testing not only altered the teacher's method, but it also created a negative school attitude for students. Teachers contended that "finishing the test meant finishing the year," and "it makes it seem like you have to cram everything in before the test and the rest of the year is for nothing."

Dialogue about making decisions regarding what to do in the classroom has focused on student needs, curriculum, and textbooks. Interpretation of this dialogue leads the writer to propose that, just as in the case of the purpose of education, the majority of the teachers' knowledge is influenced by technical interest. This is validated, in the writer's opinion, by the continued reference to student products in terms of skills and outcomes, outside control of curriculum and textbooks, and the lack of mention of personal interaction in the decision making process. Teachers seemed to actually desire to implement that which had been dictated, even though it bothered them that it had been.

Teachers, in fact, did not appear to want to make decisions and even lacked confidence as to whether they could make them.

All of these items stem from a technically controlled workplace and result in the continuation of a teacher disposition as described within this section which emphasizes product outcome, a deficit model of teaching, and the proletarianization of the teaching profession.

Even the dialogue which moved toward practical interest was stifled by technical control as it moved toward practical action by teachers.

One teacher remarked that "decisions should be made in the classroom based upon past experiences." This teacher expressed that she had wanted to change her reading instruction methodology but was "afraid of the accountability of something new." She said she was "frustrated because the students could be more excited about reading, but that the new approach probably would not raise test scores."

While the teacher quoted above did not attempt to change curriculum, the practical interest may have a more direct impact on methodology decisions. A teacher indicated in dialogue that the weather, school climate, and even world wide events might help determine how the teacher would decide what to do in the classroom. The teacher proposed, that after considering all factors, a teacher might change a lesson at any time. She said: "Some days when the weather is changing, kids can really bounce off the wall. They

literally do and you know they are not going to sit and conjugate verbs. So I change the lesson." This attempt at action based upon understanding is entirely individual on the part of the teacher and seems to be confined to the classroom.

It was pointed out to the interviewed teachers that they were aware of the amount of control present in the classroom and the teachers agreed that, while they accepted it, they were, not necessarily, in favor of it. The teachers were then asked in the interview what they were doing or could do to change the situation. The responses were typical of an alienated worker (Bullough 1982).

Responses were generally that there was not much that could be done. "I can't think of anything to do other than to offer my opinion." A more general response was "very little can be done." Paradoxically, the teacher still feels that she can change. One teacher remarked, "I can change but I can't change the system. We have no control and we haven't been asked. The only power I have is controlled inside the classroom." On one hand, the teacher recognizes a problem with control and states that she can change. On the other hand, no action for change can be suggested by the teacher because she can not change the system. This would seem to be a perfect example of the "de-skilling" principle advocated by Apple (1975). Another example of teacher dialogue further expands upon the changing of a teacher's values. "That's what frustrates me. I don't think I can

change it. That's the part that I believe ought to be done for me. I'm forced to decide priorities and I'm not good at that. I don't like it and I feel bad about it. I feel guilty. I can't help everybody."

In conclusion of this section, it is evident that teachers consider student needs, the curriculum, and textbooks when decisions are made to do things inside the classroom. While the teachers feel there is a lot of control exerted on these factors, they fail to be able to propose actions which could improve or replace these controlling interests. Ironically, change and improvement are the major components of education reform. The next section of the discussion of the study results will focus on how the teacher views Oklahoma educational reform.

Teacher's Perceptions of Oklahoma Educational Reform

This section serves to provide a description of how Oklahoma teachers view the concept of education reform in the state. The study focuses here on four areas of interest. The areas provide a description as to how educational reform is defined by the classroom teacher, provide a description of the roles the teacher currently plays, and should play in school reform, provide a description of what the teacher personally will do when reform mandates are issued, and provide a suggestion of changes which should be made in the Oklahoma educational system. From these des-

criptions, an opinion of how Oklahoma educational reform is reviewed and constructed will be developed to facilitate understanding of the concept of Oklahoma school reform.

A View of Oklahoma Educational Reform

Teachers interviewed typically had a general idea of what the term reform means. The primary term mentioned in the interviews was "change." What the change results in, however, was not a consensus. While one teacher proposed that reform was "making changes of some type to, hopefully, improve" others stated that reform was "doing something different." The idea of changing and restructuring was seen as a way of "making new, again." There is, however, disagreement as to whether change is made for the improvement of the Oklahoma educational system or whether it exists as a function of bureaucracy.

"Reform means more things we're going to have to do for less....I think if they (the legislature) ever spent one day in the classroom, they might have a different viewpoint about things."

Teachers viewed Oklahoma educational reform as "a top-down procedure meant to produce a better product." Once again, the terms "produce" and "product" are mentioned. The important concept here is that the teachers in the interview believe that reform is a function mandated from outside of the education experience. A teacher remarked that "reform is someone who has never been in the classroom trying to

figure something out....It's a big drastic change." Notice here how teachers begin to stop talking about reform as an event and personalized it to a human function of the legislature. "Someone in the legislature is going to decide the best way for me to teach. I resent it. They do it because they don't respect us."

It is extremely clear to this writer that the teachers interviewed did not see themselves as a part of the educational reform process. Teachers succeeded in making this point by stating, "I don't think it means the same thing they (the legislature) do. They think it's public relations. I don't think they consider the student. They are looking at paper instead of the whole process."

The views previously expressed continue to indicate a pervasive technical interest. This interest clearly dominates how the teacher comes to "know" about educational reform. There were no statements which indicated practical interest and certainly no evidence of emancipatory interest. In fact, the interests alluded to in the dialogue indicate action which occurs for the purpose of controlling teachers' and students' actions instead of providing for free action.

The Roles Played by Teachers in Oklahoma Educational Reform

The concept of educational reform as an outside process was reinforced by the views held by teachers concerning their individual roles in the process of educational reform.

Almost unanimously, there were two responses regarding the teacher's roles in educational reform. Teachers thought of themselves as not playing any role at all and serving on professional organization committees as their contribution to educational reform.

Teachers stated frequently that they had "no influence" on educational reform and contended, "I don't think I play any roles." This attitude was expressed by a majority of the teachers interviewed.

The roles teachers felt they played dealt almost exclusively with participating in formal committees at the local organizational level. "I vote and serve on textbook committees, but other than that, I don't play any roles in reform." Another teacher explained, "I've tried to be active in the (local) organization, but I feel like we're weak and we don't get backing."

Another thought along these same lines was expressed by a teacher that stated, "I've not been real active, but I'm very proud of others for doing it. I'm just not a very good person for doing it."

The predominant view here is that teachers are not members of the educational reform process as individuals. There appears to be agreement that there is a need for teachers to be involved, but teachers have been unable to identify that role as it applies to them individually in their classroom.

One departure from this view was expressed by an ele-

mentary teacher. She stated that she "had been a role model for another teacher and through this interaction both she and the other teacher had been able to change some things for the better." She tempered the statement, however, by stating further that "she could only be an influence in her own room because being an educator is an overwhelming job."

This instance indicates some practical interest influencing the teacher's decision on what role to play. It must be pointed out, however, that this teacher's attempt at understanding was still being limited by a pervasive sense of "outside" control.

The teacher's view of the roles that teachers should play in educational reform does not differ tremendously from that which has already been presented. It is important, however, to present dialogue of these views to help demonstrate the teacher's idea of what is appropriate for the teacher to do.

The type of role encountered most often is the role that will be called "the role of non-existence." Some teachers have not even thought about what their action should be in regard to educational reform. These teachers' remarks consist of "I don't know," and "I don't know how I could play a role." Beyond thinking or considering a role of action, a teacher commented that: "I got into teaching so I wouldn't have to worry about areas other than the classroom and I shouldn't be involved outside of it." In other words, some teachers do not consider it their respon-

sibility to participate in educational reform matters.

Other teachers feel that participating in educational reform action is desirable except that they think other teachers should do it. "Other teachers lobby and stuff like that and I support them. I'm just not good at it." This statement reflects the recognition of the action as being necessary but does not recognize the personal involvement of the teacher. Part of this personal denial might be attributed to the lack of power or support that teachers feel they experience. Teachers have expressed that "one person does not have power to influence others"; "there is no support for what a teacher thinks"; and "teachers don't feel like they are important in the process."

Some teachers, then, believe that "the role of the teacher is very important and that teachers should play a greater role in educational reform." They see this role beginning in the classroom but feel like it stops there because "there is a sense of no power over what you do in your life."

The value and the knowledge of educational reform is definitely constituted through regulation. The concept of change for the better does not seem to include the teacher as an "actor" but, rather, as the "acted upon." This lack of personal involvement exemplifies the technical interest which is encountered in the process of educational reform. Indeed, that which is regulated as a matter of habit does not receive personal attention nor action from those being

regulated. In other words, teachers who have not participated in the construction of school reform will find it difficult to imagine what that participation might be.

Teacher Action Toward Reform Mandates

The message presented by teachers in this area of the interview was clear and almost unanimous. "When it comes to mandated reforms I may not agree, but I'll probably do it anyway." Because most teachers indicated that they had and would follow mandated educational reforms, attention turned to the feelings and reasons teachers gave for this unquestioned loyalty.

Many teachers rationalized their action when questioned further in the interview. They responded that they "may not want to but will do it because sometimes you have to do things you don't agree with. You go along because you don't want to rock the boat." Another example comes from a teacher who says: "We are told what the reforms are and we try to do it in the classroom. Sometimes it's good to change when you don't agree with it."

While it may be worthy to try something different, the effort should be made for the purpose of understanding and judgment of the action not solely for compliance. The result of understanding in teaching is action. The result of compliance is reproduction of action. One teacher stated that: "I'm a "yes" person. That makes me really mad. So, I'll do it (reform) as quickly and easily as I can so I can

get back to work with my kids. Things that come in from the outside don't make positive differences in student's lives." It might follow, then, that as more reform is mandated through state regulation, less positive action will occur in the classroom.

This phenomena of increased mandated educational reform evoked another teacher to propose that: "I might quit. It depends on how much of it (reform mandates) I can incorporate without making myself miserable." This statement reflects the frustration associated with the professional expectations of the profession when subjected to the regulation of the action of the professional. Such frustration has been voiced by some teachers but ignored by others.

Teacher Recommendations for Change

The recommendations that teachers interviewed suggested were similar to those that have been proposed by Task Force 2000 for the improvement of education in Oklahoma.

Several teachers indicated that there needed to be an increase in parental involvement. The involvement the teachers spoke of here was of a philosophical nature, however. The teachers felt like parents are not as supportive of the "idea" of education as once was the case. The present values toward education suggest that "schools are expected to do it all. I feel like in today's society our main problem in education is lack of parent interest in school." No matter how good a job the school does, one

teacher felt that "kids will not do a very good job unless they know their mother and father are interested."

Along with this increase in parent interest in education, some teachers felt that there were some things that should be done to put emphasis on education in the minds of students. A teacher proposed that "no kid would get a drivers license until age 18 and that students could not hold a job other than school." The teacher further proposed that if a student must help support his family "welfare payments should be made according to school attendance and that the student be paid for attending school." On the other hand, another teacher proposed that the schools would be more respected if all students "paid tuition to attend school."

Some teachers thought that changes should be made in the curriculum organization in the schools. The primary recommendation was that there needed to be access to a variety of programs in all schools, and that these programs needed to be more "experience oriented." Along these same lines, the programs would not represent just content. They would also represent different teaching methodology. One teacher gave an example of including more "hands-on" experiences in science and math classes at all levels. This same interview produced a bold recommendation that "achievement tests should be done away with." This recommendation was made because the teacher felt like achievement tests were being used for things other than individual student assess-

ment. In fact, there was a belief expressed that the purpose of testing, as it is now implemented, had very little to do with the individual student.

In addition to these curricular items, several suggestions were made regarding the re-structuring of schools. The most frequent recommendation that came from the teacher interviews dealt with the issue of class sizes. Unanimously, teachers felt like education could be improved for students if class sizes were smaller at both the elementary and the secondary levels. Teachers felt like this single recommendation would have a much greater impact on the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. This was felt to be true because "teachers are being asked to do more and more each year. With a smaller class size students can better assess the content and be given the special attention they need."

Along with the smaller class size, a few teachers recommended that "the length of the school year be increased to provide for the delivery of a wide range of programs." Teachers proposed that there was a shortage of materials and supplies in the schools. This shortage helps to prevent the creation and development of "hands-on" programs and, in fact, promotes a standard curriculum and methodology for all students. Teachers did not see this as a positive trend.

A review of the suggestions that teachers proposed as changes in the schools seems to indicate that there should be no disagreement as to the direction of educational reform

in Oklahoma. Many of the suggestions presented here are also presented by national and state school reform reports. Another possibility exists, however, in the explanation of this agreement. When the entire set of interviews is looked at, it becomes evident that teachers do not see themselves as participants in the school reform process in Oklahoma. In fact teachers often inferred that they were not capable of changing the educational process. This writer's opinion is that all of these dispositions are the result of a technical interest dominating the knowledge of the teacher. Another result of this domination is that teachers tend to repeat the language that accompanies this technical disposition.

The next area of the teacher interviews attempts to diminish the tendency to reproduce language constituted by a technical interest in the description of Oklahoma education.

Metaphors of Education

The teacher interview was designed to create dialogue centered around the use of metaphors. Metaphors were to be used by the teachers to discuss education "as it is," and education "as it should be." Through the use of a "different language, a "different" view of education might, also, emerge.

There were a variety of metaphors used to describe education as it is currently perceived by Oklahoma teachers, however, using metaphors was not a easy task. Several

teachers, even when given advance time for preparation, were not able to verbalize education in metaphoric terms.

Table VII, beginning on the next page, identifies the metaphors that were suggested to describe education as it currently exists, and the knowledge-constitutive interest which seems to be implied.

A review of these metaphors provides insight for understanding how education is viewed in Oklahoma. This view is most definitely influenced by a technical knowledge-constitutive interest. In almost all cases, the metaphors did not allow for any individual action for the improvement of the situation. All actions were controlled from outside of the individual. Examples of this were found in the metaphor describing education as "a prolonged illness." There is obviously a problem that exists (the illness), but it cannot be diagnosed. Even though many suggestions are given, the "illness" never gets better. After a while, the actor become disillusioned and "gives up."

While the metaphor of the barge "going slowly down the river" proposed that the "trip never ends", the metaphor of education as a "road" hinted that, even when decisions were made, it did not matter what direction of travel was chosen. "Nothing changes regardless of the action taken."

Three other metaphors deserve special attention because of their graphic description of the type of control and the helplessness associated with that control.

Education was viewed to be "like a kite with a whole

TABLE VII

METAPHORS: OKLAHOMA EDUCATION "AS IT IS"

Metaphor Used	Knowledge-Constitutive Interest
<p>- It is an illness. A prolonged illness that you have not had any success dealing with. You have all sorts of suggestions, and in the end there is nothing. You still don't know what the problem is, you don't know what kind of treatment to go through, and you just give up after a period of time.</p>	<p>- Technical interest is pre-dominant because the situation is controlled from the outside. There is no action which can be taken by the person to improve the situation.</p>
<p>- Education is like planting a garden without regard to the type of seed planted, the time of the year, or the special growing conditions needed. We just plant the seeds all at the same time, water them a little, and harvest what ever there is.</p>	<p>- Technical interest is pre-dominant because there is a pre-determined course of action.</p>
<p>- Education is the road down which the ills of society travel. Whatever is wrong with society must go down the road and it is the road's responsibility to carry these ills to some unknown destination. The road never ends. Reform is the "y" in the road. You go in a different direction but nothing changes.</p>	<p>- Technical interest is pre-dominant because of the idea that nothing changes regardless of the action taken.</p>
<p>- Education is like a barge going slowly down a channel. It is a tedious trip and there is no destination, yet the trip never ends.</p>	<p>- Technical interest is pre-dominant because there is no control over the destination.</p>

TABLE VII (Continued)

Metaphor Used	Knowledge-Constitutive Interest
- Education is a kite with a whole lot of people pulling on the string. The kite cannot fly where it might.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because others are keeping the kite from going where it may.
- Education is like a slowly sinking ship. Things are piled up on the ship, and things continue to be added. The ship never sinks.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because there is no hope offered to improve the load on the ship.
- Education is like several builders working on the same house without using a blueprint. Each has building skill, but their visions of the house are not the same. Someone needs to tell them what kind of house to build.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because the builders need to be told what to build.
- Education is like the monkey house at the zoo. Everybody is looking at you and you don't know what they're looking at. They seem to be happy when you imitate their actions.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because of the desire to imitate other's behavior.
- Education is like a run-away train. You're not sure where you are going to end up when the train stops.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because of no control over the final destination.
- Education is a beautiful sailboat without a breeze.	- Technical interest is pre-dominant because, even though there is nothing wrong with the boat, it cannot move in the direction chosen.

lot of people pulling on the string." The visual image portrayed here is one of ultimate control. As people would pull on the string, the kite would respond by coming down. As the pressure on the string decreased, the kite might rise higher. So too, the "string pullers" have a tremendous effect and control on education. As the winds of society blow and the strings are pulled by the politicians, the kite (education) remains at the command of the physical and technical elements.

Education was also viewed as being like a "monkey house at the zoo." This metaphor expertly revealed the notion that, like monkeys, schools are positioned inside society's cage, and there are an enormous number of folks who like to stand around and watch whatever is going on. Each observer would have the monkeys do a different trick. In the end, the monkeys imitate as many behaviors as they can. The schools, then, in an attempt to please, seek to imitate the behaviors that are shown to them.

The metaphor that most exemplifies the impact of the technical interest on knowledge, however, is the "beautiful sailboat without a breeze." Total frustration and helplessness becomes common because, even though there is "nothing wrong with the boat", it cannot serve its function and move purposefully. The boat is, therefore, totally dependent on whether the wind blows or not. In the case of education and educational reform, it becomes very difficult to know whether or not the sailboat is functioning properly when someone

keeps messing with the wind.

These few examples, taken from Table VII, result in judgment that the Oklahoma teacher's knowledge about education is constituted predominantly from a technical interest.

The view of education, as described by the interviewed teachers, can be more fully developed by interpreting the metaphors that Oklahoma teachers used to describe education "as it should be." Table VIII, which follows on the next page, highlights the metaphors used by the teachers interviewed, and proposes the knowledge-constitutive interest which is judged to be predominant.

Not all teachers were able to use a metaphor to describe education as they thought "it should be." In some cases, the teachers did not change the metaphor in terms of the predominant knowledge-constitutive interest. Indeed, an aspect of technical interest helps to preserve the interest itself and diminishes the "knower's" ability to recognize any other interest present. The possibility, then, of alternative interests influencing the constitution of knowledge lessens as the technical interest begins to determine the values of the "knower."

There were, however, metaphors which demonstrated a clear movement away from a technical interest toward a practical and an emancipatory interest. Three of these metaphors will be expanded upon in the text.

In a "spin-off" of the "illness" metaphor previously discussed, education was viewed as a medical operation in

TABLE VIII

METAPHORS: OKLAHOMA EDUCATION "AS IT SHOULD BE"

Metaphor Used	Knowledge-Constitutive Interest
<p>- Education is like an operation. The doctors get together and find out what is causing a problem. Then they take care of the problem. Sometimes they succeed and sometimes they don't. At least they agreed on how to proceed.</p>	<p>- Practical interest is predominant because the emphasis is not on the outcome. The emphasis is on consensus.</p>
<p>- Education is like a garden that is planted and nurtured according to each specific variety of seed.</p>	<p>- Technical interest is predominant because action is specified according to a set of conditions.</p>
<p>- Education is like a spark.</p>	<p>- Practical interest is predominant because the action which results from the spark depends upon interaction with the environment.</p>
<p>- Education is like an exploration ship. You have a goal but you have to make many decisions and changes along the way.</p>	<p>- Practical interest is predominant because decisions and changes are made as the ship explores.</p>
<p>- Education is like a luxury ship that has everything. It can go anywhere and has anything that the passengers may want.</p>	<p>- Emancipatory interest is predominant because anything is possible depending upon the choices made by the passengers.</p>

TABLE VIII (Continued)

Metaphor Used	Knowledge-Constitutive Interest
- Education is like a beehive. Everyone has a purpose and a product is produced.	- Technical interest is predominant because action is pre-determined and product oriented.
- Education is like an adventure.	- Emancipatory interest is predominant because the action required results from risk taking based upon individual choice.
- Education is like a ladder with no end to the number of steps that can be taken.	- Emancipatory interest is predominant because the action associated with a ladder is the result of bettering a position.
- Education is like a football team. If you don't do your part you're off the team.	- Technical interest is predominant because of a pre-determined result requiring a specified action.

which "doctors get together to find out what is causing the problem." The next step, then, was to act upon, or "take care of," the problem. The important idea here is that the success of the procedure was not what was at issue. Indeed, "sometimes they (the doctors) succeed and sometimes they don't." The teacher who used this metaphor held a belief that "consensus should be a goal of education."

In this case, practical interest was judged as influencing the knowledge associated with this metaphor. The outcome was not valued as highly as the process of understanding for consensus.

Another metaphor used was very general, yet very revealing. It proposed that education should be "like an adventure." The factor that makes the "adventure" metaphor so important is that adventure requires dangerous actions, actions that create suspense. These actions require risks to be taken. Risks are usually only taken when the possible benefit outweighs the consequence of the action. Risk taking, then, fosters the emancipation of the individual in that the risk is taken as a means of improving the individual's position in the world.

Education is seen, then, as an opportunity to take risks and make decisions which have the potential of improving the individual." An emancipatory interest can be identified, here, because of the action required of the individual.

This same concept of emancipatory interest can be

viewed in the metaphor proposing that education should be "like a ladder with no end to the number of steps that can be taken." This metaphor, again, points out the freedom involved in climbing as high or as low as the individual desires. This desire is influenced by whether or not the individual may better his position in life or simply desire a change. It should be pointed out, here, that the influence or disposition for the individual to better himself is not a value free undertaking. Emancipatory action cannot be taken without regard for the freedom of others. It is within this context, then, that knowledge, as influenced by an emancipatory interest, generates freedom for all individuals and increases the amount of critical action. The student in the "ladder" metaphor becomes the primary actor. The ladder does not determine what or how the student comes to "know", rather, the student interacts with the ladder according to a set of values which are continuously being tested through deliberation. Having reviewed the descriptions contained in the interviews, attention must now be turned to the endeavor of "making meaning." Chapter V will draw conclusions from this action of study by attempting to address all of the pieces as a whole. It is hoped that these conclusions will stimulate understanding of the concepts presented here, that actions can reveal themselves as possibilities for individual teachers, and that other implications for study will emerge.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

American schools have been labeled "at risk." Oklahoma is on the verge of relegating itself to a "type of third-world status." All this in the name of improving education? Or, is it a result of attempting to improve education.

The concluded study of the construction of Oklahoma school reform and knowledge-constitutive interests in the classroom has set the stage for a discussion which might just as easily be held in a third-world country. The discussion which will be presented here, however, centers on a topic as close as the evening newspaper, the next door neighbor and the neighborhood school.

For the past ten years America, and the state of Oklahoma, have experienced an emotional, social, and psychological phenomena known as school reform. Reform, in and of itself, would seem to be a fairly common concept which centers around the process of looking at something, making a judgment about it, and then acting according to the knowledge constructed during the experience. The dictionary simplifies the concept of reform even more. Certainly, individuals engage frequently in changing something because of a desire for something better. This has not been the

case, however, with the construction of school reform in the state of Oklahoma.

This thesis has described several aspects which combine to constitute Oklahoma school reform. These aspects include culture, the political system, and the professionals who implement the reform. The concept of school reform has become such an important topic that political campaigns have been run with school reform as a major issue. This, however, has always been the case.

Some of the very first, free, political action resulted in the establishment of schools and different kinds of school programs. The reason for the development of these programs centered around typical needs of the culture. These reasons included the basic need for the culture to survive and reproduce itself. There were economic needs which were addressed, and there were political reasons for schools to exist.

In early America, the Puritans valued their new way of life so much that they made sure their youth would receive the appropriate education so that their religious beliefs could be preserved. As time passed, schools were seen as ways to prepare young men to make a living. This required some change in the schools. There were fierce town debates over whether the school master should continue to teach the classics or move more toward the "Franklin" curriculum which emphasized the trades and vocational preparation. Even Thomas Jefferson could continue to provide the traditional

English curriculum of horsemanship and Latin. He could, that is, until education became available to all and there were not enough laborers to tend the fields. Schools very quickly became tools for economic venture and even basic survival.

These are just a few of the examples of early school reform. Are things that much different today? At first thought, the question may seem absurd. Of course things are different. But are they really? The schools need to improve their science and math programs according to many experts who base their opinion on achievement and information criteria. Do these same experts forget that this is the same country that decided to go to the moon and promptly went out and hired German scientists. Things should not be that much different now. The Japanese have the technology. We have the capital.

The point, here, is that the assumption that America can buy whatever it needs is changing. It is changing because the traditional cultural values and actions are not being reproduced in the society. American culture is in direct competition with itself. It is this writer's belief that school reform is drawing the frustration of the people because of the need for a cultural reformation. The institution of the school is not the problem. The disposition of culture is the problem.

Reflection on the current construction of Oklahoma school reform will help to make this point more vivid.

The Construction of Oklahoma
School Reform

The construction of Oklahoma school reform has been shown to be an effort guided by a very clear disposition. The evidence of this disposition is present in political policy statements, economic condition statements, and is even more clearly evident in our cultural values of control and production.

As was discussed in this thesis, the current popularity of educational reform began in the early 1980s and is identified with the National Commission on Excellence in Education report, "A Nation At Risk." It is not surprising that, even though this was an educational report, the most familiar passage deals almost exclusively with the country's industrial condition and the direct threat that competitors pose for our commerce.

Educational foundations are identified as eroding and one reason is proposed to be poor technological innovation. In addressing poor innovation, for example, the educational reform reports attempted to set high standards and production requirements. This emphasis on technical application became taken for granted and has permeated the schools just as it has the business community. It is ever present in the positivist way of approaching knowledge and reality. This technical disposition is in direct competition with the environment, and the primary concern is for survival. This

disposition is the same view of knowledge that prompted scientific management in the 1930s. This is the same movement that gave us terms such as efficiency, production, waste, compensatory education and standardized measurement. The continuation of this line of thinking helped to establish a national educational language. Soon, in order to be progressive, this language was adopted by the states. Indeed, a trickle-down language of education has become the state of Oklahoma's measuring stick. Many of Oklahoma's education documents present the same rationale for the reform of education. It is not surprising, then, to continue to see reports which call for increased accountability, higher test scores, tougher certification requirements, and increased staff development and evaluation programs. It is extremely ironic that on the one hand, teachers and schools are under strict regulation, and on the other hand they are to foster autonomous teacher behavior. It is this very example that appears to be the source of tremendous frustration for educators, students, and those who would attempt to make meaning of it.

In Oklahoma, the construction of educational reform has followed the same lines and methods as the national construction. If it can be controlled, it can be reformed. Mandates are certainly the way to respond to the technical disposition. At least forty-one states have implemented educational reform measures similar to those proposed by Task Force 2000. This writer is not convinced that enough

success has been noted in other programs to endorse a positivistic educational system. Indeed, it seems strange that Oklahoma would admonish educators that the schools should not prepare workers for assembly line jobs, yet the current reform measures as outlined in the thesis, closely resemble the same disposition and methodology utilized by Bobbitt and others during the industrial revolution. This historical approach to education has already had devastating effects on the educators of the state.

There exists, here, a hesitation to refer to educators as professionals. This hesitation has developed because of the ideas verified by descriptions of teachers interviewed. If anything, or anybody, has been relegated to a "third-world status" it is the professional educator. A form of proletarianization has been at work in Oklahoma schools and is evident from the descriptions obtained in the teacher interviews. If teachers are builders of educational reform in Oklahoma, they have been sub-contracted to another job.

Teacher's responses in the interviews indicated that Oklahoma education is something that comes from the outside and acts upon the individual. In these cases, the students were seen as receivers of action and as raw products. The teachers, likewise, did not report themselves as being active participants in the educational reform process. Indeed, as previously discussed, teachers were not aware of any roles that they might play in the process of educational reform. This point might seem difficult to explain, but

interview descriptions indicated that teachers do not see themselves as participants in this process anyway.

Educational reform was generally viewed as another "product" oriented activity where someone gets "acted upon" by someone else. This view of reform, along with the teacher's general agreement that a reform mandate would be followed no matter what, verifies that a teacher's role in educational reform is perceived to be submissive. It has been concluded, and will be proposed at this point, that the construction of Oklahoma educational reform has resulted in the reproduction of an educational philosophy which is counterproductive to the very goals it attempts to achieve. The problem, here, is not so much with specific reform recommendations as with the "guiding idea" or disposition that accompanies the positivistic approach to knowledge.

Knowledge-Constitutive Interests

in the Classroom

It would be extremely repetitive to discuss the knowledge-constitutive interests in the classroom in detail here. However, it is critically important that several points be made.

First of all, the descriptions offered in the teacher interviews indicated that the teacher's knowledge in the classroom is constituted by technical interest in most cases. This statement is clearest when the education metaphors are interpreted. The technical interest was most

easily recognized as taking most measures of control, or autonomy, out of the hands of the teacher. Even though it was discouraging that teachers indicated a disposition of helplessness in many cases, it was encouraging to find that several teachers conceived of education as being different under other circumstances.

A very important item will be presented at this point. It is one thing to interpret metaphors and indicate a knowledge-constitutive interest as being predominant in that given situation. It is much more important, here, that the reader grasp the effect that a consistent technical knowledge-constitutive interest has on a teacher. In fact, the author believes that a teacher's instructional ability can be enhanced through the awareness of the technical, practical and emancipatory knowledge-constitutive interests.

In the instance of this study where there were descriptions which were judged to be influenced by a technical interest, there were also strong indications of an alienated worker.

Bullough (1982 134), along with others, found that there were indications of teacher alienation present in the worklife of teachers. This alienation was discussed in terms of actions which indicated a movement away from alienation. The key concept, here, is that action must take place in order for a disposition, or interest, to become known. The absence of action indicates death. There can be no value neutral action. Bullough identified four features,

proposed by Karl Marx in his Economic and Philosophic Manuscripts, as being indications of alienation. These were: (1) Estrangement of the worker from the product of his labor; (2) Estrangement from the act of production; (3) Estrangement from one's natural being, and (4) Estrangement from other men.

When these features are considered, along with responses from the teacher interviews, it becomes very clear that when a teacher's knowledge is constituted primarily by a technical interest, alienated actions are likely to occur. These actions were observed in instances where students and the act of learning were not mentioned in regard to the purpose of education. Several teachers also indicated that their self-concept was not good. They were not good at playing roles in educational reform. This estrangement from their natural being, as well as the product of their work, also indicated evidence of alienation. Possibly the greatest indication of alienation is evident in the fact that outside intervention was readily recognized by many teachers, and even though this involvement was seen as a threat and mandates were made, the teacher would rationalize and support an action that they were opposed to.

Suggestions for Further Study

While engaged in the study of Oklahoma educational reform and knowledge-constitutive interests in the classroom, several teachers became frustrated with themselves

because they were being questioned about the absence of action in the classroom for the purpose of initiating change. A sample of classroom teachers could be selected to participate in a process of dialogue and enlightenment regarding knowledge-constitutive interests. After an adequate period of time, a comparison of dialogue from before the enlightenment and after the enlightenment could be described.

It would also be interesting to expand the concept of teacher alienation. Is it present in all teachers at some level? It is career oriented? Is it situational? Is it developmental?

Implications of the Study

There are several positive implications which have been arrived at through the study of the construction of Oklahoma school reform and knowledge-constitutive interests.

Because culture, by definition, is learned through values, how we learn or come to know something is just as important, and many times more important, as what we know. Culture's three parts: Universals, Specialties, and Alternatives can be related to technical, practical and emancipatory interest. When a technical interest influences knowledge, it represents the Universal area of culture and therefore compliance and reproduction result. A practical interest will generate activity in the Specialties area and can invoke action based upon understanding. The emancipa-

tory interest would be found in the Alternatives category of culture and would indicate critical action or praxis.

Teachers must become enlightened to the way knowledge-constitutive interests can be recognized in their classroom.

This is a critical implication because teachers are the focal point of all action in the classroom. It is at this point that teachers really are the key element in the process of educational reform. Teachers must come to believe that compliance fosters reproduction. Decisions, however, can be made through interaction with the environment. Compliance is always a possibility. The key is that it is also a choice. Again, the thought process of choosing and taking action is the catalyst for change and educational reform. This act of deliberation allows the teacher to be "with" the world instead of "in" the world.

By being enlightened, a teacher can begin to know why he acts as he does and also be able to verbalize it. Through this act of verbalization and dialogue, a teacher is better able to understand cultural reality and, through action, can transform reality.

This study should serve as a beginning point from which the teacher can organize educational practices for the purpose of constructing Oklahoma educational reform. The first step toward an understanding of knowledge-constitutive interests would be to actually take a step "back" and critically deliberate on reality as it exists personally. A movement toward educational connoisseurship (Eisner 1985)

will go a long way in addressing many of the pitfalls associated with the de-skilling nature of a technical disposition. The resulting action will begin to reverse the trend of the teacher as a proletariat and provide ways to make meaning from difficult situations. It is to this end that we must all strive.

Every idea is a source of life and light which
illuminates the words, facts, examples,
and emotions that are dead - or deadly -
and dark without them.

Mortimer J. Adler

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APPENDIX

A TEACHER INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Question: What is the purpose of education?

T: The way I think of it is to teach a child how to learn period. It's not facts. It's not memorizing certain material. It's teaching the child thinking skills so they can learn what it is in life that they need to learn. That's how I view it. I have a course of curriculum that I need to follow.

I: You need to follow?

T: Yes, I need to follow.

I: Why do you need to follow?

T: Well because that's what has been dictated to me is that I need. The children need to know certain things by the time they are through my classroom.

I: So somebody had decided that?

T: Yes, that's in our curriculum handbook and my children basically know those things. To me the easy part of teaching is getting them to know certain things. The difficult part is teaching them to think. Children don't seem to. I don't know if it is just the times we're living in or if it's just all children, but it seems like it is very difficult for a child. The kids that I have get very frustrated if they don't already know how to do something. They don't want to think it through and they're scared of what's involved in thinking through a process. To me that's what education is, teaching them to think and to learn.

I: I was interested in what you said about the facts part being the easy part of teaching as far as you were concerned. I have sometimes thought that was, at least, the simplest part even as a learner. I guess we sometimes go in classes and we want the teacher to tell us these little things that they expect us to know and if you can tell me that then I'll be all right, but don't give me an essay question.

T: See that's exactly what scared me to death all through school. Now I'm real big on teaching my children to do that. Maybe it's because I didn't have those skills when I was growing up. I didn't learn to do that until I was an adult, and I'm still afraid of it. I don't want these kids to be afraid to be creative and try to figure things out. But the facts part of it is just rote to me.

I: I've wondered that and I don't know whether it's true or not that students now know less "information" than they knew before. I don't know if that's true or not,

but I know that a lot of people put that in writing. They act like they believe students aren't achieving basic information as well now as they used to. I wonder if it's true that the fact part, then, the memorization, is the easiest part. I wonder if that is why the students have trouble.

T: I'm not sure I believe that. I never have. I believe that we're at a point where we're so much more sophisticated in our means of evaluating what they know than we were 20 or 30 years ago. We have more data to base it on so we think they know less. I don't believe they do know less. I think they know more.

I: Or maybe we manipulate that evaluation instrument. So you think it is a myth then?

T: Oh, yes I do. I think these kids know at least what I do with them. I had some teachers that I remember as good teachers, but I try to do things with my kids.

Question: Much has recently been said about reform in education. What does the term "educational reform" mean to you?

T: I think of it two ways. Sometimes I think that when they're thinking of educational reform the legislature, or the people that are writing the bills and discussing all this, I think they're talking in terms of how to better evaluate teachers. When I think of educational reform, I think of all it encompasses from funding to raising test scores. To me they're just looking at some real basic things when they talk about educational reform and I'm not real sure that I understand what educational reform is. I'll be real honest with you, to me everything needs to be changed. That's the way I look at it. I think they're a long way from where we need to be in this state. Sometimes I get very frustrated and wonder why I stay here, because to me it is just backwards. It's like we're fighting. They're fighting us, they want us to do a better job, but they're fighting us. They want the kids to know more, but they're not providing the means to do it with. So educational reform may mean different things to different people. I'm kind of confused on it myself.

I: If we relate that back to what you said about the purpose of education and we think of it in terms of process versus outcome, are the reformers advocating reform of the philosophical nature of education or are they advocating reform from little pieces, little physical or technical aspects of education?

T: I think they're looking at what looks good on paper. I

don't think they're looking at their whole process. That's the difference between a politician and a teacher maybe. I don't know.

I: So if there is a real philosophical base and reason for education, and some process, or procedure, or mandate is decided upon that they're going to use, and they say this is going to reform education; if that is contradictory to the philosophical nature of education, that might, then, be one of the reasons we feel like when we do things, or we're asked to do things, they defeat the purpose they were enacted for.

T: I agree with that.

I: It's like saying we want the students to think more for themselves. We want students to become critical thinkers. That's a big term, critical thinking in schools, but yet the way we're going to do that, according to them, is to give them more memorization, more tests.

T: Right, we want to be sure. I feel like the teachers, I mean, the difference in how I feel now and how I felt ten years ago. Ten years ago I felt like that the test was a tool for the teachers and now I feel like the test is something that we're being pressured to make sure they do well on. I feel like we're being evaluated and assessed every step of the way by the test. I didn't feel that way ten years ago. Even in our school district, I think the pressure is on to teach the test.

I: So you think some of the things you're doing in your classroom now are contradictory?

T: Probably, yes. I don't feel about them because I think what I'm doing in class is in the best interest of the students in the long run.

Question: How do you decide what things to do, or teach, in your classroom?

T: I make sure that I teach. I have certain times of the week that I set aside for strictly creative type things. I have a very structured classroom and I try to get in my basics as quickly as I can so we can go on to other things. I do recognize that the basics have to be taught. The other thing I'm trying to do is realize that all children don't learn the same. The other fourth grade teacher and I are working together. We're trying to teach children through all the modes so that they get the information one way or another. I think that is part of the problem, that we're not reaching some of the kids simply because we are doing it audi-

torily.

- I: Or the way the workbook says to do it.
- T: Right. Phonetically instead of visually. I'm trying very hard to do a lot of hands on things.
- I: So you feel there are some things you have to do because of certain requirements, but then there are some other things that you feel you ought to do based on?
- T: Based on developing the child's ability to think.
- I: Just your own opinions? Your own decisions?
- T: Right. I think that is why I like teaching; I feel like I've established the fact that I can teach the basics. I've taught long enough that I don't have anybody watching me every step of the way to make sure that I give the children the information they need. Now I can enjoy using some other things that I feel are important in the classroom to get that knowledge across.

Question: What factors influence whether or not you make a change of some kind in your classroom?

- T: Well, the actual ability of my class as a whole determines that because I teach a wide range of students. With only two classes, I have six in learning disabilities, one in ESP, and about five that are medicated. I teach to all levels so it depends on the ability level. It also depends on the ability of the class as whole to handle unstructured activities. I decide to make a change if I see that the kids aren't getting the information by the way I'm presenting it. For instance we've been working on electricity, and we're learning to build series and parallel circuits. I started teaching Science last year after attending a two week Science class. I teach both sections the Science and last year's class picked it up with no problem at all, just building the circuits and doing the work sheets. This year's class couldn't build the circuits because they couldn't yet see it, so we are cutting the circuits and pasting the circuits. We're building it in a number of different ways because they're not getting it the first way I presented it, so I'm doing it hands on, more, more, more hands on, visual. I'm trying to catch every possible way that they might understand it. They're finally understanding it, but it took me three weeks versus a week to teach it. It depends on the ability level of the kids, the ability to concentrate as a class. I have a very distractible class. They do not concentrate well at all, and they cannot handle any

unstructured time. I have to be very, very careful about that.

I: OK, how much does somebody else telling you to do something in your classroom affect you? Do you find that happening very often, or do you feel the pressure of it out there, but it doesn't affect you?

T: Well, I'd be lying if I said it didn't affect me. I do feel the pressure; however, my principal does not apply a lot of pressure to me in particular. I don't know how much pressure the other teachers feel, but my principal has been very good in backing me and making me feel real confident in what I'm doing so I don't worry too much about that. It's like I feel the pressure more from administration than I do from my own building principal though.

I: OK, so you feel it from a place removed from the school. It's out there and it's probably expected, but so far you've kind of been sheltered from it, at least in your class?

T: One of the things that bothers me, I don't remember which year it was, but one year the test scores came around building to building and you had to sign your initials by your test scores. I thought, who cares? I don't exactly think it's fair to evaluate my class next to the upper level fourth grade class or the accelerated teacher at Garfield when she's got the upper level of six classes and I've got two classes with an average range of children. With what I've got, I think my test scores are real good with the kind of students I have, so I don't worry about that. I thought that didn't seem real professional to me, but I'm not making the decisions either so it didn't embarrass me. My test scores didn't embarrass me. It's just kind of, you know, what is the purpose of this?

I: Yeah, you wonder.

T: Yeah, that's pressure. That's pressure.

Question: Describe any roles you have played in educational reform decision making at the local, state or national level.

T: I feel like I've played some role within my building, I wouldn't say outside of that I have.

I: What kinds of things?

T: I think for one thing, and this is confidential, the other fourth grade teacher and I are working real, real

well together. I think I have been a good model for her. She's very creative and a very good teacher, but she lacks the sensitive side of education. She lacks the humanist, the human characteristic, and there have been some complaints about her unfeeling attitude and things like that. She's come a long way and I don't think that she has been knowingly patterning herself after me, but I think that she has started doing it. She is very creative, and I have learned a lot from her creative side, so I think we have kind of balanced each other out. Part of it is that I try new things every year. My room is constantly changing and I've had a lot of kids two years in a row. I've assured the parents that they won't get the same thing the second year and they don't. They may get the basic same curriculum that I have to do, but the way they learn it is going to be different because I try new things every year. I think a lot of teachers have started because of me and several other teachers in the building that do that have become less cycled in their teaching methods. I think it is real easy for a teacher to go in and I think just about any teacher that's worth anything can learn to teach basics. It's real easy to go in and do just that much of your job and still get a good salary and have some decent test scores without really doing very much work outside of the classroom. I think that I've encouraged some teachers to go a little beyond just teaching basics.

- I: Try some new things. Have you found any teachers that seem to be threatened by other teachers who are striking out in different directions to find new methods, or when you have some success with something do you see colleagues being defensive about it?
- T: Yes, I do.
- I: I guess what I'm looking for here is your opinion. Are teachers receptive to work with each other in a comfortable relationship where they don't feel threatened or are more of them really threatened by performance by the teachers?
- T: That totally depends on where you're teaching. At the school where I am now, it's the best faculty I've ever worked with. I've only been at three different schools, but it is the most receptive faculty I've ever worked with. I'd say that at the present time we don't have a teacher in the building that I would not be happy for my child to have. I don't dread making a decision every year because I'm that comfortable with this faculty. I see a lot of different types of teachers in our building, but there's only been a couple that I've noticed some defensiveness. If you go to the

two week Science class and they don't go. Well, I couldn't go, and the excuses. It's like I don't care, this is something I did for me and my teaching. Harwelden last summer and yeah, it was hard, but it was fun and I think it was good for me. I saw a couple of them get a little bit defensive about that, but they still are not teachers that I wouldn't be happy for my kids to have. It's a really good faculty. I don't know if you can say that about every school. No!

Question: What roles do you feel you should play in the construction of educational reform in Oklahoma?

T: I've come to the conclusion that I'm a leader in some aspects, and in some aspects I'm not. Politically I'm not a leader. I do go when we're asked to the Capitol. I've always gone because I feel like we have to do that. We have some teachers that don't and that upsets me, because I think that is the least we can do is show up at something and show some interest. However, I've tried real hard to talk to parents more than just about how your kid's doing in school, but talk to parents about well what do you think needs to be done, to involve my parents, I think that is just a real small step, but it helps. It's helping in the reform within my classroom in my school, in helping me to know how I can be a better teacher and how I can make education better. I'm not totally, you know, I'm not saying that our educational system is horrible. I don't believe it is. I think that teachers do a lot of things that aren't recognized, but I think we've got a long way to go. We're not getting the support we need and I'm frustrated because I don't know that Oklahoma will ever, ever give us what we need. I don't feel confident in what I've seen happening at the state level.

I: Yeah, me too.

T: Let's move to California!

Question: What will you do in your classroom when asked to implement an adopted reform measure?

T: I might quit.

I: Well, there are a lot that are doing that.

T: It depends on how much of it I can incorporate without making myself miserable. I will evaluate it when I have to do it. If I still like my job I will stay, if teaching is still worth it to me. I can't guess at this point what it's going to feel like. If it is so structured in such a way that I have no freedom to do the things that I think are important and I no longer

enjoy my job, then I may quit education. I don't want to. I love my job right now and as much as I think I would like to be a stay-at-home Mom that's kind of a battle I've fought all along. I love my job and when all those mandates come down I will try them. That's all I can say. I'll try to do what has to be done, but if I don't have any freedom to do the things I think are important for kids then I will be gone.

I: I am trying to remember, there might have been a book that was called, was it "Teaching as a Subversive Activity" or something like that? I can't remember the whole context. These teachers felt like the act of teaching was almost like a covert operation and I thought I heard you kind of saying the same things, that whether I'm able to stay in there or not with all these mandates is going to depend on how well I can get around them.

T: Can I do them and still have the time and freedom to do what I think is important.

I: So how much do they actually impact my daily reality inside that classroom?

T: Weigh it and if the stress is more than I can handle, then I won't.

I: And that's based upon, possibly, experience. Teachers have indicated that there are some mandates that have effects in the classroom, there are others that are simply on paper that don't affect me at all. It's just a little paper program that I can fill out this and that's all of it, or is it something that is really going to impact what I'm doing.

T: After a few years ago when they came out with the minimum criteria and all this, I got very upset. I stressed myself out over it and now it's writing objectives every week. I've condensed those suckers to where they're about this long, and it's not a big deal.

I: Down to a science.

T: Yeah, it's like no big deal and I worried myself over nothing. I was able to incorporate those and not worry so much about them. It wasn't that big a deal, so I'm trying not to think about what if we have to do such and such, because it may not affect me daily that much. If it doesn't, then I'm not going to let it change my career.

Question: If you could make any changes in education you wished, what would they be?

T: First and foremost, class size. That would be the very first thing that I would do. They keep coming out with required class sizes and then they don't give you funding to do it. They end up having to change the law because nobody can possibly do it. I have 29 kids in a tiny classroom and I'm just pulling my hair out. It's just almost more than I can handle this year. It's the largest class I've ever had in this small of a classroom. I've had 30 or more kids, but in a very nice, big room. So that would be the first thing I would do is class size immediately and then I really feel like if the teachers had a class size that was acceptable they could do just about anything. I have a lot of confidence in the teachers that we have around here. I think the second thing is if I could change anything as far as education in general, I would, of course, change funding. I'm not just talking about teachers' salaries, although I used to think that was real selfish. I was placing that above my career, you know, that's more important than what I'm doing. Obviously I wouldn't have been in it this long if I really felt that way. It's embarrassing that somebody can have as much education as some of my colleagues have, not me necessarily, and be making the salaries they're making after 15, 20 years of teaching. I think that shows exactly the priorities of our society. Your management, your bankers and top management, people dealing with money make big money, and I suppose that's just part of living in a free republic. I think our priorities in the United States are all screwed up. When I think of something to compare it to, I think of professional athletes. That's just my little pet peeve and I think look at what we pay them and what we pay our teachers. That's embarrassing. Funding for the teachers' salaries, but also for materials, class size, those things are the most important. I think if I had my class size down half, the materials would do. Sometimes you feel like you're looked down on. It's like what do you do? Oh, I'm a teacher. Oh well, at least you get your summers off.

I: Yeah, so why think about the changes you ought to make? Why is it important that teachers would say these are the changes I think we ought to make? Most teachers go into it real apathetically and what I wonder is do we, as a profession, impose a lot of that on ourselves? Are we relegated to such a blue collar status? I mean, we can call ourselves professional all we want to, but are we really in terms of our respect from the community, our respect for ourselves? Do we really be-

lieve that we ought to be doing these things and for some reason we're not, or do we believe we shouldn't be and if we should be doing them, if we should be saying what we think and engaging in some of these activities, and we should be thinking deeper than just this, why are we not doing that?

T: Well, I'll tell you which seems real simple. Number 1, who's listening? Who cares? Number 2, it takes just about all I have to teach and prepare and keep caught up in the classroom, and be a wife and mother at home and it's like something has got to be slighted in order for me to get out and be political or to help in any other way. It's almost like to me being an educator is an over-whelming job and I see some other people doing it with much less stress than I do. Part of the time it makes me angry, because I think why don't I just take the easy way out and grade my papers and go home and forget it. I simply don't have the energy to go any further. It's like I'm frustrated that I have to do that. I'm frustrated that we're not important enough to the community and to the nation as a whole that they can give us what we need so we can do the job that they want done for their children. If they want me to do the job that needs to be done with their kid, I don't have time to get out and rally for myself.

I: It's almost like you're having to do that job plus you're having to do some other jobs.

T: Yeah, and to me that job, we shouldn't have to do that. I think society should do that for us. I have a high opinion of educators. I do feel like we're professionals and I feel like we're not treated as professionals and I get angry about it.

I: Is it like waging a revolution at the same time you're holding down a job? I mean I've often thought maybe in some of the countries especially lately where they've had the massive social and I guess military revolutions also, and I'm thinking there is really nothing different there. Those people have said we've had it with this and we're not going to do it anymore, this is what we're going to do. They didn't get that done by doing that job and their job that they had at the same time.

T: No, and how did they do it?

I: It takes almost total commitment in time and energy and sacrificing of life in a lot of cases.

T: Right, and the people that I see around here that are politically active they get a day off to go do it. You just can't do all the things that we need to do for

ourselves, and yet I don't feel like we should have to do it. I don't feel bad that teachers aren't getting out there and doing it. I think that when we're given an opportunity like during the summer to take a day and go to the capitol, yeah, I think we should do that every chance we get. I don't feel bad that I don't go spend my evenings doing some things for reform, because I'm going to slight my job at school and my family at home if I'm going to do those things. I feel like those things ought to be done for me. Maybe I'm wrong, maybe my expectations are too high.

Question: Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it is today.

T: Education is a sailboat without a breeze.

I: All right.

T: Is that simple enough for you?

I: That's good. A lot of people are talking about boats and the breeze represents, well, if you were in a tug boat you wouldn't have a motor. You wouldn't have a motor so you're in a sailboat though and you don't have a breeze, so without that breeze how do you ever get anywhere?

T: I'm not sure that we are. Maybe I'm talking about as a whole. I'm not talking about a child getting any kind of an education. I'm talking about education in America. We're not moving forward. I think we did move forward for a number of years from where we started a hundred years ago. We've moved forward, but I don't feel like in a number of years we've really moved forward. I don't think that means we are at the lowest point we could be, but we're just not going anywhere, we're at a standstill.

I: OK, I buy that concept. Let's keep thinking about it a little. Let's put ourselves on the boat and let's put ourselves without a breeze and let's not worry that we're not going anywhere. Let's figure out thought what it is we're doing during the day on that boat.

T: Trying to stay afloat.

I: OK, so we're going to be doing some maintenance types of things. We're going to be hoping that maybe the wind will start blowing.

T: We're waiting for the breeze.

I: OK, we're hoping the wind's going to blow, and if we

haven't had any wind we might not even care a whole lot which way it's blowing from, which direction.

T: Right, we just want some movement.

I: And so if we had a class full of students on that boat, what could we expect to do with them?

T: Teach them some way to make the boat move without the breeze on their own, which is what I feel like educators are doing. We're trying to figure out a way to keep education moving without proper funding, without the backing from society, you know.

I: So in a way we may have to figure out how to build a new boat that's going to work without any wind?

T: Right, get some oars or something, or paddling.

I: Well, the difference between that concept and the concept that someone is activating the wind or not, it's almost like we don't have any control over whether the wind blows or not in the example that you used. We still have some inner direction that we can go and we can do some other things, but let's suppose that we've got some wind but we don't have a sail that we can move around. If we can't move the sail or if we can't move the rudder, what are we dependent on to get where ever we need to go. We're dependent on the direction.

T: The way the wind is blowing.

I: I sometimes feel like we've got a whole lot of wind blowing, but we don't always know which way the wind is coming from and the school, the structure that we've got, the rudder or the sail is fixed in a certain way that we're not able to adjust it to keep the school going in the direction that we need to go. What happens is those winds start changing direction, we get the school moved over here for a while, and then the wind changes and we go back over here for a while, and then we may go back here and then we may go there.

T: Yes, but essentially we're standing still.

I: So all that has happened and we're right back where we started?

T: Yes, right back where we started from. Sure we move, three steps forward, two steps back, whatever, but it doesn't seem like we ever end up going very far. If you don't have a breeze you're going to float and move a little bit.

I: And that's what I've always wondered then about achievement test scores. Let's say we got what we were after. My question is, so what? If everybody, every kid in the whole world scored 95% on that achievement test, so what?

T: Yeah, exactly what does the kid know?

I: What does it mean, what does it cause to happen in society?

T: Well I can see the pressure that is being put upon us. I can see sometimes if we will give them what they want, which is high test scores, maybe they will give us what we need to do the rest. Maybe we have to play that game. I don't think that is the most important thing and I'm kind of sick of hearing about test scores, but maybe we need to just give it to them so they will give us what we need and we can continue to teach what we want to teach.

I: Or we will figure out, you know, there is another question whether we can give it to them anyway. We maybe can manufacture them.

T: You can teach the test, I suppose, anybody can do that. So far I've refused but it depends on how much pressure they put upon me.

Question: Use a metaphor to describe the education process as it should be.

T: Education is a ladder by which people reach their potential.

I: OK

T: I just don't see my job is there to teach a certain set of facts. I see my job is to teach the kid how to learn and how to think so he can get where he wants to be in life, or where he needs to be, or should be. Of course, then you get into motivation and what does the kid want for himself. I think if we teach them to learn and to think creatively, critically, whatever, that the potential is going to be a lot higher for all society as a whole.

I: Is the ladder any certain height?

T: Oh no, it's like a line.

I: It just keeps going?

- T: Yes, definitely. I always thought that was funny. A line is never ending and it is hard to explain to a kid. They're looking at this line and you're saying it is never ending and they say, "sure it is, it's an inch and half long." They don't see that.
- I: OK. I'm thinking of some things that could happen on the ladder. I guess, as a student is going up the ladder, a rung could break?
- T: Sure it could, but if we're doing what we should be doing the student can get right back up and get back on. That's simplifying it a lot if we're doing what we should be doing. I'll put it that way. Sometimes I think it's almost beyond our control in what a kid can do.
- I: Is it beyond the kid's control what he can do?
- T: Sometimes, yes, I think so.
- I: That was going to be my next question. What determines where a kid stops on the ladder and you've already said something that went along with that when you said sometimes it's out of control.
- T: OK, we're back to what it is.
- I: What it should be. I'm thinking that a student should be able to go all the way to where ever it is he wants to go and it's entirely up to him.
- T: If it's as it should be, then we have means to reach that child. Of course, I immediately think of where you are. I'm talking about maybe I should not mainstream kids, kids in a regular elementary school not multi-handicapped kids, not severely or profoundly retarded. I'm talking about potentially average IQ's that may have severe learning disabilities. I think if all is as it should be we have the funding, the teachers, the resources to reach that child and give them the opportunity to keep climbing the ladder, their ladder may not go as high as their neighbor's ladder. Maybe that's something I need to differentiate there. I didn't think it through that much.
- I: It's a good question though.
- T: Sure, and there you could get into a child who IQ was or whose potential was not even average, maybe their ladder.
- I: If you looked at the ladder, not in terms of total

height, but in number of rungs on the ladder, anyone of any ability could make a certain number of steps.

T: Yes, I wasn't thinking of that because I was only putting myself in the situation that I'm in now where I have at least one severely learning disabled child and I have a lot that go to learning disabilities. I'm thinking only as low as that child is; I'm not thinking past that because my experience isn't with other children. We go back to all children can learn something. Yes, they all can if education is as it should be they're going to learn. They're going to be able to do more than we're currently allowing them to do. Maybe there's more steps on somebody's ladder than somebody else's ladder, but I think we should be able to reach all kids and I don't think we are now. I just got my 29th student three weeks ago and she comes from an all day learning disabilities program in California. Our LD class is full, much less a full day class. What am I going to be able to do for her when I've already got 28 kids sitting in there that need me. Just how far can I stretch myself? No further, so that ladder isn't going to go and I wrestle with that everyday. I think I ought to be doing such and such for this child and unless we come up with the ability to reach these kids through additional teachers, additional funding, additional materials, her ladder is not going to go very high.

Question: If there is a difference between the educational process as it is and the way it should be, describe what you are doing to change the process.

T: That's what frustrates me. I don't think I can change it. That's the part that I go way back to that ought to be done for me.

I: You don't know if you can change it. OK? What things really weigh on your mind that make you feel like you can't?

T: Time.

I: So you feel that in order for you to do the things that you feel you need to do, to really make a difference in some of these tough situations to turn them around, there's a tremendous investment in time that you're not able to make in a typical day?

T: Right.

I: Based on the fact that there isn't enough time in a day, or based on the fact that you would have to not do something else in order to do that?

- T: Not do something else. I'm forced to decide priorities as far as children go and I don't like that. I'm not good at that. I feel bad about that. I feel guilty.
- I: Does it bother you?
- T: Yes, and that is something I don't handle well at all. I have to say the needs of my 28 others have to outweigh her needs and if I were her mother how would I feel? I'm not telling you I'm ignoring this child. I'm doing all I can in a very limited amount of time and it's not enough. It's not nearly enough.
- I: How do you find yourself dealing with the specific problem? Do you find yourself playing to the middle of the class. Do you feel like that you're not doing as much for the smarter ones as you could and you're not doing as much for the lower functioning ones as you could? Do you see yourself spending more time at one end and ignoring the other end, or do you go back and forth?
- T: I go back and forth. I was waiting for you to say something that I could relate to, because I go back and forth. I try not to center on one high, middle, low because I've got children at all ranges and if I go back and forth then I don't have to deal with the guilty feeling like I never meet their needs.
- I: So there are times that you're really going to drop down to really get these kids involved at the risk of the other possibly being bored or saying this is really work.
- T: That's why I've incorporated the task board this year. That was the only answer I could come up with on how to give the children who are always finished and always have things to do. I do not believe in busy work. I believe if the kid can 50 math problems they can do 10, why do they have to do 50? So I'm not one to give long assignments which means I'm left with lots of children who are finished who need reinforcement of good activities, things that I don't get to daily. That's what I'm trying to do now is to provide a way for the high ones to go on, continue to learn and be reinforced while I'm working with low ones. Sometimes I think the middle child suffers. The children who get the very most are the low and then come the high and the last is the middle. The average kid to me gets the very least as far as education. The high kids get tons of field trips and tons of experiences, and we all know that those experiences are what make them learn better. Yet these kids already know how to learn better and they

get all the experiences. These kids need the experiences so they can learn better, and they need it more than these kids do and they don't get it. These kids get the money and the special classes. I have a real hard time dealing with three kids getting a teacher and an aide in a classroom. Probably most of us have more average children, and deal with wondering why your kids don't get some of the things, some of the money that is being spent at these other ends. I don't center on anyone and maybe I should. Maybe I should stick with the middle of the road and catch more, but I feel like as a parent I would want my child's needs met where ever they were. So I try to meet their needs, all of their needs, some of the time.

- I: By you doing the task board, isn't that in fact your changing something from the way it is to the way it should be?
- T: Oh, yes.
- I: Isn't that like saying in order for the sailboat to move because it doesn't have any wind right now, I'm going to do something to get it to move. I wonder how many things teachers actually are doing that have direct results on changing the delivery of school work or changing the environment of schools that they don't even know that they're doing?
- T: I see a lot of it going on in my building. I see teachers constantly reaching out and trying new things and we've now got task board in about half of our classes and got some other teachers interested.
- I: I wonder if we did think about it that would allow us to do even more than what we're doing or it would allow us to make better decisions as to how to use those few minutes that we have in the day that we don't have enough of. If we're doing these things, are we doing them just by accident, or are we doing them by personal intuition, or are we doing them because we say somebody else do them, and we think, "hey" that is pretty neat. I'll try that!
- T: I'm doing some things like that out of frustration. I don't mean out of a negative attitude. I mean out of frustration at not being able to do it all myself and realizing, finally, that I have to provide another means because I can't do it for all of them.

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VITA

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KNOWLEDGEE-CONSTITUTIVE INTERESTS IN THE CLASSROOM

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