Dissertations and Theses @ UNI   Student Work

1993

A meeting of cultures: Faculty and part-time doctoral students in an EdD program

Paul R. Smith
University of Northern Iowa

Let us know how access to this document benefits you

Recommended Citation

Smith, Paul R., "A meeting of cultures: Faculty and part-time doctoral students in an EdD program" (1993). *Dissertations and Theses @ UNI*. 813.
https://scholarworks.uni.edu/etd/813

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

U·M·I

Order Number 9420290

A meeting of cultures: Faculty and part-time doctoral students
in an EdD program

Smith, Paul Ronald, Ed.D.

University of Northern Iowa, 1993

U·M·I
300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

A MEETING OF CULTURES: FACULTY AND

PART-TIME DOCTORAL STUDENTS IN AN EdD PROGRAM

A Dissertation

Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Approved:

_____
Dr. John K. Smith

_____
Dr. James Doud

_____
Dr. Mark Grey

_____
Dr. Florence Guido-DiBrito

_____
Dr. Carmen Montecinos

_____
Dr. Jack Yates

Paul R. Smith

University of Northern Iowa

December 1993

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the part-time doctoral students and the faculty of the college of education for their assistance in this study. Without their willingness to participate, this study would not have been possible. Also, I would like to acknowledge the support, encouragement, and assistance given to me by my chairperson Dr. John Smith.

TABLE OF CONTENTS
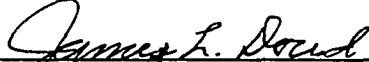
LIST OF TABLES

A MEETING OF CULTURES: FACULTY AND

PART-TIME DOCTORAL STUDENTS IN AN EDD PROGRAM

An Abstract of a Dissertation

Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Approved:

John K Smith

Faculty Advisor
Dr. John K. Smith

John W. Somervill

Dean of the Graduate College
Dr. John W. Somervill

Paul R. Smith

University of Northern Iowa

December 1993

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the cultural perspectives of the part-time doctoral students in educational administration and of selected faculty in the college of education at a medium sized middle western university. More specifically, the intent was to determine what types of cultures existed within these groups, the factors contributing to the development of these cultures, and what affect these factors had on the EdD degree itself. A qualitative research approach was taken and included individual interviews, classroom observations, and university documents. Non-participant observations included five doctoral classes and related formal and informal conversations. The data gathering period was from December 1992 through April 1993.

Results indicated that communication was lacking between participants in this study but was sufficient for two distinct cultures to develop. The first culture, which I call the vocational culture, was made up of part-time doctoral students in, and instructors of, the educational administration department. The perspectives of the vocational culture were developed on values, beliefs, and goals that emphasized skills, training, processes, and procedures for effective educational administrators. The second group, which I titled the academic culture, emphasized the more traditional, academic, research

emphasis and was made up of the instructors of the professional common core subjects. The adoption of the Ed.D. degree caused the university to search for a new identity which caused each culture to convince the part-time doctoral student in educational administration that their respective values, beliefs, and goals was knowledge most worth knowing.

The genuine feeling of sympathy for the time constraints and other situations affecting the part-time doctoral student in educational administration caused a certain amount of accommodation and negotiation to take place that enables the students a questionable degree of influence concerning degree expectations.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship of the subculture of part-time doctoral students, who are also practicing educational administrators, to the culture of their major department, and indirectly to the culture of their college of education and their university. For the purposes of this study, part-time doctoral students are defined as those students with at least provisional degree status in the doctoral program who are not in residence at the university. Residence is defined as being present on campus on a daily, continuous basis. Practitioners are defined as students who, while pursuing their EdD degrees, remain employed as full-time school administrators or as teachers who are attempting to become school administrators.

Broadly speaking, this study revolves around three fundamental questions. First, what norms, values, and patterns of behavior are both developed and expressed by students as a result of their interactions among themselves and with the faculty? Second, what is the extent to which this student culture differs from, or is in accord with, the cultures-subcultures of the university and its subdivisions. And, finally, what affect does this situation have on the educational program?

It is the culture of the university in general that
ostensibly determines program goals, establishes the norms
for appropriate and inappropriate behavior, sets the
standards for quality performance, and determines and
structures the knowledge transmitted. In practice,
however, students are able to have an effect--sometimes
consciously, sometimes unconsciously--on these norms,
standards, and goals. Although the institution has a
powerful influence on students, students also have an
influence on the university (Bushnell, 1964). Students are
able to employ various tactics to ensure that they are more
than passive recipients of the university culture. This
situation often is referred to in the literature as
"bargaining the curriculum."

This process of mutual influence can sometimes be a
source of tension. Gitlin (1990) noted that such tension
is greatest when the official "ideology" of the university
differs from the "ideology" of the students. Put
differently, the greater the gap between the purposes and
motives of the university and the purposes and motives of
the student, the greater the likelihood for tension and
continuing cultural conflict. This gap and tension can
have a profound effect, as might well be expected, on the
educational program.

Nature of the EdD Degree

The nature of the EdD degree is by no means the same at all institutions. It depends on the particular philosophies of the individual institutions and on the types of students who attend them. It is generally accepted that EdD programs are designed for those individuals who will continue in, or return to, the field as practicing educational administrators. The PhD degree, on the other hand, is traditionally associated with research and university teaching. This situation leads immediately to an important issue: What type of relationship exists within the faculty if some adhere to the field-based ideology of the EdD degree and others emphasize the importance of theory and research as it is commonly associated with the PhD degree? The importance of this issue is clear because these different emphases could result in a lack of direction in the doctoral program and, accordingly, confusion on the part of the students.

Culture-Subculture

In his attempts to define culture, Becher (1984) stated that "I would unhesitatingly use another word in preference to one that seems at times downright slippery and at other times impossibly vague" (p. 161). The term slippery is appropriate because it clearly portrays the varying definitions encountered when examining this

concept. Kuh and Whitt (1988) believed these varying definitions are understandable, because culture is a complex, elusive web of assumptions, beliefs, and behaviors that represent learned products of group experiences. Moreover, Delworth and Hanson (1989) believed because people impose their own subjective constructions on these group experiences, multiple interpretations of behavior are legitimate.

In spite of the varied definitions and varied approaches to the study of culture, Taylor (1984) felt it was still the most productive concept for examining a society, a religion, or, in this case, a university academic unit. Put simply, if one's purpose is to understand and explain human, social action, then the study of culture is essential because it is in light of culture that events that seem out of place can be made intelligible (Delworth & Hanson, 1989).

Of paramount importance to this study are two fundamental considerations. First, culture will be defined as "the persistent patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that shape the behavior of individuals and groups and provides the frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off the campus" (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 13). Second, this study will emphasize the study of culture in terms of

the theory of symbolic interactionism. Symbolic
interactionism was first enunciated by Charles Horton
Cooley (1902), John Dewey (1957), George Herbert Mead
(1934), and Herbert Blumer (1969). Chief among these
theorists and philosophers was Mead, who believed that "the
development of the self was critical in symbolic
interactionism because the self reaches its full
development by organizing individual attitudes of others
into organized social or group attitudes" (p. 158). A key
concept of this perspective is the "idea of the negotiated
social order" (Strauss, Schatzman, Ehrlich, Bucher, &
Sobshin, cited in Guba, 1990, p. 110). This idea means
that "social rules and norms are made up and defined by
people in particular contexts as they go about their daily
lives" (Guba, p. 110). Symbolic interactionism places
emphasis on the conscious aspects of human behavior that
are related to the individual's participation in group
life. This theory that assumes "human behavior is to be
understood as a process in which the person shapes and
controls his conduct by taking into account, through the
mechanism of 'role taking,' the expectations of others with
whom he interacts" (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961,
p. 19). Symbolic interactionism was the theoretical base
for the classic study by Becker et al. entitled <u>Boys</u>

in White. This theory will be used to similar ends in this study.

University Culture

The university and its various administrative units, such as departments, are shaped culturally by both external and internal forces. The former may include such things as the particular community within which the university resides, its geographical location, funding sources, and governmental agencies. The latter may include such things as the values, beliefs, and attitudes of the university faculty and the historical tradition of a particular institution. According to Kuh and Whitt (1988), all of these factors have a definite and lasting effect on the university and, in turn, they have a pronounced effect on the students. The internal forces within the university will be the main focus of this study.

One main internal factor is the mission, or what people think should be the mission of a university or college. Sanford (1962) believed a college had two basic purposes: to serve societal or cultural needs and to develop the individual. Societal and cultural purposes refer to the need to instruct, train, and mold individuals to meet both the present and future requirements of our civilization, society, and culture. Education concerned with the development of the individual does not ask what

the individual should know or do, but what qualities the individual should achieve.

Wolff (1969) stated that colleges and universities were founded for various reasons: to preserve an old faith, to proselytize a new one, to train skilled workers, to raise the standards of the profession, to expand the frontiers of knowledge, and even to educate the young. Wolff noted, in light of their different purposes, that there are four models of the university: (a) a sanctuary of scholarship, (b) a training camp for professions, (c) a social service station, and (d) an assembly line for the establishment man. He personally believed that "ideally the university should be a sanctuary of scholarship; a place where the scholar pursues a calling that develops in him a refined sensibility and appreciation of the complexities of humanity and God" (p. 5).

When practical forces dominate, however, the university becomes a training camp for professionals. Comparisons of the efforts of different occupations to achieve professionalization suggest that setting educational achievement levels and then bolstering them through licensing laws is a common tactic (Collins, 1971). These professional programs, which are subject to regulation and certification by the profession, inculcate special skills or a specialized body of knowledge and

socialize students into the norms of the profession. Wolff (1969) believed the difference between the university as a place for scholars and as a place for professionals is reflected in the types of "payoffs" earned. For the scholar, the intellectual benefits are valued in and of themselves; for the professional, success is most often equated with an economic result. It is not difficult to see that the cultures attendant to these two models are quite different and even incompatible.

Colleges of Education

The study of culture within colleges of education is limited in that research has only marginally examined the interactions that take place as colleges attempt to inculcate certain knowledge, skills, and behavior in their students. To the extent culture is examined, it is in terms of how conformity is attempted through the certification process. Gottlieb (1961) believed this is a process that presumably guarantees the continuation of the cultural norms, values, beliefs, and practices of the profession from one generation of practitioners to the next. This process of control through acculturation and socialization is sponsored by the faculty's ability to influence the career advancement of graduate students.

Departments of educational administration. As in the case with colleges of education, research on departments of

educational administration has focused on issues such as courses offered and credits required for certification. Studies by Baird (1969), Heard (1963), and Wilson (1965), which presented information about student finances, progress towards degrees, and length of time students take to obtain the doctorate, are typical of this approach. This situation has led others, such as Foster (1984), to wonder why research on educational administration should concern itself primarily with demographics, given that it is a field concerned with the interrelationships of groups and the cultural forces that shape these interrelationships.

Student Culture

Students who share a common set of beliefs, values, and motives in continuous interaction with each other produce understandings and attitudes known as student culture. Gottlieb and Hodgkins (1963) defined a student sub-culture as "a segment of the student body at a given institution holding a value orientation distinctive of that of the college community and/or other segments of the student body" (p. 272).

The interaction between the students and the university sometimes results in socialization efforts not intended by the university. This leads to the formation of subgroups or subcultures which are based, in large part,

upon the responses of students to the academic milieu. Becker et al. (1961) found these subgroups develop best where the students are faced with similar problems and interact frequently.

Most studies dealing with student culture concentrate on undergraduate students (Bushnell, 1964; Gottlieb, 1961). In many of these studies, researchers looked at the initial attitudes and values students bring with them to college. Horowitz (1987) called these experiences the "baggage of their short pasts" (p. 11) because these initial attitudes and values are soon affected by the characteristics of the existing student body and the university. For older non-traditional students, these previous experiences will create an "anchoring point" from which they judge the possibilities encountered (Doob, 1983). The power of these effects is determined by the university ethos as well as the personnel, authority structure, size, and complexity of the institution.

An attempt was made by Clark and Trow (1966) to identify four subgroups, which they called the academic, collegiate, vocational, and non-conformist. Other researchers believed that attempting to place students in categories was not useful because of the wide variety, interests, and beliefs among the students. They felt extant typologies and other classification schemes tend to

describe role orientations and ideal types rather than true
subcultures (Bolton & Kammeyer, 1972; Horowitz, 1987;
Warren, 1968).

Graduate student cultures. One must first study the
students when one considers higher education programs and
goals because the development of graduate students as a
human resource is a primary function of higher education
(Yamamoto, 1968). However, most studies go no further than
to collect demographic information through the use of
individual surveys and questionnaires. Those surveys
concentrate on the traits of students, their degrees of
satisfaction with the programs, the amount of stress they
feel, the time required for them to complete the programs,
and their financial obligations as graduate students.

Creager (1971) noted that it is remarkable so little
has been done to access graduate students' reports of their
experiences and developing expectations. Similarly, Baird
(1969) found no comprehensive investigation of graduate
students and the character of their relationship to one
another, their professors, or their departments. Baird
did, however, identify five factors he believed affected
graduate student cultures: (a) peer interaction,
(b) academic difficulty of the program, (c) tension between
students, (d) conflict and lack of clarity with professor
and class content, and (e) warm student/faculty relations.

Of these, tension caused by competition for grades, honors, and scholarships was the strongest factor affecting student interaction. In the final analysis, there has been only a limited examination of the cultural development, through interaction, that takes place within graduate student populations.

Part-time doctoral student culture. There is less information on the part-time doctoral student than on any other student group (Kowalik, 1989). There is at least one major reason for this situation. The study of part-time doctoral students is limited because they are not noticed by the university as much as are full-time students. That is, the part-time doctoral students have less interaction with faculty and among themselves than is the case for other types of students. In any event, the study of the culture of part-time doctoral students is not nearly as evident, or as well established, as that of full-time students.

Qualitative Research

The reason I chose a qualitative method for this study is best described by Max Weber's statement that "man is an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun. I take culture to be those webs, and the analysis of it to be, therefore, not an experimental science in search

of law, but an [interpretative] one in search of meaning"
(cited in Geertz, 1973, p. 5).

A qualitative study is necessary to achieve a clearer
understanding of the related interactions between the
university culture and the part-time doctoral student
culture. The questions asked in this study make it clear
that the task does not lend itself to quantifiable
solutions, but requires the more flexible, less restricted
design of qualitative research. If unknown and equally
important issues make themselves known, the qualitative
format allows one to pursue them. It is for this reason
that I conducted this study using qualitative research
practices.

Qualitative researchers believe strongly in the need
for a reflective process that can, if undertaken with care,
lead to a greater understanding of human experiences as
these are achieved through individual and group
interaction. Reflection, which means to think, to think
carefully, or to be thoughtful, requires us to back away
from what we now believe, and to clearly examine why we
believe the way we do. To accomplish this, the
investigator maintains a certain sense of distance, the
ability to stand back and recognize the obvious or
taken-for-granted assumptions that often provide important
starting points for understanding. And, most importantly,

as Mead (1934) noted, it is only self-conscious reflection
that

> makes possible the purposive control and organization
> by the individual organism of its conduct, with
> reference to the various social and physical
> situations in which it becomes involved and to which
> it reacts. (p. 91)

Procedure

Symbolic interactionism is the sociological method of
examining individual and group interactions. I will employ
this concept as the basic theoretical framework for my
examination of part-time doctoral students as they interact
with others in their environment. The importance of this
approach was made clear by Mead (1934) when he stated that

> the process of experience which the human brain makes
> possible is made possible only for a group of
> interacting individuals: only for individual
> organisms which are members of a society; not for the
> individual organism in isolation from other individual
> organisms. (p. 133)

Symbolic interactionism emphasizes individual participation
in group life by examining the more conscious aspects of
human behavior in a group setting.

Unstructured interviews and active observation are the
preferred ways to examine these interactions. Every
interview has some structure; the difference is in how much
and how it is negotiated. Structure is predetermined in
some cases, whereas in others it is shaped in the process
of the interview itself. In my case, the latter is
preferred because it allows the interviewer and the

participants to discuss items of interest and importance to the student and faculty members. Follow-up interviews will be undertaken if it is felt necessary to clarify initial findings. All interviews will be transcribed verbatim and the participants given an opportunity to read them for accuracy. I will attempt to interview all part-time doctoral students, as well as faculty members, in the Department of Educational Administration and Counseling as well as instructors of required core courses. I will interview 29 students and 12 faculty members.

The second procedure in this study is observations. Observations can be classified in various ways, such as participant or non-participant observations. In this instance, because I will not be a registered class member, I will be a non-participant observer. My focus will be on the activities of part-time doctoral students as they interact with each other and with their instructors. The observations will take place both in formal classroom settings and in informal settings outside the classroom. Field notes will be taken on interactions observed between and among part-time students and the faculty of the College of Education.

As the analysis of interviews and non-participant observations progresses, I will isolate pertinent data revealing the results of interactions between and within

the cultures of the part-time doctoral students and the faculty.

<u>Setting</u>

This study will be conducted wherever and whenever the part-time doctoral students are available for interviews and observation. More specifically, interviews and non-participant observations will take place in any location within the College of Education where classes are held and when, in the case of the interviews, it is possible to have at least one hour of uninterrupted time. Also, when necessary, I will conduct interviews off campus--which may include the work places and/or the residences of the participants.

I anticipate that, as the study continues, unforeseen topics or issues will become evident. As is always the case with qualitative inquiry, emphasis must be placed on those matters in which the participants themselves seem personally interested or about which they are concerned. Those items may deal with things such as conflict, tension, and cooperation between the students and the faculty.

Administrative study exists within a social and cultural context; it is concerned with the nature of administration in the sense that it places the actions/ interactions of educational administrators and others within both an institutional and broader sociocultural

framework. These important considerations have frequently been neglected in administrative studies in education, yet they are crucial for a proper understanding of the role administrators play in the educational setting. I anticipate this study will contribute to an increased understanding concerning the motives, aspirations, and goals of the part-time doctoral students in educational administration.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review is divided into two sections. The first focuses on the concept of culture, and the second explores the literature related to the culture of the student and the university.

Rose (1972) noted that culture is often defined in three related ways. First, culture is a way of life that is shared by people as members of a social grouping, nation, region, or occupation. Second, culture is a way of life that is more or less permanent or stable and is the bearer, thereby, of providing the traditions that are passed on from one generation to the next. Third, the concept of culture is seen as that aspect of society that sanctions socially accepted or expected behavior--that defines for people the right and the wrong of their social lives.

One of the most crucial aspects of culture is that it gives meaning to human experiences. In this sense, Eisner (1991) referred to culture "as the ability to explain why something is taking place and the meaning it has for those being studied; the meaning events have for those who experience them" (p. 35). Similarly, Dill (1982) stated that cultures are "the shared beliefs, ideologies, or dogmas of a group which impel individuals to action and

give their actions meaning" (p. 307). These ideologies or beliefs provide cultural meaning to the actions of individuals and, by extension, organizations (Hodgkinson, 1991).

<u>Anthropological Perspectives on Culture</u>

For anthropologists culture "embodies the traditional and social heritage of a people; their customs and practices; their transmitted knowledge, beliefs, law, and morals; their linguistic and symbolic forms of communication, and the meanings they share" (Becher, 1984, p. 157). For the most part, anthropologists have taken two traditional approaches to the study of culture, the sociocultural and the ideational.

<u>Sociocultural</u>

Sociocultural traditions hold that personal interactions are crucial for developing and holding social systems together, and behaviors exhibited through these personal interactions create bonds of shared experiences within society (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). These interactions and shared experiences usually are examined in terms of five contrasting perspectives: (a) functionalism,
(b) structural-functionalism, (c) ecological-adaptionism,
(d) historical-diffusion, and (e) cultural materialism
(Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

Functionalism. Functionalism focuses on everyday experiences and organizational structures that evolve over time based on these everyday experiences. Culture plays a functional role in helping individuals cope with these experiences (Malinowski, 1961). That is, from these experiences and structures come the sagas, stories, and myths that give meaning to the everyday experiences of people (Clark, 1972).

Structural-functionalism. Structural-functionalism sees culture as an adaptive mechanism that allows groups of people to become an ordered society (Radcliffe-Brown, 1952). Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) and Kuh and Whitt (1988), adopting this perspective, note that formal organizations, such as a department or college will be structured to fulfill certain functions for the overall institution. That is, in relation to the university, the function of culture is to maintain the social system through structuring the relationships of individuals and groups.

Ecological-adaptionism. Ecological-adaptionism focuses on how "socially transmitted behavior determines culture by connecting human organizations to their settings." From this viewpoint, one cannot separate a relationship from its environment because neither can be defined independent of the other (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p.

30). For example, even though values within an organization may vary from the host institution and form a subculture, there must be some elements within the subculture that are generally consistent with the host institution (Sanford, 1962).

Historical-diffusionism. The historical-diffusionism approach depends heavily on the concepts of acculturation and assimilation. These concepts lead to a view of culture as being developed by historical events that evolve over time (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Tradition, which is evident in the values and ideologies that have been present within an institution since its founding, is of crucial concern (Clark, 1972). Thus, historical diffusionists emphasize language and behavior patterns and focus on the development of particular cultures at different times in history (Hall, 1976).

Cultural materialism. Cultural materialism is an essentially Marxist viewpoint in that it is the means of production in a society or social grouping that determines the character of the social, economic, political, and spiritual processes (Harris, 1979). The human race faces common threats to its existence and people rely on cultural mechanisms to cope with these economic problems (Harris). Harris referred to cultural materialism as "a scientific research strategy, because cultural beliefs are examined

from an external view rather than the internal view" (p. 5).

Ideational

Another anthropological approach to the study of culture is called ideational. Proponents of ideationalism claim that people make sense of their experiences through language and symbols. The ideational view gives people access to the conceptual world and the ability to converse with it (Geertz, 1973). This view has four distinct aspects: (a) cognitive or ethnographic, (b) structuralist, (c) mutual equivalence, and (d) symbolic or semiotic (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984).

Cognitive or ethnographic. The term ethnography, rooted in anthropology, means a description of the way of life of a race or group of people (Woods, 1986). Cognitivists, or ethnographers, claim that culture is a system of knowledge or a set of learned standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating, and acting. Ethnography is concerned with what people are, how they behave, and how they interact together. Geertz (1973), elaborated on this concern when he said that "What practitioners do is ethnography, and it is in understanding what ethnography is, or more precisely what doing ethnography is, that a start can be made towards grasping what anthropological analysis amounts to as a form of knowledge" (p. 5). In

this context, culture has been seen as a "system for perceiving and organizing material phenomena, things, events, behavior, and emotions through ethnography" (Goodenough cited in Rossi & Higgins, 1980, p. 63).

Structuralist. Structuralists believe that "culture is made up of symbols, which are the cumulative products of the mind. These products develop into unconscious processes and predilections (Levi-Strauss, as cited in Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 32). From these unconscious processes groups have developed universals or general laws that help to establish understandings of our behavior in social settings. In the structuralist view, "people use a particular set of beliefs to make sense of experiences and to provide predictable responses in complex situations" (Kuh & Whitt, p. 33).

Mutual equivalence. Proponents of mutual equivalence view culture as "standardized conditions that make up a general framework for predicting and understanding behavior within the context of the social setting" (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 33). Through repeated interactions, people gain understandings of how to live in society. These repetitive acts have become reinforcing loops and are evident in all institutions when they allow for the individual to attain personal goals within the structure of the institution's goals (Weick, 1976).

Symbolic or semiotic. Human beings in all cultures are dependent upon symbols which are seen as an extension of direct experience. Symbolic or semiotic theorists hold that "culture does not live in the mind of the individual but emerges through shared meanings conveyed by their signs and symbols. These symbols stand for a multiplicity of meanings and impel men to action" (Geertz, 1973, p. 145). First and foremost, symbols define, clarify, or manage the fundamental enigma of existence. Symbols, in this sense, are defined as signs that are freely created, that represent the same content, and that are transmitted by tradition. Beliefs, expressive symbols, and values are the framework from which individuals define their world (Godon, 1969).

The terms metonomy and metaphor are important in the semiotics perspective. Metonomy refers to "a sign or symbol that is a part of what arises from the whole, such as a single note from a tune. Metaphor refers to a sign or symbol that does not function as a part of the object, such as a 'ship ploughs the sea'" (Barley, 1983, p. 397). The metaphor fit in this case even though ploughs are not part of a ship.

Whitehead (1958) noted that "symbolism is fallible in the sense that it may induce action, feelings, emotions, and beliefs that are mere notions without that

exemplification in the world which symbolism leads to
presuppose" (p. 1). For Whitehead, symbolism and symbols
in the life of a culture are not static; instead they tend
to grow, change, and require constant pruning. This is
especially true in our most familiar symbol, language,
because "words and manners of speech change as society and
culture change" (Godon, 1969, pg. 52). Symbolism, as an
element of culture, is important because "language, ritual,
and myths are simply forms of symbolism and become a frame
of reference or style of analysis in its own right"
(Pettigrew, 1979, p. 575). Language is not just outside
us and given to us as part of our culture and historical
heritage, "it is also within us; we can create it, and it
impels us" (Pettigrew, p. 576).

The vocal gesture is the actual fountainhead of
language proper, all the derivative forms of symbolism and
of the mind (Mead, 1934). These gestures, affecting us as
they affect others, "call out the attitudes which we and
others take, as we assume each others role" (p. 91). These
expressive symbols become the "fabric" of meaning
determined by the way individuals interpret their
experience and guide their action. Social structure,
actually existing networks of social relations, is the form
that action takes (Geertz, 1973). Language systems are a
method of looking at becoming, rather than being, as

individuals attempt to interpret their experiences and actions (Pettigrew, 1979).

Of these two approaches to the examination of culture by anthropology, the sociocultural view leads researchers to observe individual actions within the context of the institution's social system. This perspective involves both group and individual studies. The ideational view directs attention to the idea that culture is interpreted by individuals and, therefore, one must examine the individual cultural bearer. In the sociocultural tradition, culture does something; in the ideational tradition, culture is something (Petersen, Cameron, Mets, Jones, & Ettington, 1986).

Sociological Perspectives on Culture

Sociologists take a different perspective on culture. Kuh and Whitt (1988) said that there are four major ways to approach culture from a sociological perspective. "These ways can be labeled as: (a) formal organizational properties, (b) subcultures, (c) socialization, and (d) enactment" (p. 36).

Formal Organizational Properties

Many scholars maintain that all institutions, including universities and colleges, create hierarchical bureaucracies for formal organizational purposes. These conventional models of organizing emphasize hierarchical

structures, clear communication channels, top-down expertise, control, authority and reliability, and predictability (Delworth & Hanson, 1989). These organizing efforts have resulted in departments, colleges, positions, and titles that in a sense isolate people. Put differently, these hierarchical arrangements dictate physical proximity and structure which, and the extent to which, tasks are shared (Clark & Trow, 1966; Newcomb, Turner, & Converse, 1965). This hierarchical model, which has had more influence than any other on how we think the institution is supposed to operate, also has resulted in the development of subcultures (Kuh, cited in Delworth & Hanson, 1989, p. 215).

<u>Subcultures</u>

Subcultures are found in the subgroups of larger institutions. Subgroups are groups whose members "interact regularly, perceive themselves as a distinct group, share the same problems, and act on a collective understanding unique to the group" (Becker & Geer, 1960, p. 305). The possibility of punishment by some members of the subgroup of other members who do not hold the same views and values is important for the life of the subgroup. Obviously, this possibility induces people to associate with others in a way that is compatible with the group as a whole (Walsh, 1973).

Socialization

The concept of socialization refers to the transfer of existing beliefs and practices to new generations. This also is a process by which individuals acquire values, attitudes, norms, knowledge, and skills needed to perform their roles acceptably in the groups in which they seek to be members (Bess, 1978; Merton, Reader, & Kimball, 1957). In the case of prospective faculty members, socialization includes the development of a positive orientation toward discipline-based institutional norms and an adherence to broad social prescriptions and specific behavioral guidelines prevalent in the group to which they aspire (Merton, 1963). Socialization involves cultural learning and the acquisition of the values, knowledge, attitudes, skills, and expectations appropriate to a particular culture (Bess). Newcomb et al. (1965, p. 224) referred to this as "group relevant attitudes in that they lead group members to become more alike in their beliefs, develop a resistance to change over time, and foster a sense of "sticking together" (p. 224). In short, the socialization process "promotes commitment to institutional and organizational goals" (Etzioni, 1975, p. 254).

According to Van Maanen (1978), the force of the socialization process can be discovered by the extent to which the values and beliefs of newcomers mesh with those

of the institution. In a university community, the tenured faculty provide newcomers with the information necessary to achieve or participate successfully in the institution. The result has been that the new faculty members have to modify their self-images and adopt the values, skills, and attitudes of their peers in order to be accepted by the faculty. However, it must be remembered that socialization is not always a one-way street. Although newcomers do assimilate into the prevailing culture of the institution or department, they also shape, to some degree, the institution's culture (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Socialization that occurs within a faculty is called anticipatory socialization (Corcoran & Clark, 1984; Freedman, 1979). Historical and descriptive studies of universities and colleges support the generalization that they are places where particular status cultures are acquired, either from teachers, from other students, or both (Collins, 1971). People may be critical of the way in which ideals are not realized, but they rarely criticize the ideals themselves. To do so automatically classifies one as an outsider, and most people would prefer to belong rather than be critical (Wells, 1990). The result has been that the social system appears to be reasonably self-sustaining.

Enactment

Enactment emphasizes the "active but unconscious role people play in creating their world" (Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 39). Socially constructed realities are created by conversations, actions, and negotiations that people engage in as they give meaning to their environment. In institutions and organizations, efforts often result in the development of organizational charts, job descriptions, and policy manuals (Morgan, cited in Kuh & Whitt, 1988, p. 39). These artifacts, descriptions, and policy manuals are then perceived as presenting true pictures of the organization, sending an image of order and rationality within the institution. In short, enactment has been succinctly described by Deal (1987) as "the way things are done around here" (p. 5).

Culture of the University

Social scientists have paid little attention to the culture of the faculty--to the perspectives, attitudes and values held in common by a group of professors, especially as these are distinctive from other groups located elsewhere in society (Clark, 1962). Clark believed that academic cultures are subtle and complex because "they have many segments and only a few can be caught in any net no matter how fine the webbing" (p. 40). Or, put differently, the analysis of faculty culture is akin to peeling an onion

in which each layer differs in thickness and texture and where it is not always clear where one layer ends and the next begins (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). However, Clark and Trow (1966) have claimed that

> painstaking analysis of the societal and organizational forces of the university will not only shed light on the interaction between our society and its institutions of higher learning but will also lead to purposeful action towards strengthening, liberalizing, and civilizing the mission of higher education that lies ahead. (p. 71)

There are two distinct forces that shape the university culture. There are the culture of society as a whole and the overall social structure of the university (Sanford & Axelrod, 1979). The former can be called external forces, whereas the latter are internal forces (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Although this review will address both forces, emphasis will be placed on the internal forces affecting the university.

External Factors

Clark and Trow (1966) believed that any examination of the external environment must include such things as the geographical location and size of the community, the presence of accreditation agencies, various political agendas, social activism, the media, and the activities of outside groups, notably philanthropic.

Geographical location. As an example of the effect of geographical location and size of the community on

institution culture, Kuh and Whitt (1988) cited a comparison of Bennington College in rural Vermont with Columbia University in New York. At the former, student identification with the college is more easy to establish, whereas in the latter it is more difficult to nurture. A further example would be a comparison of a midwestern-located university with an institution located in the Southwest, such as East Texas State University. However, it must be noted that there are also regional similarities among institutions, especially as seen in the building designs and materials on different campuses.

Accreditation agencies. In examining the influence of accreditation agencies, Clark and Trow (1966) found that these agencies can strongly influence the knowledge addressed in the curriculum, particularly if accreditation is important to the viability of the field, such as education.

Political agendas. The nations' political agenda is an external factor that can seriously affect colleges and universities. Moreover, Riesman and Jencks (1962) discussed various events that have an effect on universities because they generate direct and indirect political pressures on the institutions. One key example of this situation is when the political activities of the

students lead to a reduction in alumni support (Chaffee, 1983).

Student activism and the media. The reporting of student activism by the media was another external force that, almost universally, adversely affected the universities and colleges (Brubacker and Rudy, 1976). Conversely, Judge (1982) believed that social activism promotes the influence of equity and equality and is one of the few areas in society where minorities and women are accepted and afforded opportunities to grow.

Philanthropic individuals and groups. The culture of the university is also affected by the external efforts of philanthropic individuals and groups such as the Ford Foundation and Carnegie Corporation (Clark & Trow, 1966; Riesman & Jencks, 1962). These philosophical and financial forces affect moral support in the development of a distinctive institutional culture and affect the cultural perspectives of the university.

Internal Forces

Internal forces include the values, beliefs, and attitudes held by the institution that change and develop over time (Grant & Riesman, 1978). To understand a college culture one must be aware of its history, mission, and human make-up--especially the nature and character of the interaction among faculty, students, and institutional

leaders. These values, beliefs, and attitudes, as expressed by individuals, develop within a "community of the profession" and are played out in terms of the institutional sagas, sizes, ethos, and artifacts (Goode, 1957).

Saga. One way to examine the culture of the institution is through organizational sagas. A saga is an institutional story that evolves over time and identifies critical events of the institution (Masland, 1985). A crucial condition necessary for the creation of a saga is an initially strong purpose, usually as it is conceived and enunciated by a single person or group (Clark, 1972). Clark further observed that the element of belief is crucial in the process of elaborating a saga because, "without the credible story the events and persons become history instead of a source of pride and identity for the group" (p. 178). Any particular culture is made up of multiple stories, and a particular culture "is an anthology of competing stories in which we are not only users of our stories but also advocates of them" (Burlingame, 1984, p. 305). In any event, saga has been seen as a valuable resource, created over years out of the social components of the formal enterprise. In an organization defined by a strong saga, there is the small world of the lucky few and the large routine of the rest of the world (Clark, 1972).

Size. Size has an important impact on university
culture because the size of the institution can affect its
distinctiveness. Donaldson (1972) examined the bureaucracy
and how it changes with organizational growth and, along
with Petersen et al. (1986), concluded that larger
institutions become more structured, which impedes a
coherent vision or tone. Size diminishes the possibility
of an institutional ethos (Clark & Trow, 1966). These
authors have concluded that the formal structure of large
universities builds a formalized setting in which
relationships and collegial friendship are not possible in
the way closer humanistic relationships can be built in
smaller institutions. Van Maanen and Barley (1984)
illustrated this point in their comparison of a small,
religious, liberal arts college, with a distinctive
normative order and homogeneous institutional culture, to a
large public institution characterized by diversity within
the student body and faculty, as well as diversity within
the programs offered.

Some research indicates that attending a larger
institution has a negative effect on degree attainment
while other studies indicate that larger institutions have
lower attrition (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). These
opposing views suggest that the net effect of size on

educational attainment is either trivial or conditional depending on the characteristics of the student.

Ethos. Ethos is "the official culture of the university, formulated by its history and currently reflected in its beliefs, practices, purposes, and character" (Clark & Trow, 1966, p. 32). An institution's ethos, academic traditions, and heroes are strong cultural determinants that attempt to influence how the faculty and students spend their time, with whom they interact, what people "perceive" the culture to be, and the manner in which the norms and values of the institution shape behavior (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). When this tone is negative, dissatisfaction is exhibited by the faculty in an excessive vocalization of institutional deficiencies. One possible result is that the product can become dubious and the spark of intellectual fire and excitement can be notably absent (Eckstein, 1968).

Chase (1980) believed that ethos is more public relations and propaganda than fact. This position was challenged by Jencks and Riesman (1962) who, along with Clark (1984), felt that ethos is a feeling of community that helps define the spirit of the college or university. They referred to this feeling as "relatedness."

Individual actors. Individual actors within the institution also affect its culture. Traditionally,

individual actors are the influential members of the
college or university who have a strong influence on the
institution. The most obvious person who comes to mind is
the university president (Kuh & Whitt, 1988). The
president is the symbolic embodiment of the institution and
is in a position to either develop and establish cultural
traditions and perspectives, or to drastically change the
university or college culture (Clark, 1972; Kaufman, 1980).

There are numerous examples of the influence of the
president. At New York University, there was marked change
in academic preparation of students when minority student
enrollment increased. The president of the university
initiated programs of remediation for these students, which
was in stark contrast to the previous academic policy and
programs of the university. Richard Moll of the University
of California changed his institution's image of being a
"flaky, touchy/feely" institution to one of zealous pursuit
of academic rigor and excellence. The president of
Swarthmore College changed entrance requirements, recruited
students who were better prepared academically for college,
raised academic standards, and eliminated interscholastic
sports. This changed the college from academic mediocrity
to an academic challenging college experience (Adams,
1984). The above examples show how a president's policies

and beliefs can radically change the culture of an
institution.

Other institutional actors who affect institutional
culture are nationally recognized leaders in their field
involved in teaching or research. Every institution has a
building or a program named after an individual who has had
a great influence on the institution and a significant
impact on the institutional culture (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

Artifacts. The culture of the institution is also
affected by its artifacts. These artifacts include
architecture, rites, ceremonies, rituals, and myths and are
observable manifestations of institutional values and
beliefs (Kuh & Whitt, 1988).

When visiting a campus, students notice the
architecture that directs academic pursuits, and,
presumably, announces the importance of tradition, pride,
and the importance of learning. The architecture of a
university reflects its distinctive values and aspirations.
The university is a total environment, a system of
exploratory activities occurring in various forms of order
and disorder which take place in a particular physical
setting depicting the cultural values and practices of the
institution (Sturner, 1972).

The tree-lined quadrangle, fraternity row, and other
architectural areas are important indicators of culture.

Older structures, such as barns and fences of wood and
stone, provide linkages to the university and must be
preserved (Moris, 1983). Favorite haunts and retreats,
such as a lake, the quadrangle, the campanile, or other
locations help reflect and shape the culture of the
university (Horowitz, 1984).

The concepts of ritual and myth tend to have implicit
definitions in everyday use which trivialize their
potential value as analytical tools. Rituals, for example,
are sometimes understood as merely "repetitive sequences of
activity devoid of meaning to the actors and are often
thought of as false belief" (Pettigrew, 1979, pp. 570-80).
The crucial feature of ritual as a medium of culture
creation is the message it contains. The crucial question
about its role is not what does it do, but what does it say
(Beattie, 1966)?

Myths contain a narrative of events, often with a
sacred quality, that explore, in dramatic form, issues of
the origins of and transformations in, the institution.
They anchor the present in the past, offer explanations and
legitimacy for social practices, and contain levels of
meaning that deal simultaneously with socially and
psychologically significant aspects of any culture (Cohen,
1974). Cohen connects myth even more directly with
political processes by suggesting that "myths justify and

sustain values that underlie political interests, explain, and thereby reconcile the contradictions between professors' values and actual behavior and legitimate, established leadership systems faced with environmental threats" (p. 23).

Ceremonies, rituals, and rites have helped to enrich the campus with an environment that is unique to that institution. Graduation is a good example of a universal ceremony that has similar meaning for all graduates. Yet each institution has elements of that ceremony unique to it.

It has been said that student cultures are further developed by ceremonies, rituals, and rules of formal and informal mechanisms of social control. Among the ceremonies are initiations, pledging, and orientations. Becker et al. (1961) have referred to the medical student fraternity as an example of such a controlling group. This group could use its extensive files of past medical examinations to control its members and to promote its perspectives because of the advantage these exams gave their members. Other Greek organizations have used pledges and training programs to inform new students of traditions and expectations of their respective organizations.

Rites have also been seen as important aspects of institutional culture. Meister (1982) discussed the chapel

setting of institutions to illustrate the rite of formal freshman induction into the life of the college community. Church affiliated institutions certainly have rituals that are unique to that religious faith that would not be present in public supported institutions. Horowitz (1987) described the Bryn Mawr Lantern night as the initiation ceremony in which the light signifies illumination of the lives of their students as they progress through college. The ritual of the "beanie" worn by many freshmen in the past was certainly a ritual of a university or college culture.

Culture of the Students

Studies of student culture have concentrated on the "traditional" undergraduate. In the literature on the non-traditional, part-time graduate, and especially part-time doctoral student, is quite limited. Moreover, when part-time doctoral students have been studied, information was usually of a demographic nature, collected from questionnaires and surveys (Baird, 1969; Clark & Trow, 1966; Creager, 1971; Gottlieb, 1961).

Undergraduate Student Cultures

There are three categories of cultural alignment when students go off to college: first, students who come to the institution with a ready-made value system that need not be modified; second, students who come to the

university with a different value system from the
university who then are assimilated into the prevailing
value systems; and third, students who are at odds with the
cultural values of the institution and who gravitate toward
cultural "subpockets" within the institution (Bushnell,
1964).

Individuals come to college with personal inclinations
and formally relate to one another in ways that uphold or
alter these predispositions (Clark, 1972). These patterns
of experience, as products of student social class, racial
and ethnic ties, and religious identifications, heavily
condition the qualities and characteristics that students
bring with them to college (Clark & Trow, 1966). It is the
subcultures in the general population and their values,
orientations, and aspirations that shape the orientations
most students initially assume toward college. Peer
pressure offers thick and thin guidelines on how to get an
education and provides a definition of an educated person
for the student (Van Maanen, 1978). This was especially
evident in Becker et al.'s study (1961) in which the
students were able to define a well-educated medical
student as one who knows what the faculty asks on
examinations.

Institutional culture is transmitted to students by
the faculty. It is for this reason that faculty members

often are referred to as the "donor group" (Bushnell, 1964, p. 150). There is also a detectable counter-flow from student society to the faculty and administration. However, the stronger the university ethos, the more constraints the institution places on student cultures and subcultures (Bushnell). In the case of undergraduates, the faculty attempt to acculturate the students--although they often must confront the fact that the students are more interested in their own group. That is, institutional attempts to influence the opinions and beliefs of the students, so that they reflect institutional values, often find that the students are more influenced by their own group's values and beliefs (Sanford, 1967).

When the students' own perceptions match the demands of the university, the students are more likely to attend that university (Hartshorne, 1943). A match between the student and the university is considered good if it results in higher performance, greater satisfaction, and less stress. A poor match is related to the negative outcomes of decreased performance, greater dissatisfaction, and more stress (Delworth & Hanson, 1989).

Socialization and satisfaction of students is the responsibility of the organization, and the success or failure of achieving these goals affects the student's desire to stay or leave an institution (Kowalik, 1989).

This is referred to by Delworth and Hanson (1989) as campus ecology, a concept that is an outgrowth of the more general movement called social ecology. In one sense, campus ecology is an intervention theory because it refers to how the campus environment can be designed (or redesigned) to meet the needs of the student or include them to fit into the existing environment. The point is that students will remain in a college environment that enhances their growth and will leave one that does not do so (Delworth & Hanson).

Students have used techniques of their own to ensure that their relationship to the faculty is not solely that of passive recipients of institutional culture. Delworth and Hanson (1989) have noted that "not only do events affect the behavior of organisms but the organism is also an active agent in influencing environmental events" (p. 177). In addition, Hughes, Becker, and Geer (1964) argued that to assume student goals or student problems are the same as those of the university is an error, and that, if universities erroneously assume this, they will fail to study the way students form their own cultures. The development of student perspectives can build a consistent pattern of responses and enable the students to manipulate the activities of the school. This takes place when a group of individuals share similar problems and interact daily to solve these problems (Becker et al., 1961).

The demands of the college can shape and strengthen student subcultures. These subcultures offer students a means to deal with the difficulties of college life by providing support and guidelines for survival (Clark & Trow, 1966). Students may use the university's socialization efforts in ways not intended by the university.

Becker et al. (1961) found that subgroups develop best where there are people facing common problems. As a subculture begins to get a sense of itself, it can come to think of the faculty as a group opposed to its own culture. A good example of this situation is found in the study of nurses by Olesen and Whitaker (1966). In this instance, the nursing students held ideas and norms that diverged and converged with institutional expectations. The faculty found it important not to diverge too far from student-approved level of role awareness because, if they did, it hindered communication.

The well known work of Clark and Trow (1966) established four typologies of undergraduate cultures: the "collegiate, vocational, academic, and non-conformist" (p. 20). Horowitz (1987) identified three groups which she called "college life, outsiders, and rebels" (p. 1). These two studies, nearly 20 years apart, identified typologies of students that are very similar.

Other researchers questioned these typologies. For example, Bolton and Kammeyer (1972) felt these typologies did not meet certain criteria for subcultures--namely, persistent interaction, socialization, control, and norms that differed from the university. Or, in another example, Horowitz (1987) felt that only the collegiate and non-conformist groups were subcultures because the other two groups were consistent with the culture of the institution.

When 973 students were asked to which of Clark and Trow's typologies they thought they belonged, Gottlieb and Hodgkins (1963) found that humanistic and intellectual students were more non-conformist, whereas those who were materialistic favored the collegiate group. The vocational and academic students fell somewhere in between.

Some studies suggest that because what is learned in courses is retained only in small part in the following years, the dominate student culture is the one characterized by a lack of concern with academic interests (Collins, 1971). That is, it is not uncommon for students imbued with this disposition to seek a degree for the sake of having a credential, not for the knowledge the degree is supposed to represent (Bent, 1959).

Clark and Trow (1966) state that

routinized class work completed without serious thought characterized a vocational subculture. This narrowing of ideas in colleges and universities is present in students, faculty, and administration who

are neither able, nor strongly motivated, to modify
these interests and orientations. What transpires is
student boredom, indifference to ideas, and limited
academic relations with others. Many have argued that
this desire to qualify for a job or promotion is
harmful to the students because they proceed with no
marked enthusiasm, curiosity, or involvement with
learning and ideas. (p. 53)

Graduate Student Cultures

Doctoral education has not been an area of substantial

research interest. For example, few universities keep

systematic data on students who fail to complete the

doctoral degree (Kowalik, 1989). Or, in another example,

Hobish (1979) noted that there is little research provided

on why women, who represent approximately 30% of the

doctoral student population, receive only 14% of the

degrees awarded. Both Kowalik and Hobish argue that more

research is needed, and especially in areas such as

institutional barriers to doctoral completion rates, family

and work requirements of doctoral students, the

institution's perception of their role in providing a

supportive environment for doctoral students, and the

doctoral students' perception of their role(s) while

completing studies.

Many entering graduate students are much like the

faculty of the institution they attend in that the former

desire to engage in much the same tasks as the latter.

These tasks, of course, involve the development of

cognitive skills and acquisition of knowledge (Clark &
Trow, 1966; Creager, 1971).

   The degree of social adjustment and integration of
students into the graduate community is consistently
related to their degree of academic success at the doctoral
level (Wright, 1963). However, although the values of the
faculty are an influential and important aspect creating
opportunities for professional interaction and career
advancement (Gottlieb, 1961), graduate students and faculty
often do not form a single social system. A substantial
number of PhD students obtain the degree as a job
credential or to enter a more prestigious position
(Bennett, 1969). This was similar to what Creager (1971)
discovered about many students who pursue the EdD degree.
In his examination of 2,251 returned questionnaires sent to
doctoral students, Heiss (1967) found that although 83%
were satisfied with their program there was a need for a
more personalized orientation and integration of the
doctoral students into the academic "bloodstream" of the
faculty.

   A study of graduate students by Baird (1969) found no
comprehensive investigation of the nature of graduate
students' relationships to one another, to their
professors, or to their departments. He identified five
factors that he believed affected graduate student culture.

These five factors were: "(a) peer interaction, (b) academic difficulty, (c) tension, (d) conflict and lack of clarity, and (e) warm student-faculty relations" (p. 15). Tension, which is caused by a feeling of competition between students for grades, honors, and scholarships, was stronger than any other element affecting student interaction.

Part-Time Doctoral Student Cultures

Studies directly related to the part-time student are very limited in number. Some people, such as Harvey (1972), have argued that part-time doctoral students are individuals who have difficulty adjusting to graduate school. Perhaps this is so because they are not noticed as much as full-time students. The problems of part-time students are ignored in the graduate schools themselves and generally ignored in the literature on graduate education. However, no one has examined this issue and others, such as the characteristics of the part-time student--just what is a part-time student and what do they look like in an institutional sense? The part-time doctoral student possesses unique problems that are essentially ignored.

Huganir (cited in Eshelman, 1966) paints the picture of the full-time student as one who is completely dedicated, has no distractions such as a spouse or children, no economic problems, no psychological problems,

no intellectual limitations, and no physical inadequacies.
They know what they want, where they are going, and how to
get there.

Huganir's survey of part-time students showed that
they have more responsibility for dependents and higher age
levels when compared to full-time students. Creager (1971)
reported that over 53.5% of the EdD students he surveyed
were enrolled on a part-time basis; 51% of the men aged 24-
28 were part-time; and 68% of the men over 29 were part-
time.

In addition, many of the part-time students were
female and faced both internal and external institutional
problems. The former include issues of competence, role
ambiguity, and role overload, whereas the latter involved
role ambiguity and role conflict (Stryker, 1985). Although
in raw numbers men outnumber women as part-time students
both in the first year of graduate study and in succeeding
years, twice as many women enroll part-time in their first
year as enroll full-time. In succeeding years, 44% of them
are still enrolled on a part-time basis (Stryker).

Kinsman (1966) reported that the part-time doctoral
student is deprived of sustained and sustaining contact
with faculty and students, and is denied rich opportunities
to use the lab and library or to witness research in
progress. A reason given for students to pursue the

doctoral degree on a part-time basis has been that large
numbers of teachers simply cannot finance programs of full-
time study (Caswell, 1960). They also face the strain of
not only physical fatigue in the dwindling hours of the
late afternoon classes but also the gathered gloom of the
nighttime course. There are part-time students working on
PhDs who are given scant attention to their problems by
their departments (Harvey, 1972). The report also stated
that "Part-time students find themselves involved in
activities such as bond issues, building programs, field
trips, committee meetings almost ad nauseam" (p. 49). The
results are lapses of a semester, three or four terms, or
as many years between course work and completion of degree.

Low-integrated, part-time students have limited
contact with the faculty, thereby limiting their ability to
discuss and clarify their career plans because of the
amount of interrupted time on campus (Gottlieb, 1961).
Students living and working at home, commuting, and
generally attending class as the role of student visitor
affects the content of the student subculture. Neither the
campus environment nor the classroom has much chance to
engage the students personally (Clark & Trow, 1966). Under
these circumstances the development of a student culture
would not be as evident as in other segments of the college
population because of the lack of socialization,

assimilation, and daily interaction with the university community and their peers.

A reported cause of poor quality doctoral study is a lack of distinction between in-service education and a systematic program of study designed to lift a person to a higher level of performance or a more demanding position (Caswell, 1960). He also concluded that too often programs are a hodge-podge of courses taken while the student is on the job and selected because of the particular hour of the day they are offered. Part-time doctoral students seek help in improving their skills directed at "real" problems. Results are a premium, and anything else that may be theoretical is acceptable only as long as it adds to 30 or 60 credits required for increment, promotion, or state certification (Eckstein, 1968).

The importance of daily interaction in developing "latent" and "manifest" identities is important in the development of a group. People do not shed the culture of the previous setting but carry their culture with them (Becker & Geer, 1960). They will share these understandings, and develop a "latent" culture, which is made up of "background variables" of social class, ethnic origin, or gender. These latent identities will not affect either the individual's behavior within the group or the collective behavior of the group unless these factors are

brought into play in the daily interaction of group members which is something part-time students may have difficulty doing. Latent culture, Becker and Geer believed, does not influence group behavior simply by virtue of members having similar latent identities.

"Manifest" culture is that which is made up of similar problems of the group and which grows around the roles and identities relevant to a specific setting rather than those that are irrelevant or inappropriate (Becker & Geer, 1960). Those who most clearly fit the manifest identity may be seen as having more authority and that their culture is related to a particular group of individuals who share common problems with similar values, motives, and beliefs (Becker & Geer).

It appears from the literature that all cultures and subcultures develop from a group of people with similar values, beliefs, and motives who attempt to solve problems shared by group members. The literature also points out such groups interact on a regular basis and that, in addition, socialization efforts are exerted to insure that members of any culture or subculture believe and practice the same ideals and beliefs as the university. When differences occur, a subculture develops that has its own values, beliefs, and motives.

Summary

This review of the literature allows for three conclusions of interest. First, culture is an obviously complex phenomenon that is difficult to define and conceptualize. That said, however, it is clear that in the broadest sense culture is about the meanings that events and objects have for the people who experience them. People are constructors and managers of meanings, intentions, and purposes in their interactions with others. Thus, any attempt to understand the culture of a group or members of an institution must involve an examination of the meanings, purposes, and intentions of people as they interact with others.

Second, it is evident from this literature review that any study of how people, in this particular case students and faculty, develop purpose, commitment, and order in groups must be based on the concept of culture. People are creators of symbols, languages, beliefs, visions, ideologies, and myths. They are creators and managers of meaning and must be studied in that light.

The best research approach for the study of the culture of group members of an institution is qualitative. The traditional methods of research on student culture, such as found in some of the studies noted above which employed survey methods and questionnaires, are not well

suited for an in-depth depiction of institutional and
student cultures. In any case, because of my interest in
the meanings, purposes, and intentions that frame the
actions and interactions of part-time doctoral students,
the qualitative method of inquiry is most appropriate.

CHAPTER III

SETTING, PROGRAM, AND DESIGN

The Setting

The university, located in the midwest, has gone through a number of changes since its inception as a normal school in the late 19th century. In the first years of this century the school was transformed into a state teachers college. In the 1960s, with the addition of programs in areas other than teaching, it was reconstituted as a state college. Finally, in the latter 1960s, the institution was given university status.

At present the university enrolls over 12,000 students, the overwhelming majority of whom come from within the state. Although students may choose from among 120 majors, the major thrust of the university is still in the area of teacher preparation in that 24% of all undergraduates are education majors. As part of the graduate program, the department of educational administration serves as a credentialing agency for supervisors, principals, and superintendents. The department has 121 MA students, 2 full-time EdD students, and 29 part-time EdD students.

The Program

The college of education, which had long offered degrees at the Bachelors and Masters levels, was allowed to

undertake an EdD program in 1982. As noted in the proposal

for this degree, the program was designed

> To serve the needs of educators who work in a variety
> of leadership positions in the schools, community
> colleges, and area education agencies throughout
> [state]. In contrast to the traditional doctor of
> philosophy degree programs, which emphasize research
> which will contribute new and significant knowledge to
> a discipline, the doctor of education degree proposed
> for [this university] will emphasize the systematic
> study of contemporary educational problems and the
> difficulties of effectively merging theory and
> practice to resolve those problems. (Proposal for the
> Degree of Doctor of Education, 1978, p. 2)

In addition, the proposal for the Degree of Doctor of
Education (1978) proclaimed the following in its forward:

> The proposed degree is indeed a practitioner's degree.
>
> The doctor of education degree program is especially
> appropriate for persons who are serving in
> administrative and supervisory positions in Iowa's
> education systems.
>
> The proposed EdD program will emphasize the following
> characteristics:
> a. Study in a broad field with opportunity to work
> in related areas.
> b. A specific distribution of work between a common
> professional core and a specialization.
> c. A culminating dissertation which will be closely
> related to the problem area which was the focus of
> the doctoral experience. (p. 19)

Thus, the program was intended to result in a

"practitioner's degree" that was thought to be "especially

appropriate for persons who are serving in administrative

and supervisory positions in Iowa's education systems"

(Proposal for the Degree of Doctor of Education, 1978, p.

2-7).

In order to fulfill these intentions, the program requires a minimum of 60 semester hours of credit beyond the masters degree. There are three components to the program: 18 semester hours in a Professional Common Core, 33 semester hours of Advanced Professional Study, and 9-12 semester hours of dissertation research. The program is described in the Handbook for Doctoral Students in Education, 6th Edition 1992, (p. vi-1, vi-6). The program is described in this handbook as follows:

1. <u>Professional Common Core - 18 hours</u>

19:301   Context of Contemporary Education   3 Hours
Examination of issues and problems of
concern to educational practitioners from
the perspective of educational philosophy,
history, and sociology.

19:302   Contemporary Educational Practices   3 Hours
Overview of research knowledge base
regarding effective instructional practices
and their interrelationship in effective
schools.

19:306   Inquiry and Educational Practices   3 Hours
Research methodologies applicable to problem-
solving in educational practice. Emphasis
on program evaluation case studies,
observation, interviews, surveys, and
educational research and development.

19:307   Educational Data Analysis and
         Interpretations   3 Hours
Principles and techniques of computer
utilization in educational data analysis
and interpretations.

19:310   Organizational Processes and
         Communications   3 Hours
Organizational development in the school
setting. The course will examine
organizational and communication models

and processes with emphasis on interaction patterns, interpersonal relations, and interpersonal influence.

19:311 Educational Leadership and Systems Change	3 Hours

Examination of knowledge base for both change and leadership. Emphasis is on understanding how change factors and leadership styles interact to influence receptiveness to and acceptance of change.

2. Advanced Professional Studies - 30-33 hours

This is the component of the program that relates to and supports the student's professional career goal. Educational administration must be combined with at least six hours of work outside that area (Related Study Area).

Educational Administration
Required and Elective Courses:
The specific program to be completed will be determined by each student's prior course work and career goals. Courses required for all students are:

27:389 Seminar	3 Hours
27:397 Practicum/Internship	3 Hours

Related Area Study
Each student will take at least six hours in an area other than Educational Administration, determined in consultation with advisor and Doctoral committee. All courses must be at 200 or 300 level.

3. Dissertation Research

Dissertation - 9-12 hours

19:389 Dissertation Seminar (CR/NC)	3 hours

Dissertation Seminar requires three separate one-hour enrollments. Each enrollment is devoted to the development of a different component of the dissertation proposal. 19:306 and 19:307 must be completed before the third enrollment in 19:389. Credit for all enrollments is granted when the dissertation proposal is approved.

```
29:399  Dissertation Research (CR/NC)          6-9 Hours
1-6 hours allowed in any one semester.
It is reasonable to enroll in 3 hours
while completing the proposal, 3 hours
while executing the research and 3 hours
during final writing.
```

In addition to the required courses, there is a residency requirement. This requirement states that the student shall be enrolled for and complete a minimum of 24 semester hours of on-campus study which may be distributed across two, three, or four consecutive terms.

The responsibilities for instruction within the doctorate were assigned within the College of Education, but there was not, and is not today, a specific doctoral faculty. The Professional Common Core courses are taught by faculty outside the educational administration department, with the exception of the course <u>Leadership and Systems Change</u>. For the most part, the Professional Common Core courses are taught by instructors from the Department of Educational Psychology and Foundations, which also houses the research and measurement faculty.

<u>Design</u>

This research project was undertaken to gain an understanding of the culture of part-time doctoral students in educational administration at a medium-sized university in the midwest. More specifically, the project was designed to examine how the culture of the part-time doctoral student in educational administration resembles,

or is in opposition to, the culture of the faculty of the Department of Educational Administration and the related faculty of the required core courses. Through observations and interviews, I collected data on what kind of web emerges, or culture develops, by the interaction of faculty and students. Finally, my intent was to see how these interactions affect the design, goals, and outcomes of the EdD degree in educational administration.

I will use the concept of symbolic interactionism employed by Becker et al. in the classic study of medical student culture entitled Boys in White (1961). In accord with symbolic interaction theory, I focused on the part-time doctoral students and the faculty as they consciously participated in group life both in and out of class. This approach assumed that human behavior can be understood as a process in which people shape and control their conduct by taking into account the expectations of others with whom they interact.

To get a clear understanding of the interactions and expectations of students and faculty, it was important to look at the interests, values, beliefs, and norms of both instructors and students. To do this, I used semi-structured interviews and non-participant observation to achieve an open, two-way communication that would elicit these values, beliefs, and norms. I also collected

anecdotal records of informal discussions with the students and faculty during the 1992-93 academic year.

During the 1991-92 academic year, the interview portion of the study began with a pilot project which included five faculty members in educational administration and two doctoral students. This pilot study resulted in revisions of my thinking about the issues that had to be addressed in the more extended interviews. Moreover, the pilot interviews made it clear that as the study progressed unanticipated concepts or issues would emerge. This situation, of course, is common to qualitative inquiry. To insure confidentiality, I have used no names and secured a release form from each participant interviewed. (See Appendix A.) Although a list of suggested questions to ask both faculty and students was developed to serve as a guide that lent continuity of the questioning process, the semi-structured interview format also allowed me to center my attention on those matters in which the students themselves seemed most interested or about which they seemed most concerned. The completed interviews resulted in 182 pages of transcribed interviews with the faculty, and 176 pages of student interviews. (See Faculty Questions, Appendix B and C; Student Questions, Appendix D and E.)

The non-participant format was used for the observation portion of the study. The courses observed

were: <u>Administrative Applications in Field Settings</u>,
<u>Educational Leadership and Systems Change</u>, <u>School and Community Relations</u>, <u>Context of Contemporary Education</u>, and <u>Inquiry and Educational Practices</u>. The non-participant observations resulted in 96 pages of recorded field notes. The data gathering began in April of 1992 and was essentially completed by February of 1993. I use the term <u>non-participant</u> to describe my observational position simply because I was not an officially registered student in the courses observed. However, this technical non-participant status notwithstanding, I did take part in class discussion and participated in activities both in and out of class.

The students readily accepted the fact that I was gathering material for my dissertation. The best evidence for this was that I felt their responses were honest and straightforward, regardless of the information being discussed. However, one must always be aware of the fact that my presence could alter somewhat their physical and verbal behavior. I was, therefore, conscious of the socially acceptable answer as opposed to less guarded responses.

I decided to study students at different stages in their program rather than to follow one group until they completed the degree. There was one major reason for this

approach. A longitudinal study would be virtually impossible to conduct in that individuals finish their programs at different times with some taking as long as seven years. Thus, I was compelled to focus on all of the doctoral students enrolled in the educational administration program as of the summer of 1992. However, it must be noted that one disadvantage of studying individuals at various stages in the program is that the changes in attitudes and beliefs observed could be because the students were different people with different values, beliefs, and goals.

<u>The Participants</u>

I included all instructors in the Department of Educational Administration and any other faculty from whom the students must take courses in order to complete their programs of study. In the end, this meant I interviewed five faculty members in the Department of Educational Administration, five faculty members in the core areas, two administrators in the College of Education, and an administrator in the Graduate College. Of the total 29 students in the program in the summer of 1992, I ended up interviewing 15 people. The others were either no longer active or had moved to a new location.

Faculty

The demographic profile of the faculty can be broken down into three areas: (a) the educational administration department (Table 1), (b) the instructors of the common professional core (Table 2), and (c) college of education and graduate college administrators (Table 3). The items included in the profile are the following: the type of degree held by the faculty member, their preferences within the position, the student status of the faculty member while obtaining their degree, years of experience at the university, the ethnic origin and gender of the faculty member, and finally where the highest degree was earned. The total number of faculty and administrator participants was 13.

Table 1

Department of Educational Administration

Instructor	Degree		Prefer		Student		Experience		Ethnic			Gender	
	PhD	EdD	Teaching	Research	P-T	F-T	Elem/Sec	H.Ed.	W	B	L	M	F
A	X		X		X		X	4	X			X	
B	X		X			X	X	22	X			X	
C		X	X			X	X	25	X			X	
D		X	X	X	X		X	8	X			X	
E		X	X			X	X	5		X		X	
N = 5	2	3	5	1	2	3	5	12.8	4	1	0	5	0

Table 2

Instructors in the Core Area

Instructor	Degree		Prefer		Student		Experience		Ethnic			Gender	
	PhD	EdD	Teaching	Research	P-T	F-T	Elem/Sec	H.Ed.	W	B	L	M	F
A	X		X		X		X	5	X				X
B	X		X	X		X		3			X		X
C	X		X	X		X		17	X			X	
D		X	X	X		X	X	21	X			X	
E	X			X		X		20	X				X
N = 5	4	1	4	4	1	4	2	13.2	4	0	1	2	3

Table 3

College of Education/Graduate College Administration

Instructor	Degree		Prefer		Student		Experience		Ethnic			Gender	
	PhD	EdD	Teaching	Research	P-T	F-T	Elem/Sec	H.Ed.	W	B	L	M	F
A	X			X		X	X	17	X				X
B	X		X	X		X	X	5	X			X	
C	X		X	X		X		13	X			X	
N = 3	3	0	2	3	0	3	2	11.6	3	0	0	2	1

Table 4

Faculty Participants and Degree Origin

Instructors with PhD	Instructors with an EdD
N = 9	N = 4
Degree Origin	Degree Origin
University of Michigan	Illinois State University
University of Southern California	University of Florida
University of Iowa	Northern Illinois University
Iowa State University	Colorado State College
Southern Illinois University	
Michigan State University	
Southern Illinois University	
University of Wisconsin	
Iowa State University	
n = 5 male, 4 female	n = 4 male

Students

In examining the characteristics of the part-time doctoral student, I looked at the student's age, sex, marital status, number of children, size of their undergraduate institution, their present position, and the present school's size and grade level. The totals are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Student Demographics

Stu	Age	Sex		Mar Status			Children	Undergrad			Employed					Size	Gr
		F	M	M	S	D		S	M	L	S	HS	EL	AEA	Tch		
A	35		X	X			3	X				X				415	6-12
B	45		X	X			2	X						X			
C	40		X	X			3		X			X				279	9-12
D	46		X	X			3	X					X				K-6
E	42		X	X			3	X						X			
F	38		X	X			0	X					X				K-6
G	38		X	X			0	X				X				290	9-12
H	37		X	X			4	X				X				175	7-12
I	36		X	X			2	X					X				K-5
J	37		X	X			2		X			X				520	9-12
K	47	X				X	0		X		X					970	K-12
L	30	X		X			0		X						X		
M	50	X		X			2	X					X			350	K-6
N	39	X		X			2		X						X		
O	40		X	X			2		X			X				250	9-12
	40	4	11	14	0	1	1.9	9	6	0	1	6	4	2	2		

$\underline{N} = 15$

The Analysis

Analysis of data was an ongoing process. Much of the effort in the field was directed toward the examination of

two main issues: (a) the discovery of relevant issues for study, and (b) the development of reasonable interpretations of these issues. To do this I considered how widely a response item was distributed through various observational and interview situations. As with the case with the work of Becker et al. (1961), this involved three specific elements. First, was the response volunteered? Second, was the response based on a specific question asked by me? And, third, how many participants gave the response? Field notes were indexed and labeled so that all facts and information would be in one place for easier checking of data at any point. I attempted to double check contradictions to make sure the information collected from the participants was accurate. In addition, all participants were given the opportunity to read the transcript of their interview to check for accuracy. Three students and two faculty made use of this opportunity and found the transcribed data to be accurate.

Items found in the first interviews determined the content of my follow-up interviews with nine faculty members and four students. Issues concerning points of conflict, tension, or agreements among faculty and students, as well as ambiguities, were the items covered. In addition to the usual follow-up interviews, the author conducted continuous, in depth interviews with two selected

participants, one male and one female. This was done to gain additional insight and clarification of issues.

I did not begin with the premise that a conclusion was either true or false but attempted to state how likely it was that the final conclusions adequately interpreted the kind of relationships that existed among people in the educational administration program. Finally, I did not propose a hypothesis to sustain or reject as much as I sought to understand the cultures of part-time students and the faculty.

CHAPTER IV

THE PART-TIME STUDENT:

TIME CONSTRAINTS AND NEGOTIATED DEMANDS

This chapter focuses on the interactions that take place between the faculty in the college of education and the part-time doctoral students in educational administration. First, I attempt to clarify how a part-time doctoral student is defined by both students and faculty and how this definition influences time, university accommodations, and student negotiation efforts regarding the content of the courses and the dissertation. Second, I examine the cultural perspectives of the students and faculty and how emerging gender issues may threaten to alter these traditional perspectives. Finally, I discuss the lack of a sense of ownership of the program among the faculty and the impact this has on the program. The chapter ends with a summary.

Definition of the Part-Time Doctoral Student

According to the University Catalogue, published by the Registrar's Office of the University, the distinction between part-time and full-time graduate student status is unproblematic. This distinction is based on the number of credit hours taken in any given semester, with anything less than nine credit hours being considered as part-time. For both doctoral students and the faculty, however, the

implications and consequences of part-time doctoral student status go well beyond this formal definition. This is not unexpected because, according to symbolic interactionists, human beings are constantly engaged in a process of interpreting their own language and actions in light of the language and actions of others (Blumer, 1969). This interpretative process very often results in what Dill (1982) calls <u>shared beliefs</u>. These are beliefs that shape, if not constrain, the actions taken by all involved and the meanings assigned to those actions.

For the faculty, the reality of part-timeness centers on the issue of work. When they were asked to define a part-time student, the issue of full-time work was one of the first things mentioned. As several of them noted,

> Someone working full-time, someone who commutes.

> A student teaching or working as a principal and taking courses week nights or weekends.

> Oh, I would say my definition of a part-time student is one who holds a position for monetary gain and uses his recreation time coming to school and taking courses. I think, practically speaking, it's one who has a paying job.

> Regardless of the hours taken, they are still working full-time.

The students similarly focus on work as the defining feature of part-time status. As they noted,

> People who are practicing their trade and attending school at the same time.

> Someone who is a principal full-time and taking course work on week nights.

> If you are working full-time, you are a part-time doctoral student.

Thus, as faculty and students have interacted with each other over the years, they have come to define part-time not by institutional factors, such as the number of credit hours taken, but by employment obligations and the associated demands placed on these students that originate outside the institution. As the students noted, virtually without exception,

> There are times when the doctoral stuff just has to sit. I have to spend some time with my family.

> Keep in mind being a wife and mother come first. But, yeah, I did prioritize, my work, my family, and the university in that order.

> There is no way that you can be a full-time administrator and do justice to your course work. You do the best that you can and learn to live with that.

> Job and family, it is very difficult. I can't let it interfere; I have to get my job completed and then the course work.

The importance of defining part-time status in this way is immediately apparent when students talk about time. They attempt to balance the time demands placed on them by course and degree requirements, their obligations to their jobs, and additionally, their duties to their families. When the former comes into conflict with the out-of-school demands, the latter usually takes precedence. The problems associated with maintaining this balancing act were

elaborated upon by the students when they talked about the problem of time--specifically, never having enough time.

Time

All students stated that time was the biggest problem they faced in being a part-time doctoral student.

The time element has always been a problem.

I'm taking seven hours of class, working 60 hours a week. It is important, but there just is never enough time.

When things get cramped and you don't have time to get prepared.

If you are a practicing administrator just trying to stay up on things, the demands on my time are astronomical, as you well know. You just do the best you can and learn to live with that.

What is most interesting, however, is what many of the students said immediately after talking about their problems with time. That is, it is important to note exactly how they viewed the time problem as a major factor in their relationship to the program and their professors. There were two aspects to the way they saw the time factor. First, they acknowledged that, or certainly thought that, their professors understood and took into account the time problem. As one student noted,

The professors are aware of the demands on our time, and they take that into consideration in course requirements.

Second, they seemed to feel that it was fitting and proper that their professors realize the time pressures on the

students and act accordingly. For example, as one student

bluntly commented,

> If their mission is to develop effective
> administrators, then whatever they can do to enhance
> that should be accessible in the time available to us.

In one very real sense the students are correct in

their assessment because the faculty are also aware of the

importance of time and the problems students face in

attempting to meet their obligations to the program, their

jobs, and families. As some of them noted,

> I don't think they have the time; some of them just
> don't have the time.

> They are fragmented people, physically and emotionally
> spent.

> They don't have the time to do any more than is
> required.

However, even though all faculty are generally

sympathetic to the time problem, there is a division of

some note among the faculty concerning exactly how they

should respond to this problem. The educational

administration faculty feel they should, and actually do,

treat part-time doctoral students differently than they

would or should treat full-time doctoral students.

> I probably treat part-time students differently. I
> can discuss things with full-time students and know
> what they can do. I can't do that with part-time
> students.

> They just try to get by and that is the problem with
> part-time students, so you tolerate it. You tolerate
> it and try to be understanding.

> Part-time students do require being treated differently.

The faculty who are in the core area, do not, or maybe are less willing to acknowledge this need for differential treatment. It was more common for them to say things like the following:

> As far as course requirements go, I make no exceptions, definitely not.

> It is easy to do, if you are not careful. I've had part-time students tell me that "you can't expect me to do all of that!" but they aren't successful at it.

> I make no exceptions.

> They perceive my rigor and amount as too much. I didn't lower my standards.

> We cannot have these kinds of expectations of our students because they are part-time students. I think a lot of people have sub-standard expectations of the quality of work you should expect from part-time doctoral students. I hear conversations about the challenges posed by the part-time doctoral students. Instead of seeing them as challenges, it usually comes out in the sense that we should lower our expectations.

The seeming bluntness of the above comments notwithstanding, and the reason I said "less willing to acknowledge" is that, even in the case of the core faculty, there is some ambiguity about the time issue. Some of the same people quoted above also noted, at different stages in the interviews, the following:

> Part-time students require a little different pacing of instruction, and I say that because the vast majority of them have worked all day. They have a lot of other stuff in their lives, so you watch the pacing of your instruction.

> I think part-time students require a slightly
> different structure of the course. I think you have
> to make certain that your instructional materials are
> available, accessible. For example, putting material
> on reserve is probably used less frequently.

Finally, this issue of differential treatment was even cast by one older faculty member to a newer faculty in terms of an injunction—-an injunction that broaches the process of socialization which is the process of transferring existing beliefs and practices to new generations and promotes commitment to institutional and organizational goals (Etzioni, 1975). As this faculty member noted,

> Either the new faculty will have to understand that
> there are limitations on what the part-time students
> can do, and acknowledge that in their expectations, or
> they will not find this institution personally
> rewarding.

As Merton (1963) and many others have noted, socialization is a process by which people acquire what they need to become accepted and acceptable members of the group to which they seek to be members. Newcomb et al. (1965) notes that socialization leads group members to become more alike in their beliefs and referred to these as "group relevant attitudes that foster a sense of sticking together" (p. 224).

In a university setting, this socialization process is thought to be an essential, and most often unproblematic, process. Tenured faculty provide the newcomers with, and the latter acquire, the attitudes, skills, and so on that

are needed for their successful participation in the
institution (Van Maanen, 1978). In this instance, however,
it is interesting to note that only one faculty member
specifically mentioned anything to do with socialization of
newer faculty. Moreover, there was no evidence that an
effective and sustained socialization process was in place.
In large measure, this lack of a direct and conscious
socialization process may be directly related to the fact
that there is a lack of a sense of "ownership" of the
degree on the part of the faculty. This will be discussed
later in this chapter.

In any event, for the part-time doctoral student and
faculty perspective, the crucial aspect of "part-timeness"
has very little to do with credits taken. Rather, the
issue is one of time pressures of full-time employment and
how these pressures are recognized by both faculty and
students.

Accommodation. One way faculty expectations relate to
the pressures of time is by making adjustments, or engaging
in a process of reconciliation with the students. The
students clearly believe that accommodations should be made
because of their full-time employment situation. For the
faculty, the issue of accommodation appears to be more
acceptable to the senior faculty members than to the newer
faculty, a division that roughly parallels the division of

educational administration faculty and the core faculty, respectively.

First, almost all faculty members realized that part-time students were under pressure from job demands and family which led the faculty to make general allowances in their course requirements. The educational administration faculty exhibited this realization by commenting on the limited reading opportunities available for the student.

> I don't see them getting a chance to read liberally. I see them just getting through because back on the job they've got some pretty heavy stuff to deal with. What you try to do is be understanding of the fact people have full-time jobs someplace.

> I don't think some of them have the time to go about the business of reading, and I have a classic example of that this semester in my class.

They also believed a close working relationship is weakened.

> Because they are gone and you don't see daily tasks, it is easy to forget that person, and so you don't keep on their tail. You can't as much as you would if you saw them every day.

The limitations of the part-time doctoral student status is deftly summarized by one member of the educational administration faculty when he stated,

> The problem with part-time doctoral students is they are working during the day and putting in an honest day's effort on the job. It's difficult for students to get that week-in and week-out energizer, especially this time of the year. It gets difficult because you are putting in long days and then coming to class and spending 2 1/2 to 3 hours in class. I think that really puts pressure on the faculty to make that class beneficial and exciting. I'm very observant of when students are having trouble keeping their eyes open

> and looking down for long periods of time, you know
> what I mean. I guess I'm a little sensitive to that
> because that is how I got my doctorate.

Not surprisingly, given the different levels of sympathy among the faculty for the time problems of the students, there are different feelings about the need for accommodation. The core faculty are less disposed, or say they are, to accommodate students. It was comparatively rarer for core faculty to say things like the following:

> What they expect from me is just about right if they
> are electing to come here and work, married and with a
> family.

The above quotations clearly illustrate that the faculty were aware that part-time doctoral student status diminishes the opportunity to become fully immersed in the doctoral program, which many believe is a critical aspect of the doctoral education experience. The data also indicate that some faculty members, especially those in educational administration, believed it was necessary not only to be aware of these limitations but make accommodations for these circumstances.

Negotiation. The students mentioned with frequency how they looked for ways to save time by negotiating with the faculty concerning course expectations and, therefore, degree requirements. This is not a unique situation because Becker et al. (1961) found that medical students also attempted to negotiate their work overload because

there was just so much the students could learn at a given time. They found the students addressed this situation by cooperating during group work. The teachers would set tasks the students felt unmanageable, and through group work, the students were able to set collective standards they felt were more reasonable. These groups intentionally lowered the amount of work required in areas they considered nonessential. For example, in laboratory work, if the assignments consisted of more lab work than the class could get done, they would all agree to do only so many of the experiments. Therefore, they set the upper limits of the class and in essence lowered expectations. It provided support for students engaging in activities the faculty would ordinarily view as improper if the students acted alone. Becker et al. found that when levels of effort are set collectively they are apt to be low. In the case of the part-time doctoral students in educational administration, the general type of negotiation Becker et al. found was especially evident in areas such as the residency policy and the day-to-day course requirements.

Residency Policy

The university revised the residency policy in 1991 because it was felt the existing policy was too great a burden on the part-time students given the time constraints they faced. Both the new and old policy are the same in that 24 credit hours must be taken in 2, 3, or 4 consecutive terms. However, unlike the old policy (see Appendix F), the new policy does not require a minimum of six credits each term. For example, a student now could take 9 hours in the summer, 3 hours in the fall and spring terms, and 9 hours the following summer and meet the residency requirements. The result is that a student can meet the residency requirement while taking a minimum of credits during the fall and spring terms when time demands of full-time employment are the greatest. In fact, the new policy can be met by being absent from campus for an extended time. Most of the students favored the new policy because,

> When they expected us to take six hours consecutively, I thought that was ridiculous for to expect practicing administrators and part-time students to do that. When they changed it to 24 hours in any rendition you wanted, it made a great deal of sense.

> For me, it was a time problem. It was hard with 6 hours all the time. If they want to recruit part-time doctoral students, the new policy is better.

It might also be noted, liberalization of the residence requirement notwithstanding, that one student believed the

new policy still placed undue restraints and excessive demands on their time.

> Now, I don't say there should not be a time when every student should be on campus, but I'm not sure that matters. In the summer, you end up having to go to classes every day of the week, instead of only in the evening or only once or twice a week. It makes an absolutely impossible situation for me because of my family and other outside responsibilities. I recommend they change it to allow for more flexibility.

Also, not all faculty agreed with this new residency requirement but for an altogether different reason than the one given by the student above. One member of the faculty made it clear when he/she stated,

> I suppose, if I could change anything, it would be that each student must spend one year in residence.

Course Requirements

In addition to easing the residency requirement, students also attempt to negotiate down course requirements. Most, but not all students, said that a negotiation process over class requirements takes place quite routinely. It is very interesting to note, as Becker et al. (1961) discovered, that whenever the students talked about this negotiating process, they mentioned it as a group effort. For example,

> Yes, you can't prepare for too much when you work all day. Lowering the requirements has happened. It's usually a group discussion and decision. It starts with one or two and develops to the critical mass of most in class. It starts covert and ends up overt.

> Yeah, are we really going to have this test? Barter it away. It begins with one or two, and they bring it up, and it just kicks in. You make sure you don't have to do all of the stuff that the prof puts in the course because you don't have the time. It is a game you play.

> Do we really need to do all of this? It is a carefully conceived process. You kind of work at it together.

> It happens all of the time. Usually as a group we go in and negotiate together, ha ha ha.

> Yes, definitely. I never had a class when it didn't negotiate paper size, tests, how many times we will meet, extended time for papers. It is subtle, and the class does it.

One student actually appeared proud of the ability to

negotiate course requirements.

> Oh, hell yeah. Guilty as charged in every class I have had. I don't like to take exams, so if ever there is a possibility of talking somebody out of a final exam, I usually lead that charge. I was keeping track for awhile, and I was two out of four at last count.

Further evidence that negotiation takes place was evident

from field notes taken during classroom observations. In

this first example, during the break time of one

educational administration class, two students were

discussing the group reports required. Each group was

assigned a chapter in the text and was responsible for

giving an oral, group report over that chapter. Concerning

this assignment one student remarked to the other,

> We only need to read the chapters assigned to our group, right?

The student's response to this question was,

Yes, we all do it.

In this same class, before the break was finished, I talked to others about reading only the chapters assigned to their group, and their responses were the same as the student's above. The students felt since they were not responsible for chapters, other than the ones assigned to them, it was a waste of time to read more. Although this example was not the result of a direct negotiation between the instructor and the students, it was a unified, understood, and agreed upon class effort at lowering the demands of the class and saving time.

In many instances, negotiation took place directly between the instructor and the class. For example, in one class during the first session, the instructor handed out and reviewed a lengthy, well-planned syllabus. It involved references to the fact that all papers had to be in APA format, listed the assigned texts, discussed the required personal journals, and announced that there would be both a mid-term and a final examination. At the close of this first class session, one student commented to another as they were walking out of class,

> I wonder if we will have enough time to get all of these assignments done?

Other class members heard this comment and agreed with the student. They also were concerned about getting all of the work done. The class continued with text assignments,

journals, individual book reports, and instructor lectures.
Four weeks into the class, the instructor announced that,

> All of the information in the syllabus concerning
> topic A will be eliminated, and tomorrow I will begin
> with the material on topic B.

With this announcement, came a sigh of relief from the
class because it obviously meant they would not have to
study this unit, which gave them additional time for the
remaining material. This particular class continued until
the last week when the instructor informed me that,

> The class and I have decided not to have a final test.
> The journals, papers, reports, and class discussions
> have allowed for accurate evaluations.

I did not observe the origin of this decision during class.
However, I later found out that it was arrived at through
conversations with individual class members outside of
class. The feelings concerning the amount of time they had
to complete the course requirements were discussed with the
instructor on an individual basis, and when enough students
had informed the faculty member of their concerns, which
ends up being a group effort, they were seen by the
instructor as legitimate, and the adjustment was made.
These discussions had taken place at various times during
the day over the previous weeks. They culminated close to
the end of the term with a final decision to dispense with
the final.

Also, my field notes of an educational administration class revealed negotiation efforts over the ever important issue of time. At break time during the first class meeting, a group of five male students were standing in the hall discussing the class syllabus and the amount of work to be covered in the class. One student remarked to others in the group,

I wonder if I will have the time to get it all done?

Later on during the course, the instructor stated that,

Monday the case study is due. I realize you get busy. The report should be double spaced, with one page being enough.

Then the instructor added,

Is Monday too soon?

When 11 students in the class raised their hands indicating it was, which also indicates a unified front, the instructor responded by stating,

Ok, you can turn it in on Tuesday; that will be ok.

This interaction is further evidence that educational administration instructors were aware of the time concerns of the part-time student.

Cooperation and negotiation between the students and faculty was not limited to the educational administration faculty. During the initial class session of a core class, the class syllabus was presented which covered in detail the numerous topics intended to be covered during the

semester. After the instructor reviewed the syllabus, the student sitting next to me in class remarked that,

> This is a lot to cover in one semester. How are we supposed to get it all done?

At the break, three students were waiting at the vending machines in the lobby area and were discussing the first half of the class. These three students remarked to one another,

> This is a lot to do in one semester.

> How do they expect us to get all this done?

This discussion ended with one of the students commenting that,

> I'm going to do all three of these areas (A, B, and C) using the same topic as my research paper. It will save me time.

Following the break, concern over time to get everything completed was voiced by members of the class seated at the table next to me, and with the support of others in the class, one student asked the instructor,

> Can we use the same topic when writing reports and our research paper?

The instructor's response to their question was,

> Yes, you can duplicate or overlap assignments to save yourself time.

It is also important to note that negotiation efforts were not always successful. When one member of a class attempted to negotiate down the number of journal entries

from daily to every other day, the instructor would have no part of it by stating,

Daily entries are required.

It should also be noted that often these negotiations were genuine efforts on the part of the faculty to meet the time constraints of the students. For example, one faculty member remarked,

> I know I have placed demands on part-time students and pushed them at times. I try to compensate for that by saying if something can't be done at the time it is assigned, I will take it late, but I want it.

Nevertheless, there was definitely a pattern evident through student interviews and in class observations, usually taking place within the first three class sessions, in which, more often than not, students were successful in negotiating class demands in terms of when the class meets, number and length of assigned papers, extension of due dates for assignments, and number of examinations given.

This whole issue of time was summarized well by a doctoral student in the intensive study area of curriculum and instruction. While visiting in the hallway, I was told that,

> In the class I just finished, I can't believe the number the educational administration students did on the instructor in this course. It ended up in class sessions not met, and then just last week it was decided not to have class the last day and no final. This is the first time I saw this negotiation in operation, and I just sat there and watched this group of principals negotiate and control the situation.

All of this means, as it did in the case of the medical students studied by Becker et al. (1961), that the students in educational administration are able to collectively influence the level and direction of their efforts to learn. They have developed ways of acting, studying, and working which made it possible for them to temper the faculty demands made on them.

Why Faculty Negotiated

An important question that needs to be addressed is why the faculty engage in this negotiation process with the students. This is a complex issue and allows for various possibilities. One possibility is that the faculty realize that greater work demands could lead to fewer students enrolling in the program. If this were to happen, there might be some concern expressed, especially by university and college administrators, over the "decline" of the program and a resultant loss of prestige.

I believe, however, that this factor accounts for only a small part of the reason for the negotiations. In that the faculty receive no credit for advising EdD students and are all very busy even without their obligations to the EdD program, many of them would very likely prefer fewer students in the program. Although this "political" factor may have some influence on the situation, I do not believe it is the critical one.

Of much greater importance is that the faculty, especially in educational administration, identify with the time constraints and job demands faced by their students. This identity, in combination with the fact that the educational administration faculty and students share similar backgrounds and have similar views about the nature and purpose of the program, leads the faculty to be sympathetic to the student situation.

There are two other points that need to be made about the role sympathy plays in the negotiation process. First, the students are aware of this, at least intuitively, and act accordingly. It is not unusual to hear them mention to the instructor how busy they were that day, how many meetings they have coming up and so on. These types of comments were quite common. Also, those in principal's positions would occasionally say that they could not be in class the following week because of school board meetings, parent conferences, athletic events, and for other assorted work-related reasons. One could argue that all of this functioned, even if not intentionally, to keep the faculty aware of how pressed they are for time.

Second, the sympathy interpretation is strengthened by the fact that the amount of negotiation attempted and undertaken varied by instructor--with, again, the division between educational administration and core faculty. As

noted elsewhere, the latter do not share similar
backgrounds with the students, especially in that none of
them have experiences as school administrators. They do
not identify as much with the time demands facing the
students and, accordingly, do not express as much sympathy
for their situation. There is still negotiation going on,
but it is less in the core courses. Thus, the best
examples of negotiation, the ones noted above with one
exception, are all for educational administration classes.

It is important to note that, over time, these
negotiation interactions have become routinized and are now
seen, without consciously thinking about it, as normal and
accepted behavior. In these interactions, what
anthropologists call enactment seems to be taking place.
Kuh and Whitt (1988) define enactment as the active, and
sometimes unconscious, role people play in establishing
their world. The conversations, actions, and negotiations
that people engage in repeatedly with others leads to
"scripted" patterns of interaction that are considered
correct and normal, so much so that, from the faculty side
at least, the process may not even seem like "negotiation"
in any serious sense of the term.

In many ways this may be thought of almost as
analogous to a play. The students and faculty have learned
their respective parts from their own previous experiences

and their observations of the experiences of others. The
scenes are played out over and over and are accepted as
tradition. I think this adds to the explanation of how one
student can begin the negotiation process and the others
then fall into line and play their parts. The actors
change as students and faculty change, but accumulated
tradition means the script remains essentially the same.
The script entails both implicit and explicit standards.
The main scenes in a negotiated script involve balking at
assignments, requirements, and time constraints. As one
sees the script enacted, it becomes clear that there is a
difference between the perceived reality of the course
(syllabus) and reality (what is actually taught). Or put
differently, there is a difference between what is stated
as taking place on paper and what actually takes place.

Homogeneity and Communication

One factor that stands behind the varied feelings of
sympathy on the part of the faculty and their varied
willingness to accommodate and negotiate is what I might
call demographic homogeneity, or lack thereof, among the
people involved in the program. This issue is important
because it helps allow for agreement, especially among the
students and between the educational administration faculty
and the students, even in the absence of frequent, direct
communication about the program.

Educational Administration Faculty and Students

The educational administration faculty, in particular, possessed many of the same characteristics as the students. They were all White males (since the inception of my study one female has been employed in the educational administration faculty), come from similar administrative experiences as the students, and possess the same values and goals as their students. In addition, two of the five educational administration faculty were part-time students themselves while pursuing the doctorate. When asked if their philosophies were similar to the students they stated,

> Yes, I think our philosophies and views are quite the same. We usually agree on most things.

> Philosophically, pretty much the same.

> I think a strength is that we all usually agree.

The result of these similar beliefs and goals are arrived at through what Kuh and Whitt (1988) refer to as "standardized conditions that make up a framework for predicting and understanding behavior within the context of the social setting and are sustained by reinforcing loops which allow individuals to gain understandings of how to live in a culture" (p. 33). Dewey (1957) makes the point clearly when he refers to these actions, contributed to by the homogeneous nature of the participants, as habits. According to Dewey, habits are a "sensitiveness or

accessibility to certain classes of stimuli, standing predilections and aversion, rather than bare recurrence of specific acts" (p. 41). Therefore, habits mean much more than just doing the same things over and over again. The result of these agreements or habits among the educational administration faculty and students was that the part-time doctoral student found mutual support for their beliefs and values and experienced few, if any, challenging or differing values and beliefs.

The homogeneous nature of these students and instructors provided perspectives on which a culture can be created. It allowed for the students and educational administration faculty to reach agreement on course requirements and the purpose of the degree. The result is the development of a culture that includes the students in, and the professors of, educational administration.

Administrators and some faculty were not pleased with this homogeneity. However, they also recognized that the problems could not be resolved overnight. As one of them said,

> It is not good, but it is not unlike other programs across the country. And it is difficult and takes time to alter.

The very nature of the part-time doctoral student status limits communication possibilities. When asked

about the frequency and availability of communicating with
their peers, the students stated that,

> Oh, not really. There is nobody, well, I guess there
> is J.F., but I never see him. Routinely, no.

> No, not outside of class. They go their way, and I go
> mine.

> I only talk to them when I'm here for class. Outside
> of class, once a month, maybe.

> Only before and after class. I don't have time for
> more.

Communication was also lacking between the student and
their instructors.

> I only talk to my advisor once in awhile. I have
> trouble getting them on the phone.

> For me, not much. They are available at break.

> No, not as much as I should. There always seems to be
> something else to do.

> Not as much as I would like to.

In the absence of frequent communication, it can be
asked how the students are able to present a relatively
"united front" in, for example, the negotiation process.
One explanation may be in what Clark (1972) referred to as
predispositions. These are patterns of experience, social
class, racial, and ethnic ties that heavily condition the
quality and character students bring with them to the
educational experience. According to Becker et al. (1961),
one factor usually considered essential to the development
and maintenance of a strong culture or subculture is

frequent communication about problems within the group that are common to all members of the group. The homogeneity of the students allowed for this communication to operate with little conflict and contributed to the unified, non-competitive nature of the student culture. These predispositions give the students a sense that they are in this together and allows them to act as a unified group to affect changes in course work and requirements to their advantage. In fact, they see themselves as working together to meet in some cases, and deflect in others, the course requirements. The homogeneity of the students contributes to this process in that it assists in the continuance of the beliefs and views of not only the educational administration students but the faculty as well.

As noted earlier, the negotiations initiated by students over course requirements is a group phenomenon. One or two students initiate the process, and others will immediately join in that process. The ease with which the students are able to present a unified front is in part the result of the homogeneity of the student group. In the last chapter, it was noted that the students are mostly White, male, middle-aged, married with two children, who attended a small to mid-sized undergraduate institution, are an administrator or teacher in a small to mid-sized

school district that is mostly White, reside within a 100-mile radius of the university, and so on. The students themselves recognize their demographic homogeneity and also recognize that it has led them to possess similar views and beliefs. As they stated repeatedly:

> Much the same, fairly close in values and beliefs.

> Oh, yes, very similar. We are all practitioners.

> Yes, it is a philosophical agreement. It doesn't develop after you get here. You bring it with you when you come.

> I think the fact that we are much alike is a definite strength. It allows us to share common beliefs, and we work together to solve our problems.

Most of the students saw little problem with the high degree of homogeneity because they expected to remain in this geographical area after getting their degree and to obtain administrative positions that resembled their present environment.

> Of the people you are using in your study, 90% of us will end up in our same situation, so I don't know that that is all bad.

> Well, I think it is okay because most of us are going to end up in these similar situations.

> I don't think it will change much. The students I'm dealing with now will be the same 10 to 15 years from now.

> In classes, I hear all of us talking about the same ideas, and we usually agree.

Only two of the students specifically said that this
homogeneity was not a good situation. Their comments
clearly indicate their concerns.

> It's not good. I will be in culture shock with a
> multi-cultural school. I wouldn't be ready.

> Someday we may move back to LA. I need to know if I'm
> going to have what it takes to make things happen in a
> place like that. I don't know if there is anything in
> our program that will help.

Creager (1971) examined the consequences of a
situation where entering graduate students are much like
the faculty of the institution and, therefore, both desire
to engage in much the same tasks. The results of his
study, where both students and faculty agree on course
content and expectations, can be applied to this situation
because the same patterns of values and attitudes present
in the students was also evident in the educational
administration faculty. That is one of the most
interesting things about this similarity of background,
values, and beliefs because it included, at least in part,
the faculty.

Core Faculty and Students

The instructors of the professional common core
presented a separate case in that they are generally
different from both the students and educational
administration faculty in background, beliefs, and values.
The core faculty are different demographically from

educational administration students and faculty. For example, most of them completed their doctoral work as full-time students, have no administrative experience, attended larger, more diverse secondary, undergraduate, and graduate institutions, come from different cultural environments, and so on. Perhaps a key element of this demographic data is that four of the five core faculty have PhD degrees as opposed to the EdD degrees common to the faculty in educational administration.

This core segment of the faculty shares a perspective which is somewhat at odds with that of the educational administration faculty and students. The core faculty view the degree more in terms of a traditional, research-based degree. For them, this means that the degree requirements and course expectations should be, if not higher, certainly different than in the teaching, practitioner-oriented degree. This leads them to hold that the students should put more time and effort toward what the core faculty considers "academic credibility." Also, unknowingly perhaps, this situation eventually could create a more competitive relationship among the students. In any event, this issue of different perspectives on the program will receive extended discussion in the next chapter.

Perspectives of Female Part-Time Doctoral Students

It must be noted that a breakdown of this similarity
of perspectives among the educational administration
faculty and students may be in the offing as an increasing
number of females enter the EdD administrative program. It
is common knowledge that educational administration has
long been a male preserve and that gender bias is common in
administration and administration programs. In the face of
this situation, there may be the beginnings of a female
subculture and a certain amount of tension and competition.
Although I did not explore this issue in depth, in their
responses to a question relating to the issue of gender,
the male part-time doctoral students said things such as
the following:

> We are at a point historically where there is an
> effort being made to recruit and encourage women to
> enter administration and programs. Districts are
> emphasizing hiring females, oh, sort of a reverse
> discrimination.

> Oh, I think, and I'm saying this as a person who is
> not sexist, but I guess I perceive it as an attempt
> for them to show they can do a man's job.

> I think it is a societal thing. Men are still viewed
> as the leaders because we are doing education and not
> just the fun things.

> Feminism affects the school in the overall culture
> when it comes to how we view a challenge, whether it
> is a threat or whether it is something to embrace and
> overcome. I would think that I usually approach it as
> a challenge. The thing I notice is that the women
> don't carry the woman's lib sledgehammer around with
> them, you know, the bitch type of person.

In interviews with female students, although again the issue was not explored in depth, there is the sense they are treated, or certainly think they are treated, differently by the profession. A "mind set" is in evidence concerning the commonly held idea that females have a "calling" for, or for some unclear reasons are better suited for, elementary administration. You can see this from the female comments below.

> I think there is definitely different qualities. I think there is a different characteristic in elementary administration that is different, that are different from middle or high school. Women seem to fit elementary administration better.

> Probably the existing paradigm that elementary administration is mostly female. That is where they are supposed to be. That is still the common mind set.

> High school administrators will probably argue with me on this, but I think elementary people are more learner-centered, and I think we bring those qualities.

> Well, I just think we are different people. We both enter the level of administration because we feel that's where our strengths are, and that is the way it should be.

I also discovered data, but in a preliminary way only, that gender role stereotyping was also evident during classroom activities. This was especially true when group work was assigned. In groups where female students were present, they assumed the duties of keeping notes, organizing the thoughts of others, and preparing the report to be given. They essentially serve in the role of a

secretary. For example, when one class broke into groups to work on a contingency plan for a school district, a female in each group kept notes and recorded material to be included in the report. When it came time to make the oral presentation, more often than not a male gave the report. This same pattern was noted in another class when the instructor assigned the students to groups to create an assessment of school district needs. As in the previous situation, females assumed the responsibility of recording, writing, and making overheads.

This type of activity was especially apparent in the last educational administration class observed. Here, once again, the females were responsible for organizing, recording, and copying materials for the report. In this class the material required information that either teachers or administrators would be able to provide. The males contributed material related to administration, and the females related information from the teacher's perspective.

Finally, one further example stands out as evidence of female and male role identity. This incident occurred when the instructor assigned a project that required ideas on a particular topic to be written down, brainstormed so to speak, and then discussed with the class. The females immediately, almost automatically, picked up the pens and

began writing down ideas on the butcher paper, while the men sat and watched as the list was prepared. The female members of the group made suggestions, but when the item was written down, it was usually an item suggested by a male. The organizing and writing of this exercise was completed by the females, but the oral presentation to the class was done by a male.

It seems that whenever writing was required, or lists needed, the responsibility was automatically given to the females. I also noted that more male suggestions ended up in the report than female suggestions. Maybe this was because females were so busy recording the proceedings that they simply did not have the time to contribute as much as they could have. The most striking thing about this interaction was that although females kept records, notes, and listings, they also made sure that the group functioned effectively and that the group project was completed. In one sense, they actually functioned in a leadership role but were not often recognized by others as providing leadership within the group.

At this stage, it is impossible to say how these patterns will evolve with the increasing number of women entering the program. To the extent there is a women's subculture developing, it may be what Becker and Geer (1960) refers to as a "latent culture." That is, it is a

subculture that is not yet well developed to the point where it affects the dominant culture. As to whether this will change, and whether it will evolve into a well-developed subculture, remains to be seen.

Ownership of the Doctoral Program

The ability of the part-time student in educational administration to influence course requirements seems to be related to the fact that within the faculty there is not a feeling of ownership of the doctoral program. This lack of ownership is caused by two related characteristics, if not weaknesses, of the program. One involves the hierarchical, or top down, development of the program from its inception. The other is a lack of communication among the faculty.

Historical Development

The development of the EdD program of the university was patterned after what Delworth and Hansen (1989) refer to as formal organizational properties that emphasize hierarchical structure, top down expertise, and control. They also refer to this hierarchical model as resulting in departments, colleges, titles, and positions that tend to isolate people. When the doctoral program was being developed, it was organized and fostered by the top administrators in the college of education. The faculty themselves felt that they had very little input concerning the decision to have a doctoral program. This top down

method of developing the doctoral program was made clear to me by a member of the faculty who was present during the initial stages of its development. This faculty member stated,

> I was heavily involved in the development of the program that went to the Regents. I think the college of education has as yet to generate a great deal of ownership in the program. This is especially true in the core. Ed administration needs graduate students, whereas others are heavily loaded with undergraduate students. Also, the doctoral program is not controlled by educational psychology. I certainly don't believe the level of commitment is there in the faculty. If the program were dropped, the curriculum and instruction department would give a sigh of relief. The design didn't come from the faculty. It came from the top down, so there is not a lot of ownership attached to it. The focus in the college is not on the doctorate. When someone owns something, they tinker with it. I don't see that in the doctoral program. It is from the top down. With many of the faculty, it is not a priority interest.

In addition, another faculty member, who was not formally interviewed as part of the study but who was with the university before the doctoral program was begun, stated to me that,

> The program is viewed as top down, and when the program was developed, it was viewed that way as well. The development of the doctorate was used as a resume-building exercise for the administrators at that time. Faculty tended to see it as more work, another thing they had to do.

Communication Among Faculty over the Program

One factor associated with this legacy of development and lack of ownership is the infrequency of discussion about the doctoral program. The top down development of

the doctoral program may explain this lack of communication because, as Wells (1990) believed, people may be critical of a program but rarely criticize the ideals openly because to do so brands the person as an outsider, and most people would prefer to belong. This lack of communication is the case for both members within departments and for people across departments. For example, there is a consistent lack of agenda items relating to the doctoral program for departmental meetings. This indicates that departmental unity and agreed upon criteria for the doctoral program are lacking. All faculty participants indicated that the program was not discussed much in departmental meetings.

> In departmental meetings, it has been my experience that we have not spent much time talking about it.

> None, absolutely none.

> Hardly ever.

> Very infrequent.

> Probably not a whole lot; within the department, not a hell of a lot.

The obvious point is that not many of the faculty members in educational administration or the professional core talk to each other about the program. For most faculty this situation was seen as a problem. As many of them noted,

> As far as departments, we need more links between departments, maybe some more joint efforts. It's not antagonistic, but it could be a lot more favorable, a lot more positive.

> Educational administration and the core courses don't work closely together because there is no reward for doing so. If the university truly valued inter-departmental cooperation, there could be some things put in place to reward or accompany it.
>
> No, because of different standards and expectations between departments.
>
> Very seldom. It is not good.
>
> Ah, well, anytime there is a reason. I mean, I don't go down the hall and say, "Hi, how are you?" that kind of thing. It is usually done in the context of dissertation committees. Last year I started getting the people who teach educational research courses to meet with different departments, but generally speaking, other than in the context of particular research issues, I don't meet with them.

This lack of communication was even discussed in meetings between me and my dissertation committee in reference to the College Committee on Doctoral Studies (CCDS). For example, the following comment was made by a committee member during one of these meetings.

> We do meet in CCDS to tend to doctoral issues, dialogue, conflicts, but the minutes of these meetings are not shared with all of the faculty and are not read or known to others.

Lack of communication and ownership within the departments allowed the students in educational administration to present a unified front in which individuals with similar values, goals, and beliefs worked together to solve problems and concerns of the group, whereas faculty, not being a unified force, were unable to launch such a unified effort. To put it another way, individual faculty members had very little authority to

operate in unity with others. This allows the students to negotiate without the risk of violating doctoral faculty goals or beliefs.

Specified Doctoral Faculty

Another explanation for this lack of communication could be attributed to the fact that there is not a specific doctoral faculty within the university. A specific doctoral faculty is defined as faculty members who have as their main, if not their only, responsibility courses and students related to the doctoral program.

First, all instructors in the educational administration department teach masters level and doctoral courses, whereas most of the core instructors teach courses at the undergraduate, masters, and doctoral level. The result is that faculty are spread very thinly in terms of the time and interest they can or are willing to devote to any one course. For example, I had to continually remind them that I was asking questions in relation to the doctoral program, because if I did not, their responses were very often made in relation to the masters program. It could be that this lack of ownership for the program, as evidenced by a lack of a doctoral faculty, results in no direct responsibility for the program.

Second, the degree is not an educational administration doctorate per se, but an education doctorate

with an advanced professional study area of 33 to 36
credits in educational administration. That this is a
sensitive issue can be seen by statements like the
following,

> One of the problems here at [this university] is the
> structure of the doctoral program. And, if you are
> not careful, you will get slapped on the hand and told
> educational administration doctoral students are
> college of education doctoral students, not
> educational administration doctoral students. And so
> that   position has mitigated against, I think, the
> faculty having a real sense of responsibility for
> working with doctoral students.

> I think the intensive study areas don't have quite the
> ownership in the doctoral program as much as other
> universities may have, because it is a doctorate of
> education degree, and not a doctorate of counseling or
> educational administration and curriculum and
> instruction. I think there could very well be an
> ownership problem.

Third, a lack of ownership within the doctoral program
was reflected in the fact that there is no mission
statement and/or unified driving force within the
educational administration department. When asked about
the mission statement or driving force within the
department, the typical response was,

> I don't hear anybody talk about it. I don't believe
> there is a driving force that provides that direction.
> This is a little bit typical of colleges and
> universities.

> Ok, well, the faculty is in transition right now, ah,
> the driving force would be tradition, knowledge of
> what educational administration programs usually are.
> You have got to have some standard measurement of what
> you need to achieve in.

The fact that the mission is not written down or formalized does not mean that they do not have well-defined purposes or goals within the department. The difficulty arises because, without the goals of the program being stated formally, the impression is given that there is no common focus within the department or across departments. There is a sense that things happen by chance and not by design. For example,

> I don't know if we have any common beliefs that we have down in writing. I would be hard pressed to list clearly defined, commonly agreed upon goals.

> You know, I struggled with this question the last time you interviewed me, because I didn't think that we have really sat down and identified what we believe.

However, and somewhat ironically, it should be noted that the educational administration faculty do not feel a pressing need to develop a mission statement because they think that it would be a statement about something they do not own in the first place.

The lack of a doctoral faculty also limited communication opportunities and made it possible for the students to have more influence on faculty members because the latter operated more or less as individuals rather than as members of a doctoral faculty or as part of a program. This splintering of faculty allows students, as a group, especially in class settings, to negotiate with individual faculty members with little risk that they would be in

opposition to some commonly agreed upon policies of a faculty group. Implicitly, this lack of ownership, as seen by a lack of communication, allows the students more power than they ordinarily would have. The case could be made that if the faculty didn't communicate to others about the purpose of the degree, and if the faculty feel no ownership for the program, the efforts of the students to control and direct the expectations of the program is not a major concern for the faculty. In this vacuum rests the growth of student power.

Cultural Ethos

A additional factor that is entangled with a lack of ownership in the program is the absence of what Clark and Trow (1966) refer to as cultural ethos, or the official culture of the institution. In my interviews with the faculty, it was difficult to determine just what the cultural ethos of the university is because they did not talk about this in our conversations.

The only area where the ethos of the culture was present was with what Kuh and Whitt (1988) refer to as an institutional actor. The educational administration faculty clearly had such an individual. Every student interviewed had a story to tell about the influence this individual had on their educational and professional

growth. This person has since retired, but his influence on the students was unmistakable.

Finally, as noted earlier, the hierarchical bureaucracies or formal organizational properties, which include top down communication, control of authority, and departments that isolate each other, has had an impact on all of the faculty, resulting in a lack of interest and sense of ownership of the program. Ostensibly, the EdD program is what Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) described as structural-functionalism because it maintains the system through structuring the relationship of individuals and groups.

Summary

Being employed full-time while a student was the main factor in defining a student as part-time. This view of the part-time student led the faculty in most cases to make adjustments in course work. Also, full-time employment limited the extent to which students communicate, interact, express, and pursue their beliefs, values, and goals. Part-time doctoral students do not see themselves as university students, but on the job, which is evidenced in the new policy concerning the residency requirement for doctoral students.

An important factor was the ability of members within the culture to communicate with other members about the

goals, values, and problems within that culture. The
departmental status of educational administration created a
situation where communication between faculty members and
students was possible because all faculty members of, and
the part-time doctoral students in, educational
administration held similar views and philosophies
concerning the purpose and goals of the degree. Therefore,
cultural beliefs and values were easier to maintain. These
beliefs created a channel to advance, protect, and
influence the cultural beliefs, goals, and values of its
members, creating a union between the part-time student and
the faculty of educational administration. The result of
this partnership was that the part-time doctoral student
and the faculty of educational administration reached
agreement concerning the philosophy and purpose of the
degree.

There is also developing a sub-culture of the
part-time doctoral students in educational administration
made up of female part-time doctoral students who aspire to
administrative positions traditionally held by males, and
their presence threatens to break up the dominant culture
as a profession. How this will develop over the next few
years, and the affect it may have on the program, is
unclear.

The instructors of the required core subjects who subscribe to the traditional view of a doctorate were at a disadvantage in communicating and discussing their cultural views because they do not offer a specific doctoral program within their department. Therefore, the instructors of the professional common core were not able to generate an agreement on beliefs and values. This has resulted in the formation of one dominant culture with students and educational administration faculty as members, and one subculture comprised of core faculty only.

There is evidence that the lack of ownership within the college for the doctoral program is related to a lack of a distinctive doctoral faculty which results in poor departmental and interdepartmental communication. Without a specific doctoral faculty, where one listens and attempts to understand the views of others, the unified front of the part-time doctoral student in educational administration will likely have more influence than they should in determining course requirements and, therefore, degree outcomes.

CHAPTER FIVE

KNOWLEDGE WORTH KNOWING

In this chapter I address three basic, closely-associated issues. First, I discuss how the faculty and students characterize this degree and this particular program. Do they see the degree as an "academic" degree, as a "practitioners" degree, or as some combination of the two? Also, I look at the extent to which there is agreement among faculty and students over how to characterize the degree and program. Second, I examine the closely related question of what the faculty and students consider is knowledge most worth knowing. Are there differences of opinion over the extent to which the program should emphasize "theoretical" or "practical" knowledge? Finally, I examine how the various perspectives held about the nature of the degree and knowledge most worth knowing affects the terminal activity of the program--the dissertation.

The Practitioners Degree

The initial comments from the faculty indicated they believed the PhD degree and the EdD degree were essentially one and the same thing. Although they mentioned that the PhD degree traditionally requires additional courses in statistics and in some instances competency in a foreign

language, the differences between the two degrees had

narrowed over the years and is now quite minimal.

> We talk about the EdD degree being different in terms
> of serving practitioners, but in reality there isn't
> much of a difference.

> I worked for a long time in a doctoral program in
> administration where they had the PhD and the EdD
> degree, and you couldn't tell the difference.

> I guess the EdD, at least in my mind, was always the
> practitioner's degree, but I think we have
> restructured the PhD degree, so it may not be all that
> different.

> Well, first of all, I'm not certain what is the
> difference between an EdD, a PhD, and all that stuff.

The students felt much the same way. As they commented,

> The EdD and the PhD are the same because students
> walking out of here have to do everything you need for
> a PhD program.

> I talk to students in PhD programs, and I'm doing the
> same thing they are.

> It is still a research degree; little difference
> between this and a PhD

> Other than a foreign language in some programs, there
> is no difference.

> They all seem pretty practical. I haven't noticed
> much of a difference

However, while most participants initially stated they

believe the PhD and the EdD are very much alike, when I

asked them more closely about the requirements and

expectations of the EdD, a different picture emerged. For

example, the statements below make it clear that for the

educational administration faculty there remains a sense

that the EdD is a "practitioners" degree as opposed to a
"research" degree.

> People remain practitioners as opposed to researchers.

> Educational administration is very practical.

> I think a person in a practitioners degree needs to do field research they can use in the school setting.

> Practitioner means something you can take out of here and use.

> Vocational, to enhance what they should be doing on the job.

In opposition to the view of the faculty in
educational administration, the instructors of the common
core courses expected the degree program to contain much of
what is traditionally associated with the PhD degree.

> Well, in my course we spend a lot of time on theory. You need to have this information in order to complete a doctoral dissertation.

> In my courses we spend a lot of time on theory, the theory behind the kinds of research completed.

> The students should show sustained achievement in higher level cognitive skills over a variety of situations, such as writing, critique, discussion. More reading and exams. More analyzing and synthesizing literature.

The above statements from the two "groups" of faculty,
their seeming ambiguity at times notwithstanding, do
indicate a difference of perspective--one that focuses on
the importance of practical knowledge as opposed to the
importance of philosophical, theoretical knowledge. The
educational administration faculty held to the former and

saw this stance to be in line with the traditional teaching mission of this university. The professors in the common core preferred an emphasis on research or, better said, an emphasis on a balance between teaching and research. Put differently, the latter promoted academic scholarship or the study of the "whys" behind practices, whereas the former advocated practical skills or the "hows" of practice. This difference is indicative of, or is an expression of, the fact that agreement, even in the broadest sense, over the design and purpose of the degree does not run that deeply among the faculty.

Knowledge Worth Knowing

In their study of medical students, Becker et al. (1961) noted that there was a disagreement among the faculty over the relative emphasis that should be given practice and teaching as opposed to research. A similar disagreement is evident among the faculty in this study-- with the educational administration faculty on the side of practice and the core faculty on the side of research and theory. What stands at the heart of this difference of perspective is a fundamental disagreement over what knowledge is worth knowing. As one faculty member summed it up,

> It really revolves around what we believe is the knowledge worth knowing.

Practical Knowledge as the Knowledge Most Worth Knowing

As was noted in Chapter 3, the professors in the educational administration department all had background experiences in the public schools--including both teaching and administrative work. These experiences influenced what they felt was knowledge most worth knowing for both them and the students. In short, although the faculty did spend some time on what they considered theory, it was of secondary importance to the information, skills, and techniques which they felt were mandatory if the students were to become effective and efficient school administrators.

For these members of the faculty, the main objective of the doctoral program was to prepare educators with the necessary practical skills to effectively perform the required responsibilities of principals and superintendents. The statements below are typical expressions of this viewpoint.

> We have tried to focus almost all our instruction on those things which school personnel need to know in order to do their job well.

> In my judgment, the program was developed to prepare people to work in K-12 schools.

> The point is for them learn to function as principals and to understand what they are doing, practical application.

> If we don't enhance what we do in the field, we don't serve them well. They are practicing while they go to

school, and it's probably more real to the student, and not a lot of junk that doesn't work.

One way the educational administration faculty taught what they believed was the knowledge most worth knowing was through field-based experiences. <u>Field based</u> means experiences based on practicums in the field or centered around activities in the class designed to simulate field experiences. These field experiences were viewed as important because they gave the student the practical experience necessary to perform their duties as administrators. When I asked them to discuss this field-based aspect of the program they declared,

> I think the practitioners degree should do field-based research on things that are happening in the field, so that in essence there will be simulations and experiences away from the class that hopefully will give students an idea of that field application at the time they are taking the course.

> Right now, for example, in .... we are probably skewed anywhere from 55-45, or 60-40, with field based being the highest, the heavy side, and when I say field based, I mean simulation based.

> I think it is field based. We don't debate it much.

> Heavily skewed to field based, its simulation in this class. We deal with the day-to-day responsibilities in our classes. As practical as we can be.

The focus of the educational administration faculty on practical knowledge as the knowledge that is most worth knowing also was evident from my classroom observations. This dominance of the practical can be noted in the types of topics covered in four educational administration

courses observed. For example, the topics or issues
covered ranged from those such as,

1. Conducting faculty, staff, and parent meetings.

2. Developing policy guidelines for staffings.

3. Learning procedures for staff input in budgeting
   and purchasing.

4. Understanding screening processes and procedures
   for teacher selection.

to

5. Group activity on criteria for hiring a principal
   and article reports on leadership.

6. Practical ideas and practical programs used to
   develop a vision in the students, hiring process,
   and simulation.

7. Budget development by using a decision packet to
   justify allocation of funds.

8. Supervision of faculty members and dealing with
   the personal and professional problems of a staff.

In these courses, little or no time was spent on the
theoretical basis of leadership or on the nature of
organizational processes.

The existence of the difference in perspectives
between the educational administration faculty and the core
faculty became crystal clear when all of them responded to
the question, "What knowledge base should a student have
upon completion of the degree?" The replies of the
educational administration faculty to this question were on
the order of the following:

> Leadership, group behavior, curriculum, evaluation, practical skills to accomplish this. Management skills.
>
> A certain set of skills, a professional growth model.
>
> More skills to functioning as a principal and to understand what they are doing; the skills to do it.

Based on the above data, as well as the material from Chapter Four, it is clear that the educational administration faculty take a mechanistic or "recipe" approach to knowledge. When the students inquire how something should be done, the instructor responds with a system, technique, or process that if followed will lead, presumably at least, to success. For example, it was common for the instructors to talk in terms such as: the five steps to hiring new teachers; the mechanics involved with making out a budget; and seven steps to effective leadership. The emphasis here is clearly on the transmission of sets of skills or practices.

Philosophical and Theoretical Knowledge as the Knowledge Most Worth Knowing

In part, because the professors of the common core did not have school administrative experiences, or, for that matter, have as much experience generally in elementary and secondary schools, the knowledge they were interested in transmitting was different from that of members of the educational administration department. The former did not focus on practical knowledge in the same way as did the

educational administration faculty. For the core faculty,
theoretical concerns were more important and must precede
practical issues. As two of them noted, in statements to
which the others generally assented,

> We really can't focus on practical sort of things
> without first touching base on the theoretical
> foundations.

> An effort to bring theory into the class--to bring
> theory to the level of practice.

Thus, they viewed knowledge most worth knowing from a
completely different perspective. They did not think that
administrative studies should be a predominantly field-
based activity or process. Rather, they held that the
program should be an academic endeavor involving theory and
philosophy. As they noted,

> In educational psychology, the point is to get them to
> know more pedagogy.

> I believe all doctoral students should be required to
> take a course in philosophy.

> Well, I feel the students should have a strong base in
> the literature in the field, to be able to analyze and
> critique it.

In opposition to the view of the educational
administration faculty, the faculty who teach the core
courses, while they recognize the part-time doctoral
students have a great deal of daily experiences, feel that
these experiences must be challenged and grounded in theory
and philosophy. It wasn't that they saw little benefit in
courses emphasizing the practical aspects of educational

administration, it was rather that they believed a strong
base in theory and philosophy was essential to understand
practical applications. Moreover, they universally felt
that the knowledge of theory and philosophy on the
part-time doctoral student was not as good as it should be.

> Well, sometimes I think they are good to have in
> class, yet sometimes they don't think enough about
> what they do or say to get out of it what I feel they
> need.

> The part-time doctoral students come in at night, and
> they want practical answers. It should be more than
> that. Without guiding principles, you don't know good
> practice from bad practice.

The interest in the theoretical and philosophical on
the part of the core faculty also was apparent from my
classroom observations. For the two common core courses
observed, the topics for discussion outlined within the
syllabi were much more conceptual in orientation. For
example, one of the classes covered topics such as:

1. Alternative research paradigms.

2. Experimental research.

3. Review of relevant literature the students
   research.

The other class covered:

1. Social implications of schooling.

2. Critical theory.

3. Philosophical basis for educational theory.

The core faculty appear to be taking a position that
invokes the notion of expertise. That is, they approach

their classes and the program from the position that they know something of a conceptual and theoretical nature that the students do not know but need to know. The intent is to convey that knowledge to the students. The claim that the core faculty make is that this knowledge will lead to better practice because it will be theoretically informed practice. They do not, as do the educational administration faculty, sponsor classroom environments where day-to-day experiences are shared among students and between faculty and students.

This difference between the two segments over the knowledge worth knowing can be restated as a difference in the "model" of the university to which each adheres. The core faculty emphasize what might be called education. Whereas they do not denigrate the need to know how to do things (skills), they think the university should be Wolff's (1969) place of scholarship and focus thereby on the whys behind the hows. The educational administration faculty emphasize what might be called training. Although they do not deny the need for theory, they see the university, or certainly the college of education, as more in line with Wolff's training ground for professionals. It is not that each side flatly rejects the other side's position. It is just that they come at this program and

the issue of knowledge that is worth knowing from very different directions.

Student Perspectives on Knowledge Most Worth Knowing

The part-time doctoral students in educational administration universally agreed with the approach taken by their department faculty. The students felt that the emphasis on practical skills, techniques, and processes was more than merely appropriate; it actually was a definite strength of the program. They repeatedly stated that it is important to have an

Emphasis on practicality, not just theory.

The strength of the program is that it's built around practice and the practitioner; it's practicality-based.

The students felt that the study of theory and philosophy only was a necessary degree requirement. While observing the two core classes, it was not uncommon to hear students comment among themselves to the effect that,

This is all very interesting, but what good does it do me in the day-to-day responsibilities of the job?

There is a place for theory. However, when you are a part-time doctoral student and out in the field, the theory seems nebulous.

One of the students made the view of the part-time doctoral student in educational administration very clear by stating,

Where is he going with all of this stuff? I don't see any practical value to any of it. This theory makes

> you think alright, but I don't see where it does me any good on the job.

The statements made by the students while they were taking the various classes made it apparent that they favor the practical side of this debate. They obviously thought knowledge that included practical, useable skills and techniques was more important. I visited with a group of students after a particular session of an educational administration course and asked them what they felt was good about the course. Their affinity for the "practical" was quite clear.

> Dr. ---- is one to give you very practical things, and it is as it should be.

> For the most part, very practical. Finances, bargaining, you are a practitioner.

> As you talk theory, you always come back to reality.

> Highly field based and practical, and I agree with that.

> Practical, and I agree.

Support for practical knowledge was not only evident in my individual and group conversations with students but also in terms of the questions asked by the students while in class. For example, it was not uncommon to hear students ask questions on the order of,

> How do you know when and how to use a particular situational leadership technique?

or,

> What are the steps or procedures a leader follows to achieve a goal?

Thus, the professors of, and the students in, educational administration shared a common perspective on what type of knowledge is most important. It is important to note that the dialogue in the educational administration classes actually served the purpose of strengthening and supporting these shared perspectives. These interactions served as validating exercises for constantly reinforcing their shared purposes, experiences, and knowledge. This was a strong element in solidifying the prevailing views of both the educational administration faculty and the students.

In practice, the process was often engaged in as follows: the instructor would ask a question and the students would then relate a practice or policy that the student was using in his/her school. For example, in one course the professor asked,

> If you give a grade level $1,000.00 to spend as they like, do you then criticize how they spent it?

The student response was,

> Well, in my school we learn to network within the building and departments to share and compare what we purchase.

This was followed by a discussion of the particulars of having a network and sharing.

This same type of exchange occurred in another class when the topic was public relations. The question from the professor was,

> How can we get parents involved in our public relations efforts?

One student responded by stating,

> What we did in my school was to ask parents what kids get from school.

This response was followed by one from another student who said,

> You could use more parents as guest speakers. We don't do that, but I wish we did.

And, finally, another student added,

> Our third grade teacher has students bring stuff from home to get the parents involved.

The volunteered comments and suggestions from the class members focused on present practice and rarely went beyond simply relating what is done in their existing school districts. The examples abound:

> I brought some of the ads we use in hiring personnel, perhaps someone else can tell me what you do in your district?

> How do you handle money on field trips? Do you do it like we do, get receipts and turn them in on your return?

> This class is what I expected. It has practical information, skills we can use in the field. The panel discussion on superintendent and board relations had some good techniques I can use in my district.

> This type of exchange means that two types of

activities are taking place in the classroom. Certainly

the students are learning some things they might be able to
use on the job. The sharing of experiences is an
established, valid form of learning. However, by the same
token, these exchanges among students and between faculty
and students have the air of a "membership ritual" about
them. That is, their exchanges announce to all concerned
that the student belongs, that he/she is at home with the
values, beliefs, and practices of the educational
administration culture.

Put differently, this type of interaction may be less
concerned with what one might call "meaningful utterances"
but rather more concerned with what one might call
"appropriate" ones. The importance of this is that the
students are not merely saying things that make sense; they
seek to say things that reveal to others their skill and
knowledge of schools. The well-socialized individual knows
these rules, thereby revealing that they are knowledgeable
about current practices and methods. New students in the
program will not volunteer answers as frequently as other
students until they learn how to respond to questions in a
way that will enable them to present themselves as one
knowing what is taking place in the schools. This means
that one must know the skills necessary to function as an
effective administrator. In any event, most interaction
between the students and the professors had a specific

purpose. That purpose was usually to indicate something
about themselves--in particular, to demonstrate their
knowledge of practical, day-to-day administrative
activities.

One final observation concerning the validation of
accepted beliefs and values took place before class, during
breaks, and after class. These conversations highlight the
values of educational administration and serve the purpose
of rejuvenating and reaffirming the values of the group.
The students almost always discussed items occurring in
their respective school districts at the time. As a group
of students were visiting during a break time, one student
remarked to the other,

Do you have any job openings?

The response was,

Hell yes, and I don't even have the master schedule
finished yet.

And another student remarked

Our softball team really beat up on ----.

To be included in these discussions was important because
it allowed one to be an accepted member of the
administrative group and tended to bond the students
together. They all had similar experiences and problems,
and to share them with one another was a sign of acceptance
and belonging. In essence, these classes become
clearinghouses for sorting out those with acceptable

knowledge and beliefs from those who have as yet to gain
this practical, useable knowledge. It gave them the
opportunity to perform for an audience that would
appreciate their expertise and frustrations of being an
educational administrator. Also, as noted in the last
chapter, the content of these discussions was controlled by
the male members of the class. These classroom discussions
and subsequent conversations between the faculty and the
students become, in reality, a ritual in which each
succeeding group learns and passes on to the next the
skills and techniques necessary to become a member of the
educational administrative culture.

The above examples demonstrate that practical
experience is the most important currency of exchange
between the educational administration faculty and the
students and among the students. For the educational
administration faculty, this was interpreted as the
part-time doctoral student bringing a richness to the class
because they could recount the day-to-day experiences of
full-time practitioners. These experiences were an
integral part of the course expectations and developing
knowledge base:

> They bring immediate application, job performance
> kinds of things. More alive.

> They want material and ideas that will work in the
> real world.

> Practitioners kind of perceptions. What's happening
> on a day-to-day basis. They know what is going on.

The emphasis the part-time doctoral student and the

educational administration faculty placed on practical

knowledge and on the mastery of skills and procedures

centered around one term. The term that was mentioned with

some frequency was vocational.

Vocational orientation. During the follow-up

interviews I told the students that I had heard the term

"vocational" mentioned to depict the program and asked if

they felt the program was vocational in nature. Their

responses indicated they were unsure about such a

designation because they had not thought of the program in

that way.

> Well, I'm not sure on that one. We get a lot of
> things that help in being better principals. If that
> part is vocational, I think it is true. But I don't
> know if I would go along with it being totally
> vocational.

> I have never heard the term vocational attached to it.
> I don't know what to think of that.

> Vocational does seem to fit somewhat, but I have never
> thought of it that way, say in opposition to academic
> or scholarship.

However, there was a much clearer understanding of the

distinctly vocational thrust of the program when the term

"union card" was raised. The students had a clear

understanding of this term as evidenced by their

statements.

First and foremost is the principal's accreditation, and that is a form of a union card.

Maybe, but a union card to open doors, yes.

I want to believe the degree is more than that, but I think I'm being naive.

The degree to me is union card, a sheet of paper to open some doors.

The students' reaction to the term "union card" indicates that although they have not given the ideas of the program as vocational a great deal of thought, they definitely think of the program as leading to a credential that will allow access to higher administrative positions in the public schools. It is in this sense that one can say that the students have adopted an instrumentalist attitude in regard to the program. They see it as a means to a desired end, with the "goods" to be attained from going through the process as extrinsic to that process.

This instrumentalist attitude, and the fact that the "goods" to be attained are extrinsic to the activities they engage in, is an important factor in the student disposition toward the work required of them by the faculty. As is generally the case, if one engages in a task primarily for the extrinsic rewards it brings, rather than for intrinsic satisfaction it brings, the tendency is to minimize the demands that that task places on one. I think this situation explains, as I will note in my

discussion of the dissertation, why the survey research approach is so important in this program.

The core faculty are mindful of this union card situation and, to a certain degree, do not object to it. However, they are caught, so to speak, between their own doctoral experiences, which were designed to induct them into the university community, and this program with its vocational intent and focus on extrinsic rewards. This is not to say that the doctorates of the core faculty had no extrinsic consequences; it is more that they experienced more of a balance of the intrinsic and extrinsic. This is a balance they would like to replicate for this program—a balance that would lead to, for example, dissertations that are more academic or scholarly.

Why do the students not see much of value in theory and philosophy? Could it be that they are right and that the material covered in the core courses are not of much value in the daily requirements of the job? Could it be that the core instructors have it right and that the educational administration students, and therefore the profession, simply do not realize this and suffer in return? From the material gathered in my study, the former is clearly the view taken by the students.

Academic Freedom

When I asked about the possibility of the faculty
attempting to address some of their obvious differences
over what knowledge is most worth knowing, two responses
were commonly given. First, some faculty said this
difference of philosophy should be considered a strength
and not a weakness of the doctorate.

> Well, I think that diversity only serves the purpose
> of enriching the experience for the students. I think
> that there is diversity of opinion among the faculty
> which can only enhance the kinds of experiences that
> the students will have.

From this point of view there was no need to find a
resolution or to achieve agreement on the issue of what is
the knowledge most worth knowing.

Second, some faculty were of the opinion that
agreement on this issue could never be attained and, for
that matter, should not be sought. From their point of
view, the only way agreement could be accomplished would be
to severely restrict academic freedom.

> Well, there you have the problem with academic
> freedom. When you get a group of people to agree as to
> what is important knowledge worth knowing, it is going
> to be like the party line. Who are going to be the
> people who disagree? The people who do not agree with
> the party line will not teach things they disagree
> with. That is what academic freedom is all about.

However, here as elsewhere, there were differing
perspectives taken on the issue of academic freedom.

> I would guess this goes back to this whole issue of
> academic freedom. There would be no loss of academic

freedom if we would ever come together on where we are going and how we are going to get there.

Classroom Implications

Even though these two groups of faculty approach the goals of the degree from different perspectives, this difference did not appear to be a debilitating factor within the course work itself. The reason for this was that the differences in philosophy, purpose, and expectations of the degree were not present within departments but between departments. More importantly, they expected the students to adjust accordingly. When the students registered and entered a class, they knew what to expect and made the necessary adjustments to meet the requests and demands of the instructors. For example, when discussing this point with one student, the reply was,

> I try to take one course that spends time on theory and will require a lot of papers, with a course that can be essentially completed during class time.

And another student sitting next to this student commented that,

> I know that this course will require a lot of time and he/she requires a major paper. We are required to read immense amounts of literature plus a major paper. I try to take courses that require less time away from home or less reading and writing with one of these. When we students talk together, we pretty much know what to expect from the professor going in. You try to match schedules so that we have time to do the extra work required in some classes with a class that isn't so demanding.

This ability of the students to adjust to the different requirements of different courses and to seek the approval of the professor is simply an extension of a traditional pattern that permeates the entire educational system. Students size up the teacher early in the semester and decide what they are going to have to do for this teacher to get the grade they want. Block (1987) refers to this process as being "maze bright."

Where differences did become a problem was at the dissertation stage because that is where faculty members from different departments come together and the differences of perspective or philosophy must be dealt with face to face.

The Dissertation

There was no place within the program where the differences of perspectives over the knowledge most worth knowing were more evident than when it came to different perspectives over the nature and purpose of the dissertation. Each faculty group's belief about the purpose of the doctoral program, as reflected in the dissertation, made it difficult for them to work together and to cooperate with each other. At this point, the students were placed in situations where differences of philosophy had to be addressed in face-to-face meetings.

When the student begins to think about which
professors they wish to have on their committee, they must
address the issue of differing dissertation expectations
among the educational administration faculty, the
instructors of the common core, and the graduate college.
The reason for this is because dissertation committees must
include members from educational administration, the core
courses, and faculty from outside the college of education
appointed by the Dean of the Graduate College. The
Handbook for Doctoral Students in Education (1992, p. V-2)
states that

> The most typical committee includes: three members of
> the intensive study area, one member from the core
> faculty, and two members of the graduate faculty
> assigned by the Graduate Dean.

This mix actually is a reflection of the debate over
changing the traditional teaching and "field" orientation
of the university to that of a more academic and
research-based focus.

This concern over, and struggle between, the two
perspectives of scholarly research and more practical or
applied research became evident with the assignment by the
Dean of the Graduate College of an additional member(s) to
the dissertation committees. The move was taken to insure
that at least one committee member possessed the experience
and expertise required to advise students in developing a
dissertation with sufficient academic rigor and

sophistication. As one administrator stated in our interview,

> I often wonder about the college of education's
> faculty preparation, expertise, and ability to serve
> on doctoral committees. They haven't done a great
> deal of research themselves.

The appointment of the outside committee member was made to address the concern of many faculty across the university over the academic quality of past dissertations. This same administrator noted the following:

> We had some reviewers [outside the university] who
> have suggested that the dissertations are less than,
> lower quality, for an institution that puts great
> emphasis on education.

These things might indicate that those advocating a more traditional research approach were succeeding in their attempts to make the doctoral program more academic. However, even with the appointment by the graduate college of an additional committee member, the educational administration faculty continue to emphasize applied research. They continue to hold that practical knowledge is the knowledge most worth knowing.

The faculty in the department of educational administration countered that the dissertations conducted within their department met or exceeded the requirements of a traditional research based dissertation. Moreover, they believe that the dissertation should emphasize applied

research because this is exactly what the practitioner
needs and expects from the program.

> I would imagine the majority coming here have to
> acquire some research skills. Most of them would
> learn applied research--something they know is going
> on out in the field.

> We are not doing theoretical research. The Graduate
> Dean and the Provost believe our dissertations should
> be stronger. But they do not look at it as an EdD
> degree. They are looking at it as a PhD because they
> are all PhD oriented.

> There is a belief in the college that if it is
> practitioner oriented it doesn't have rigor and
> sophistication.

> I see practitioners and practical application as very
> closely related. I think the dissertation should
> examine ways to stretch what they look at as practical
> application.

> I think, as practitioners, what the degree needs to do
> is basically field-based research on things happening
> in the field.

For educational administration, the dissertation
should address an issue that students will find directly
pertinent to the task of leading and managing a school
district or building. And, it must be remembered, these
professors believe that applied research requires the same
academic standards as traditional research.

> University administrators equate part-time doctoral
> students and practitioner dissertations with less
> rigor. That is not true.

> I have students whose dissertation was just as
> sophisticated as PhD dissertations, and they were
> practitioner oriented.

The common core instructors differed over this point and held that the expectations and requirements within educational administration dissertations were not stringent enough.

> I think most educational administration studies were survey studies looking at the characteristics of principals before we had NCATE reviewers. I think those have changed.

> The problem is not if the students choose a practical problem or a theoretical problem. I think the nature of the practical problems they are choosing are irrelevant. What is an acceptable dissertation? I had an ed. admin. student, and I had to say, "No way. This is not a doctoral dissertation! Our expectations are higher than that."

> To be the faculty member sitting on an educational administration committee saying, "This dissertation is a waste of time"--to be the one to say that this is not acceptable, this is poor quality, is not a very pleasant position to be in.

The reason the professors of the common core courses felt this way was because they viewed the dissertation as an activity that should require more academic rigor and more research sophistication. More directly, in most cases, this means that they felt the dissertation should be mainly of a non-survey variety and focus on examining or developing educational theory. The core faculty made the point clear when they stated in the interviews that,

> I get concerned about survey research. We need to dig a little deeper than that.

> The doctoral dissertation should not be for mobility, a union card sort of thing. I think it has to investigate theory, new knowledge, and be substantial.

> The topics, methodology, substance, the content, sophistication of the dissertation must be relevant. Dissertations can look at technical answers, but what theoretical and philosophical things affect that?

> To study complex issues requires depth of theory and context. These dissertations will also have to reach complex understandings.

Given these differences of perspectives over the nature of the dissertation, the importance of the dissertation chair becomes increasingly clear. The chair not only assists the student in the development of the committee, but obviously works with the student in formalizing the research question. The role played by the dissertation chair places him/her in a position to control the type of research conducted. If the chair favors the survey or questionnaire type of inquiry, their influence will heavily favor applied research. The committee members from the core area are usually selected because of their expertise in statistics and research methods. This gives them the role of overseer to insure that proper statistical rigor and sophistication is present in the dissertation. What most often results from this situation is a compromise between members of the two departments. The dissertation chair, who is almost always from the educational administration department, will usually encourage applied research via the use of a survey or questionnaire, and the core member will then attempt to introduce sufficient rigor

and sophistication into the study by directing the type of data analysis employed and interpretation undertaken.

The students will try hard to find faculty members who, although they do not agree with them philosophically, are ones with whom they can get along and work together. They do not want to get enmeshed in an argument about degree and dissertation purposes because they want to complete the dissertation in the least amount of time possible.

Finally, the students discuss the dissertation among themselves, and they are aware of what has been accepted in the past. This knowledge has become a guide for their own sense of what must be done in order to have an acceptable piece of work. However, at the same time they are aware, as they could not help but be because of the recent move by the Graduate Dean to appoint an outside committee member, that there is considerable concern over the quality of past dissertations. This has led to uncertainty on the part of many students as to what will be expected of them at this stage. As mentioned to me by one faculty member, the code words that indicate the process is in play, be it successful or not, are on the order of the student saying to a faculty member that he/she does not want to take forever to finish this dissertation. It think this can be interpreted as an attempt by the student to extend to the

dissertation the things noted in the previous chapter about the problem of time, sympathy, the negotiation of the requirements, and so on. However, because of the relative recency of the attempt to raise the quality of dissertations, especially by moving away from the survey approach, it is impossible to say how these patterns will work out.

Operating within this recently developing atmosphere, there has been a tendency on the part of some students to attempt to "wait the process out" against the backdrop of previously acceptable dissertations. When the students talk about "waiting it out," what are their reasons for doing so? Because time is such a critical factor for the student, why would they use valuable time in "waiting it out?"

One factor that may explain it is the element of fear, fear on the part of students over their ability to meet the requirements and expectations of the university. This fear is based on the unknown because being a part-time student has not allowed them the opportunity to experience an academic environment commensurate with a formal academic dissertation. They have had to do few, if any, activities relative to the requirements of a dissertation before they actually get to this point in their program. The result is that the program has not prepared them to do the type of

dissertation many expect. The students intuitively know this, which causes them to fear the experience which begins with the selection of a dissertation question and ends with the public defense.

Rather than talk about the dissertation as a fearful endeavor, it may be that they conceal their insecurity by questioning the practical value of a dissertation. The students do not see much practical value to the dissertation but instead see it as a requirement of the university that forces them to simply "jump through hoops." For example,

> The dissertation is a process of jumping through the hoops. You have to jump through all of them, and that is what this is all about.

> As far as the dissertation greatly enhancing my abilities to go forth and be a quality administrator, I doubt that.

> It hits me as the last gargantual [sic] hoop to jump through in all honesty.

> What purpose does this actually serve? It was just a hurdle you had to get through.

When looked at in this way, the dissertation becomes a process rather than a product. The process of jumping through hoops becomes the focus of the dissertation, and the completed product is secondary to this process. In this way, it lessens their fear because a process is something easier to obtain. At the same time, by focusing on the dissertation as a process, it lowers the

expectations of all involved. That this happens was clearly stated by one student when he commented,

> No one ever reads these things anyway, so what is the point of it? It is a process you have to go through.

To complete the process becomes a waiting game. The waiting game comes into play while they are writing the dissertation. They see revisions to their drafts of the dissertation as "jumping through the hoops," and if they wait long enough, the committee will eventually accept what they have done and give in to the student. Therefore, "jumping through the hoops" is turned into a waiting game that will eventually end up with the student getting their degree.

The net result of all of this is that the waiting game is played by "jumping through hoops," and becomes a negotiating tool to lower degree requirements, and at the same time lowering their level of fear. The end result is that although both the students and the faculty have focused on the dissertation as a process, neither the student nor the faculty view the product with a sense of educational achievement. The academic community, however, still concentrates on the dissertation as a product and is at odds with expectations of those who consciously or not have turned an academic endeavor into a process-oriented experience. In any event, this process of viewing the dissertation as simply hoops to jump through affirms for

the students that the dissertation is not a meaningful experience but merely a required one. Oddly enough, this also generates a cynical attitude toward the dissertation on the part of the student.

A second factor that may affect the writing of a dissertation is the faculty itself. If the desire, time, or confidence to pursue the demands of a doctoral dissertation by part-time doctoral students in educational administration is less than it should be, yet results in a dissertation that is accepted, what does that say about the expectations of the dissertation within the faculty? If the students are able to wait out the faculty, knowing the faculty will eventually accept the revisions of their work, then, in reality the dissertation truly becomes a process of simply "jumping through hoops" and becomes a meaningless endeavor for both the student and faculty.

Summary

For the faculty in the department of educational administration, the knowledge most worth knowing is practical knowledge or knowledge centered around the skills, techniques, processes, and training thought necessary for the effective and efficient administration of the public schools. That is, the faculty see their task as that of equipping candidates with the practical skills necessary not only to manage the schools on a day-to-day

basis but also to initiate change and reform. This emphasis on practical knowledge, which was evident in the topics covered in the educational administration course work, means that this group see the EdD program as essentially vocational in nature.

The part-time doctoral students in educational administration viewed the program as a combination of a source of useable skills and as a way to secure necessary credentials. In the first instance, they see the program as one that will allow them to obtain practical skills and to stay current on new trends and approaches to school administration. In the second instance, they see the degree as a "union card" that will allow them access to better positions. In some ways, they almost see the program as an intensive, lengthy, in-service program. Finally, this perspective comes to conclusion with an applied research dissertation.

The faculty involved with the core courses supports a more traditional academic doctorate. For them, the knowledge most worth knowing centers around an examination of theory and philosophy. This perspective translated itself into course content that focused on conceptual considerations from various areas such as sociology, history, educational psychology, and political science. Finally, the terminal activity for this group should be a

dissertation that examines and critiques theory, that leads to the development of new theory, and/or, more directly, that contributes to the body of educational knowledge.

In the final analysis, all faculty believed in a strong knowledge base for their students, but educational administration promoted a pragmatic, field-based premise, supported by the students' experiences in the field. The common core instructors based their instruction on the historical context of schooling and on critical theory and philosophy. Put differently, the part-time students and the educational administration instructors felt knowledge to do the job was time well spent, whereas the instructors of the professional common core felt knowledge of theory and philosophy which supports the job was most important.

Because the members of the department of educational administration and the students share a concern with the practical knowledge, they might be thought to form a subculture. On the other side, the core professors, with their concern over theory, might be said to form a countervailing subculture. Which of the two perspectives will eventually come to dominate, or if some blending will occur, is difficult to say. In the meantime, the students, although in one sense in the middle of this debate, have learned the situation in a way that allows them a degree of influence over course work. However, on the other side,

when it comes to the dissertation, many find themselves
placed in a research environment they are ill-equipped to
address.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY AND PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

This final chapter is divided into two parts. First, I summarize the underlying themes that emerged over the course of the study. Second, I speculate about what may happen in the future with this EdD program.

Summary

The idea to offer this degree was a top-down decision in that it was initiated and pushed, almost completely, by university and college administrators. As the program was shaped and structured, there was little faculty input and interest. The degree was labeled from the beginning by those interested in it as a "practitioners degree," in large measure to somehow distinguish it from the PhD degrees offered at the other two universities in the system and, thereby, get it accepted by the Board of Regents. However, because the nature and purpose of the degree were never fully discussed and elaborated, the term "practitioners degree" is probably a better descriptor of the type of student enrolled in the program that it is of the content of the program itself.

Another result of the way the degree program was developed is that for many faculty it is almost thought of as an "add-on" to the existing undergraduate and masters programs. Even today, it is not uncommon for masters and

doctoral students to be enrolled in the same classes with the same assignments and responsibilities. Also, during the interviews it was clear that if I did not remind some faculty that we were talking about the EdD program, their responses would often be directed at the masters program. All of this indicates that, even after offering the degree for eight years, many faculty have not yet come to see the EdD as something special and distinctive in its own right.

But even if the faculty for some reason had come to see this degree as special and distinctive, the issue of the nature and purpose of the program would still be contested. In the study of medical students by Becker et al. (1961), it was noted that while all of the medical school faculty taught classes, not all of them engaged in research or administrative duties. This led to some differences of opinion as to the best combination of activities to place in the curriculum. A similar situation is at hand with this EdD degree. All of the faculty teach in the program, but not all of them conduct or are particularly interested in research and not all are familiar with school administration.

This has resulted in differences over the content of the degree, differences that can be best seen as differences over the fundamental issue of what knowledge is most worth knowing. Should the program focus on the

practices and skills that are supposedly necessary for the
administration of schools and minimize theoretical
concerns, or should it be the other way around? Put
differently, should this be more of a vocational degree or
more of an academic degree?

The Vocational and Academic Perspective

As was discussed in Chapter Five, there is little
agreement among the faculty over what this "practitioners"
degree should accomplish. On one side are the part-time
doctoral students in, and the professors of, educational
administration. This group holds to a program that focuses
on the development of practical skills through the
field-based type experiences and applied research, usually
of the survey type, at the dissertation stage. Because
this group sees the program as designed to impart specific
skills and techniques that can be directly applied in the
field, they see the program as essentially vocational in
nature--although that particular term is not used with
great frequency. In a sense, recalling the "add-on" factor
mentioned above, they see the doctorate as an extension of
the teaching mission and field-oriented focus of the
college.

Even though the part-time students did not communicate
often, as was noted by Becker et al. (1961), a group that
achieves consensus by selectively transferring previously

related solutions to the present does need not to interact as extensively as other groups. Nevertheless, the departmentally enclosed nature of the vocational proponents provided an opportunity where faculty and students could talk frequently about items of interest and concern to all, which enabled them to reach agreement on their values, beliefs, and goals. This united effort of both the educational administration faculty and the part-time doctoral student created a bond and enabled the vocational culture to become the dominant subculture.

On the other side are the faculty who teach the core courses. This group prefers that the degree have a more traditional academic cast. That is, they hold that the program should focus more on theoretical and philosophical issues and that the dissertation should contribute to theory development or to an ongoing body of conceptual knowledge in the field of education. This group, which it must be remembered is composed generally of newer faculty from more research-oriented universities, desires to move the program away from the traditional teaching mission of the university.

Because communication between the part-time doctoral student in educational administration and the academic culture was often limited to class time, it left little time for the sponsors of the academic culture to reach

agreement with the part-time student on the values, goals, and beliefs which were often in opposition to the vocational culture. The result of this inability to reach agreement on these values, goals, and beliefs caused the academic culture to maintain subordinate status.

In any event, the traditional mission of the university continues to be that of a "practitioners" view, but the academic culture, with each succeeding year gets closer to interrupting this tradition. This battle of cultures can be seen in the content of the curriculum with each group teaching the knowledge they feel is most worth knowing. This difference of perspective reaches its climax during the dissertation stage. The result of this disagreement on knowledge most worth knowing is that on one side there is what might be called a vocational culture and on the other there is an academic culture.

The faculty have no sense of ownership of the program, a situation that is complicated by a lack of time. As a result, the faculty have not shown any desire to engage in serious discussions over the nature and purpose of the program--discussions that might bring the two sides together in a middle ground. This is so both within departments and across departments. One reason the faculty are not inclined to engage in such discussion is their lack of time and interest. The core faculty have both

undergraduate and masters responsibilities. Moreover, most of them teach a doctoral level course once every other or every third semester. The faculty of educational administration are heavily involved with masters students. For both groups, doctoral work is not at the heart of their university assignments. It is possible that the naming of a doctoral faculty could change this situation. The idea has been mentioned in the past, but no action has been taken in this direction.

The lack of faculty unity, combined with sympathy for the students because of their lack of time, has allowed the students to be somewhat successful at negotiating course requirements and overall degree expectations. From the requirements for individual classes through the dissertation stage, the students have been able to negotiate away some of the demands placed on them. This has happened with such frequency over the past that this activity is now seen as normal and accepted. It is almost as if all involved are following a script.

Thus, for the moment the program moves on without a unifying focus. The question that immediately arises is: what is likely to happen in the near future? Is the program likely to continue as it is at present, with unresolved differences and a lack of program identity, a perpetual concern over the quality of the dissertations,

and so on, or is there anything in my interviews and observations that indicate change might be coming in the near future?

Prospects for the Future

On balance, I suspect the program faces a continuation of unresolved differences because the kinds of things that might be done to change this situation, both informally and formally, may be too difficult to obtain. There is little indication that the more general discussions among the faculty over the nature and purpose of the program are going to take place at any time soon. This seems to be a matter of a lack of time and interest on the part of the faculty. As was noted, they do not feel any deep sense of ownership of the program, and their time is limited given other duties their positions require.

There is a College Committee on Doctoral Study (CCDS) which meets frequently to discuss the doctoral program. However, the deliberations of this committee rarely reach the faculty in general in that the minutes of the meetings are not distributed, and neither the committee nor the faculty has shown much interest in having them distributed. On balance then, one must be skeptical about the chances for a resolution of, or an agreement over, issues such as that of what knowledge is most worth knowing.

However, this overall skepticism notwithstanding, I detected the glimmerings of some things that might lead eventually to some changes in the program. First, there is the issue of a distinctive doctorate faculty. It is still possible that a doctoral faculty will be named and that they would have the time and commitment to examine the program. Moreover, such a faculty category could lead to a more unified faculty rather than the present alignment of students and administration faculty on one side and the core faculty on the other side.

Second, there is the issue of the rising number of females entering the program. Although at the present time the gender issue is not a major one because to this point the women in the program have developed only a latent subculture, this situation could change. It is possible that this latent subculture could be transformed into what Becker and Geer (1960) called a "manifest culture." If this were to occur, clearly there would be an impact on the program, but of exactly what nature is impossible to say. In fact, this could be a very interesting topic for further study.

Finally, there is a growing interest in qualitative research. My informal discussions with students indicated that many of them are considering qualitative research for their dissertation. However, it also needs to be mentioned

here that the all important factor of time enters the picture. As more and more students realize that qualitative research requires a great deal of time, their interest wanes. The concern for time notwithstanding, it may be that the qualitative research approach will allow for more of a common ground upon which all involved can have a clearer agreement over, for example, dissertation expectations and requirements.

Qualitative research has the potential to achieve this common ground because it requires, by definition, an integration of theory and practice. Qualitative research would offer the student an opportunity to bring theoretical concerns to bear on practical schooling issues. If so, then as faculty become more familiar with the philosophical implications and practical application of qualitative research, the vehicle to resolve the unending struggle over dissertation expectations and program goals may be possible. I believe that the appointment of a distinctive doctoral faculty, greater attention to the qualities of females entering administrative programs, and support of the interest in qualitative research are the right things to do and ought to be done.

REFERENCES

Adams, W. (1984). Getting real: Santa Cruz and the crisis of liberal education. Change, 16(4), 19, 27.

Allaire, Y., & Firsirotu, M. E. (1984). Theories of organizational culture. Organizational Studies, 5, 193-226.

Baird, L. L. (1969). The study of role relationships of graduate students. Journal of Educational Psychology, 60(1), 15-21.

Barley, S. (1983). Semiotics and the study of occupational and organizational cultures. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28(3), 393-413.

Beattie, J. (1966). Ritual and social change. Man, 1, 60-74.

Becher, T. (1984). The cultural view. In B. Clark (Ed.), Perspectives in higher education (pp. 157-161). Berkeley: University of California Press.

Becker, H., & Geer, B. (1960). Latent culture: A note on the theory of latent social roles. Administrative Science Quarterly, 5(2), 304-313.

Becker, H., Geer, B., Hughes, E., & Strauss, A. (1961). Boys in white: Student culture in medical school. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Bennett, D. (1969, Fall). Obstacles to graduate education in political science, PS. Quarterly of the American Political Service Association, II, 622-641.

Bent, H. (1959). Professionalization of the Ph.D. degree. Journal of Higher Education, 30(3), 141-143.

Bess, J. (1978). Anticipating socialization of graduate students. Research in Higher Education, 8(4), 289-317.

Block, P. (1987). The empowered manager: Positive political skills at work. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Blumer, H. (1969). Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Bolton, C., & Kammeyer, K. (1972). Campus cultures roles orientations, and social types. In K. Feldman (Ed.), College and student: Selected readings in the social psychology of higher education. New York: Pergamon Press.

Brubacker, J. S., & Rudy, W. (1976). Higher education in transition (3rd ed.). New York: Harper and Row.

Burlingame, M. (1984). Theory into practice: Educational administration and the cultural perspective. In T. Sergiovanni & J. Corball (Eds.), Leadership and organizational culture: New perspectives on administrative theory as practice (p. 305). Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Bushnell, J. (1964). Student culture at Vassar. In N. Sanford (Ed.), Colleges and character (pp. 147-152). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Caswell, H. (1960). Problems of doctoral study in education. School and Society, 10, 373-377.

Chaffee, E. (1983). Case studies in college strategy. Boulder, CO: National Center for Higher Education Management Systems. (ED 246-803)

Chase, A. (1980). Group memory: A guide to college and student survival in the 1980s. Boston: Little Brown.

Clark, B. (1962). Faculty culture: The study of campus cultures. In T. Lunsford (Ed.), Institute on college self-study (pp. 39-54). Berkeley: University of California.

Clark, B. (1972). Organizational saga in higher education. Administrative Science Quarterly, 17(2),178-184.

Clark, B. (1984). The higher education system: Academic organization in cross-national perspective. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Clark, B., & Trow, M. (1966). The organizational context. In T. Newcomb & E. Wilson (Eds.), College peer group (pp. 17-70). Chicago: Adams Publishing Company.

Cohen, A. (1974). Two dimensional man: An essay on the anthropology of power and symbolism in complex society. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Collins, R. (1971). Functional and conflict theories of educational satisfaction. _American Sociological Review,_ _36_, 1002-1019.

Cooley, C. H. (1902). _Human nature and social order._ New York: Charles Scribner's & Sons.

Corcoran, M., & Clark, S. (1984). Professional socialization and contemporary career attitudes of three faculty generations. _Research in Higher Education,_ _20_, 131-153.

Creager, J. A. (1971). _The American graduate student: A_ _normative description._ American Council on Education, _6_(5), 38-70. One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC.

Deal, T. (1987). The culture of schools. In L. Sheive & M. Schoenheit (Eds.), Leadership: Examining the elusive. _ASCD Yearbook_ (pp. 3-15). Richmond, VA: Byrd Press.

Delworth, W., & Hanson, G. (1989). _Student services: A_ _handbook for the profession._ San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Dewey, J. (1957). _Human nature and conduct._ New York: Random House Modern Library Edition.

Dill, D. D. (1982). The management of academic culture: Notes on the management and meaning of social integration. _Higher Education,_ _11_, 303-320.

Donaldson, L. (1972). Forcasting the future trend in bureaucratization. _London School of Business_ (Mimeo).

Doob, L. W. (1983). _Personality, power, and authority._ Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Eckstein, M. A. (1968). On graduate stress in education: The study of education as a priority. _The Record_ _Teachers College,_ _70_(1), 13-19.

Eisner, E. (1991). _The enlightened eye._ New York: Macmillan.

Eshelman, J. (1966, December). _The graduate school and_ _its faculty._ Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Council of Graduate Schools. Washington, DC: Council of Graduate Schools.

Etzioni, A. (1975). A comparative analysis of complex organization: On power, involvement, and their correlations (rev. ed.). New York: Free Press.

Freedman, M. (1979). Academic culture and faculty development. Berkeley, CA: Montaigne.

Geertz, C. G. (1973). The interpretation of cultures. New York: Basic Books.

Gitlin, A. D. (1990). Education research, voice and school change. Harvard Educational Review, 60(4), 443-466.

Godon, G. (1969). The languages of communication. New York: Hastings House.

Goode, W. J. (1957). Community within a community: The professions. American Sociological Review, 22(2), 194-200.

Gottlieb, D. (1961). Process of socialization in American graduate schools. Social Forces, 40(2), 124-131.

Gottlieb, D., & Hodgkins, B. (1963, Autumn). College student subculture: Their structure and characteristics in relation to student attitude change. The School Review, 266-289.

Grant, G., & Riesman, D. (1978). The perpetual dream: Reform and experiment in the American college. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Guba, E. (Ed.). (1990). The paradigm dialogue. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hall, H. T. (1976). Beyond culture. Garden City, NY: Anchor Books.

Harris, M. (1979). Cultural materialism: The struggle for a science of culture. New York: Random House.

Hartshorne, E. Y. (1943). Undergraduate society and the college culture. American Sociological Review, 8(3), 321-332.

Harvey, J. (1972, January). The student in graduate school. Clearinghouse on Higher Education, Washington, DC, 3-63.

Heard, A. (1963). The last years. Atlanta, GA: Southern Educational Board.

Heiss, A. M. (1967). Berkeley doctoral students appraise their academic program. Educational Record, 48(1), 30-44.

Hobish, D. (1979). Psychological predictors of attrition in doctoral study: The ABD phenomenon. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, NO. ED 188 552)

Hodgkinson, C. (1991). Educational leadership: Leadership the moral art. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Horowitz, H. L. (1984). Alma Mater: Design and experience in ten women's colleges from their nineteen century beginnings to the 1930s. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.

Horowitz, H. L. (1987). Campus life: Undergraduate cultures from the end of 18th century to the present. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Hughes, E., Becker, H., & Geer, B. (1964). Student culture and academic effort. In N. Sanford (Ed.), Colleges and character (pp. 153-161). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Jencks, C., & Riesman, D. (1962). Patterns of residential education: A case study of Harvard. In N. Sanford (Ed.), The American College, (pp. 731-773). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Judge, H. (1982, July). American graduate school of education. A Report to the Ford Foundation. Ford Foundation.

Kaufman, J. F. (1980). At the pleasure of the board: The service of the college and university. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Kinsman, R. S. (1966). Status of part-time doctoral students. In W. Gordon Whaley (Ed.), Journal of proceedings and addresses of the annual conference of graduate schools in the association of American universities (pp. 44-55). Austin: University of Texas.

Kowalik, T. (1989). What we know about doctoral student persistence. Innovative Higher Education, 13(2), 163-171.

Kuh, G., & Whitt, E. (1988). The invisible tapestry. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1, 1-93.

Levi-Strauss, C. (1973). Anthropotoic structurals deux. Paris: Lebraine Plan.

Malinowski, B. (1961). Argonauts of the western Pacific. London: Oxford University Press.

Masland, A. T. (1985). Organizational culture in the study of higher education. The Review of Higher Education, 8(2), 159-168.

Mead, G. H. (1934). Mind, self, and society. Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

Meister, J. S. (1982). A sociologist looks at two schools: The Amherst and Hampshire experience. Change, 14(2), 26-34.

Merton, R. (1963). Social theory and social structure. New York: Free Press.

Merton, R. K., Reader, G., & Kimball, P. (1957) The student physician. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Morgan, G. (1980). Paradigms, metaphors and puzzle solving in organizational theory. Administrative Science Quarterly, 25(4), 605-622.

Moris, P. (1983). Walk through history on campus. Southern Living, 18, 82-87.

Newcomb, T., Turner, R., & Converse, P. (1965). Social psychology: The study of human interaction. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston

Olesen, V., & Whitaker, E. (1966). Adjudication of student awareness in professional socialization: The language of laughter and silences. The Sociological Quarterly, 7(3), 381-396.

Pascarella, E., & Terenzini, R. (1991). How college affects students. San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Petersen, M. W., Cameron, L. A., Mets, L. A., Jones, P., & Ettington, D. (1986). The organizational context for teaching and learning: A review of the research literature. Ann Arbor, MI: National Center for Research

to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning. (ED 287437)

Pettigrew, A. M. (1979). On studying organizational cultures. Administrative Science Quarterly, 24(4), 570-580.

Radcliffe-Brown, A. (1952). Structure and function in primitive society. London: Oxford University Press.

Riesman, D., & Jencks, C. (1962). The viability of the American college. In N. Sanford (Ed.), The American college (pp. 40-65). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Rose, J. (1972). Introduction to sociology. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Rossi, I., & Higgins, E. (1980). The development of theories of culture. In I. Rossi (Ed.), Peoples in culture (pp. 256-283). New York: Praeger Press.

Sanford, N. (1967). Where colleges fail. San Francisco: Josey-Bass.

Sanford, N., & Axelrod, J. (1979). Colleges and character. Berkeley, CA: Montaigne.

Sanford, R. N. (1962). Higher education as a field of study. In N. Sanford (Ed.), The American college (pp. 235-253). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Strauss, A., Schatzman, A., Ehrlich, D., Bucher, R., & Sobshin, M. (1963). The hospital and its negotiated order. In E. Friedson (Ed.), The hospital in modern society (pp. 147-169). New York: Macmillan.

Stryker, E. (1985, November). What's a nice woman like me doing in a doctoral program? Reinterpreting our life experiences. Paper presented to the Annual Women Researcher Conference, Kalamazoo, MI.

Sturner, W. F. (1972). Environmental code: Creating a sense of place on college campus. Journal of Higher Education, 43, 97-113.

Taylor, W. (1984). Organizational culture and administrative leadership in universities. In T. Sergiovanni & J. Corbally (Eds.), Leadership and organizational culture: New perspectives on

administrative theory and practice. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Van Maanen, J. (1978). People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization. Organizational Dynamics, 7(1), 19-36.

Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. (1984). Occupational communities: Culture and control in organizations. Research in Organizational Behavior, 6, 287-365.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. (1979). Toward a theory and organizational socialization. In B. Staw (Ed.), Research in Organizational Behavior, 1, (pp. 209-264). Greenwich, CT: Jai Publishing Co.

Walsh, W. (1973). Theories of Pearson-environment interaction: Implications for the college student. Iowa City, IA: American College Testing Service.

Warren, J. R. (1968). Student perceptions of college subcultures. American Educational Research Journal, 5(2), 213-233.

Weick, K. (1976). Educational occupations as loosely coupled systems. Administrative Science Quarterly, 21, 1-18.

Wells, J. (1990). Understanding stupidity: An analysis of the premaladaptive beliefs and behavior of institutions and organizations. Orient, NY: Mount Pleasant Press.

Whitehead, A. (1958). Symbolism. New York: Macmillan.

Wilson, K. (1965). Of time and the doctorate. Atlanta, GA: Southern Regional Education Board (Monograph No. 9).

Wolff, R. (1969). The ideal university. Boston: Beacon Press.

Woods, P. (1986). Inside schools: Ethnography in educational research. New York: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Wright, C. R. (1963). Success or failure in earning graduate degrees. Sociology of Education, 38(1), 73-97.

Yamamoto, K. (1968). The college student and his culture: An analysis. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I'm conducting a qualitative research dissertation entitled: "A meeting of cultures or: the perspectives of the part-time doctoral student." I will be attempting to interpret the meaning of the interaction between the subcultures of the university faculty in educational administration as well as other related faculty members, and the part-time doctoral student in educational administration.

I will be using participant observation and interviews as the chief means of gathering data. I will be observing and recording the interaction between the above groups in the formal classroom setting as well as other more informal settings both on and off the campus. Your comments, actions, and discussions as well as formal and informal interviews will become a part of my field notes.

At all times strict confidentiality will be observed. This information will be shared with no one else. What I observe and record will become a part of my dissertation but the individual's identity will not be a part of the record and will be known by no one other than me. Identifying numbers will be used by myself to keep accurate records but the system of recording will be known to no one but myself and I will share it with no one.

I'm confident the results of my research will contribute to an increased understanding of the interaction between two different cultures and how this has a negative, positive, or neutral affect on program content and outcomes. Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may request at any time not to be a subject of this study, at which time your request will be granted. Your refusal to participate at the outset will be honored.

I am fully aware of the nature and extent of my participation in this project as stated above and the possible risks arising from it. I hereby agree to participate in this project. I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this consent statement.

_____
(Signature of subject or responsible agent)   Date

_____
(Printed name of subject)

_____
(Signature of investigator)

APPENDIX B

FACULTY INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FACULTY INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Before joining the university, what were your first elementary/secondary experiences, and how long have you been with the university?
2. What aspects of your position do you enjoy the most?
3. Is your doctorate a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. degree?
4. The term "practitioners degree" is often used to describe the Ed.D. degree. Do you think this is an accurate term?
5. What are the basic beliefs that you think drive the department of educational administration?
6. What are the agenda items discussed in your departmental meetings that are relevant to the doctoral program?
7. What is your definition of a part-time doctoral student?
8. Do you feel you treat the part-time doctoral student differently than other students?
9. How do you feel about having part-time doctoral students in your class?
10. Do you feel there is agreement or disagreement between the part-time student and the faculty on the goals and purposes of the degree? Can you give me some examples?
11. Do you evaluate the work of the part-time student differently than the full-time student?
12. Do you see any differences in the culture of this university than other places you have worked?
13. What type of ceremonies, rituals, stories do you believe are evident in the department?
14. What do you feel are the strengths/weaknesses of the faculty regarding the doctoral students and/or program?
15. Do you feel course content is field-based or philosophically- or theoretically-based? Please give examples of why you feel this way.
16. Why do you think most students attend the doctoral program?
17. What knowledge base do you feel is essential for the effective educational administrator?
18. What demands do the part-time doctoral students place on you in terms of what they expect from your class?
19. In relations to the above answer, do you feel they are the same as your own expectations? How have they changed?
20. From the time a part-time doctoral student enters the program until they graduate, what changes, growth, or beliefs do you observe?
21. What are the characteristics of the part-time student?

22. Could you speculate for me as to the future of the part-time doctoral student, the numbers, reasons for entering the program?

23. What changes do you feel will be necessary for the doctorate program in terms of program changes, classes, approaches to class content, and instructional strategies?

24. Do you think there is a difference between the veteran and new faculty members as they look at the part-time student and program content?

25. Have your views changed concerning the part-time doctoral student since you have been at the university?

26. What differences arise over the field theory versus the theoretical-based approaches to preparing doctoral students?

27. If there was any issue that tends to split the department as it relates to the part-time doctoral student, what would it be?

28. When you view the other departments involved with the doctoral program (core courses), what is your opinion of those courses? What do the part-time students tell you about those courses?

29. Do you have any heroes or ideal person either living, historical, or fictional?

30. With whom do you compare yourself most often?

31. Do you feel you and the students have similar philosophies concerning administration and education?

APPENDIX C

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FOR THE FACULTY

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE FACULTY

1. If the Ph.D. degree is traditionally for college teaching and research, how do the Ed.D's teaching at this university compare?

2. If the purpose of the degree is interpreted differently by those possessing a Ph.D. than those who have an Ed.D. degree, how do you rectify these differences within the department and the college?

3. By far, most of the Ed.D. part-time doctoral students are White, married with two children, educated in small White towns in this state, and are practicing principals in small White communities all within a 100-mile radius of this city. What effect do you think that has on the degree?

4. In the first round of interviews, it was clear that the Ed.D. degree is not discussed much at departmental meetings. Do you see that as a problem?

5. Students much prefer practical suggestions over theoretical or philosophical ones. Is it because you teach that way or that the students demand it?

6. The part-time student is defined by the university, yet each faculty member has their own definition. Why is that?

7. The philosophy of the student and the professors appears to be almost identical. Do you think that is a problem or a strength?

8. The students begin to complain if a class is viewed by them as too much theory and philosophy. Do you agree with their view?

9. The instructors have said in the initial interview that the driving force of the department is not clear or has yet to be identified. How do you feel about that?

10. Does the department make classes easier for part-time doctoral students because they work all day, have other responsibilities, and are often tired when they come to class?

11. Some believe the part-time students have no allegiance to learning and the completion of a course is the important thing; knowledge is secondary. Do you agree with this statement?

12. The term "Ed.D. degree" or the "practitioners degree" is viewed by some in the literature as more vocational than educational. Do you agree with this view? Is this the same as believing it is an expedient degree?

13. The culture of the part-time student is different than the full-time student, and the department has said that a full-time commitment is a much better approach,

yet by far most students are part-time. How do you explain this?

14. Do you feel that educational psychology and curriculum and instruction work closely together and that educational administration is on its own?

15. The first round of interviews indicated that there is not much ownership in the doctoral program in either educational administration or other departments. Do you see it that way?

16. How do you balance the need for theory and philosophy in a doctoral program when the students feel it is not that important to their jobs?

17. Do you feel the department spends most of its time on the "how" rather than the "why" of educational administration?

18. Do you think there is a danger in providing an over abundance of practical ideas and information at the expense of theory-philosophy?

19. Many students feel the terms "part-time," "practitioner," and "Ed.D. degree" are one in the same thing. Do you agree?

20. When you hear part-time doctoral students refer to the degree as a union card, how do you feel?

21. The faculty makes a strong attempt to provide the students with the "how" of educational administration --or the skills and techniques. Why do you emphasize this? Things/skills versus thoughts/theory?

22. The students feel professors are very student-centered, very helpful, knowledgeable, and close to the students. Do you think their feelings are correct?

23. Did political expediency prevail over philosophical beliefs in the adoption of the Ed.D. degree?

24. One interaction I have noticed deals with questioning techniques. The questions tend to elicit knowledge of present practices or examples from the student's district. This appears to be an attempt to establish the legitimacy of the student by proving what they know or practice instead of probing for what they do not know. Do you think this happens?

25. When women enter the doctoral program, most of them enter the elementary principal field of study. Why do you think this is so?

26. What do the terms "knowledgeable" and "an educated person" mean to you?

27. A repetition of an initial question. How do the students attempt to negotiate down course requirements, and why do they try?

28. Are you proud to be a member of this department?

29. Do you feel the academic quality of the part-time doctoral student is high?
30. Some believe you can't out practice the practitioner. Do you agree with this statement in relation to the Ed.D. degree?
31. Many Ed.D. students come from an athletic background, either in P.E. or coaching, or at least a high interest. Do you think that is of any relevance at all?
32. Quite a few students tell me they hope to teach at the college or university level later in their career. Do you believe this goal has any ramifications on the emphasis within the degree?
33. Quite a few students and faculty state that they can't see much of a difference between the Ph.D. degree and the Ed.D. degree. Do you agree with that?
34. I hear the faculty using the term "expectations" a lot. What do you mean by that term?
35. How would you react to the possibility of 10-15 students showing a keen interest on entering the program as full-time students?
36. Would you describe for me your picture of the ideal part-time student?

APPENDIX D

STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Where were you born and raised?
2. Where are you employed at the present time?
3. What is your current marital status? Age? Number of children?
4. What is your job title and size of your building?
5. Have you received any honors as an undergraduate or graduate?
6. What was your undergraduate major?
7. Where did you receive your high school diploma? Undergraduate degree? The size of the institution?
8. How far along are you on the degree? Credit hours?
9. How much time do you spend studying outside of class?
10. After you obtained your undergraduate degree, when did you enter graduate school?
11. How long have you been in graduate school? How long will it take you to complete the degree?
12. How would you rate yourself on academic ability?
13. When and why did you enter educational administration?
14. Who or what influenced you to enter educational administration?
15. Before you became a graduate student, did you have any heroes or ideal person, either living, historical, or fictional?
16. What do you feel are the strengths/weaknesses of the instructors you have had in educational administration or the core courses?
17. What do you think are the strengths/weaknesses of the educational administration department?
18. As you see it, what is the difference between the department of educational administration and the core courses/instructors?
19. Do you have to work hard to meet the standards of the professors here? Both educational administration and the core course instructors?
20. Are there professors here you feel are the best in the field? And why?
21. What does the term "practitioners degree" mean to you?
22. Do you feel the department is field-based or theoretical-based?
23. Do you think it is important to be on good terms with the instructor? Why?
24. What knowledge base do you feel the university should deliver to you as a part-time doctoral student in educational administration?
25. What are the expectations or course requirements in educational administration and the core courses?
26. How often do you talk to your professors outside of the classroom?

27. How often do you talk to your peers outside the classroom?
28. Why do you take one or two nights a week to drive up here and take these courses?
29. Do you think the standard of performance in educational administration is set very high?
30. Do you think the standard of performance is set high for the core courses?
31. Do you think the catalogue of the university has little relation to the way things are actually done?
32. Are there many close, informal groups of friends in your department?
33. Are most of your friends students, or are they mostly persons unrelated to the university? Can you give me their names?
34. When students meet, do they often discuss the latest story about the department, class, or compare notes on unrelated items?
35. In educational administration, do you think there are little cliques or groups of students that get the favors of the instructors?
36. Concerning the doctoral students, do you feel they are committed to scholarship, or do they just play the game?
37. Do you try to study the professor as much or more than you study the course syllabus?
38. Why did you enter the Ed.D. program at this university?
39. How often do you think your graduate work interferes with your personal life?
40. With whom do you compare yourself most often?
41. How important is it for you to get this degree?
42. Do you ever ask yourself: "What the heck am I doing in graduate school?"
43. Do other things interfere with your duties as a student?
44. What type of free reading do you like to do?
45. Are you concerned with the kind of job obtainable after you receive the degree?
46. What do you think is the driving force behind the department of educational administration?
47. Do you feel you and the instructors have similar philosophies concerning education and this degree? Are you exposed to differing views of education and educational administration?

APPENDIX E

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FOR THE STUDENTS

FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FOR THE STUDENTS

1. If the degree is interpreted differently by those instructors with a Ph.D. degree from those instructors with an Ed.D. degree, how do you deal with these differences as a student?
2. Ed.D. students are White, married with two children, most are males, came from all White schools, and now administer or teach in all White schools. Do you think this has an effect on the program?
3. How do you feel about the Ed.D. not being discussed much during departmental meetings?
4. The degree is really a practical approach and not a theoretical-based program. How do you feel about that?
5. Do you believe the philosophy of the students and the instructors are almost identical?
6. Students complain if course work concentrates too much on the theoretical. Why do you think that is?
7. How do you feel about the professors stating that the department has no real driving force right now?
8. Do you believe the Ed.D. here is too accommodating to the part-time doctoral student?
9. Why are you enrolled in this program?
10. What are your views concerning the dissertation?
11. Some believe the allegiance is not to learning/knowledge but simply completion of the program to acquire a "union card." Do you agree?
12. Do you feel the term "vocational" aptly describes the Ed.D. degree at this university?
13. What was the best course you have had so far? The worst?
14. Is it important for you to be taught the "how" rather than the "why"?
15. Some feel the terms "Ed.D." and "part-time student" go hand in hand. Do you agree? Why?
16. When you hear the Ed.E. described as a program demanding less "rigor" than say the Ph.D., how do you feel?
17. The professors are student centered. Do you believe this? And what does that mean to you?
18. Can you usually get the professor to do what you want them to do?
19. One interaction I've noticed is during questioning in class. The questions tend to elicit knowledge of present practices or examples of what you may practice in your school. This appears as an attempt to establish the legitimacy of the student by proving

what they know or practice instead of probing for what
they do not know. Do you think this happens?

20. Why do you believe most females enter the elementary
    field?
21. What do the terms "knowledgeable" and "an educated
    person" mean to you?
22. Are you proud to be a student here?
23. Do you feel that students attempt to negotiate the
    demands of the dissertation?
24. Do you believe the academic quality of your work is
    high?
25. Some say you can't out practice the practitioner. Do
    you agree with that, and, if so, how do you equate
    that with the practical aspects of class that you
    demand?
26. Some say there is very little difference between the
    Ph.D. and the Ed.D. Do you agree?
27. The faculty feel they have high "expectations" for
    their students. What do you think they mean by that?
28. How would you feel if 10-15 full-time students
    enrolled in the program?
29. What do you feel is the typical description of a part-
    time student?
30. How do you feel about the residency requirement?
31. Are you enrolled in the program because it is
    convenient?
32. Do you believe part-time students usually look for the
    easiest road to accomplish course requirements?
33. When students say, "I know what the professor wants,"
    what do they mean?
34. Do you think it is a problem that all Ed.D.
    educational administration instructors are male?
35. In the total course work (educational administration
    and required), do you feel the younger instructors
    approach classes differently than the older ones do?
36. Have you thought much about your dissertation?
37. When you get together and talk, what do you praise and
    complain about?
38. When you turn in a paper or report, do you get better
    marks and/or comments if it covers practices and
    processes rather than theory?
39. Do the terms "practitioners degree" and "practical
    application" mean the same things to you?

APPENDIX F

RESIDENCY REQUIREMENT

RESIDENCY REQUIREMENT

Following admission to candidacy, the candidate shall be enrolled for a minimum of twenty-four semester hours of on-campus study which may be distributed across two, three, or four consecutive terms with a minimum of six credit hours each term. Graduate assistants may fulfill the residence requirement by taking nine credit hours during each of two consecutive academic year semesters. Residence credit hour requirements must be fulfilled by enrollments in regularly scheduled classes.