Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice

Winter, 1996, Volume 4, Number				
Editorial				
William B. Stafford	The Lazarus Phenomenon	3		
	Articles			
Cheryl B. Aspy David N. Aspy	The Case for a Strong Values Education Program in Public Schools	7		
John J. Schmidt	Challenge, Confrontation, and Exhortation as Intentional Invitations by Professional Helpers	25		
Gary L. Chandler	Invitational Practices in Middle School Athletics	37		
Margaret J. Maaka Pamela A. Lipka	Inviting Success in the Elementary Classroom: The First Steps from Theory to Practice	51		
Dale L. Brubaker Lawrence H. Simon	Private Victories to Enhance Your Self-Esteem: A Principal's Guide to Success	63		
Michelle C. Hart	Identification Badges: An Invitational Approach to School Safety	71		
Kenneth H. Brinson, Jnr.	Invitational Education as a Logical, Ethical and Democratic Means to Reform	81		

Guidelines for Authors

95

© 1996 The International Alliance for Invitational Education The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

Editorial—

The Lazarus Phenomenon

This issue of the JITP might be called the Lazarus phenomenon, as indeed it is called forth from the tomb. We have experienced unavoidable delays, and the Alliance and the Editorial Board appreciate your patience and understanding as we attempted to put this issue together.

We believe the wait to be worth it, and we hope that as you read the following pages you will agree. This issue presents a broad spectrum of thinking and application concerning invitational theory and practice, which we hope to maintain in subsequent issues. As a preview of the current issue, the following are offered for your examination.

Cheryl and David Aspy present "The Case for a Strong Values Education Program in the Public Schools." At first blush the Aspys' article might seem a bit off-center with the primary thrust of the *JITP* (i.e., invitational theory is never specifically mentioned), but the article strikes two basic chords: (1) IAIE, at its base, is deeply rooted in the sensitivity and respect of the individual and can hardly approach human interactions without a sound value base; (2) the article helps to set a tone for the 1996 proposed conference theme, "Schools Without Fear." The Aspys are prolific and venerated authors both within and beyond the Alliance. Readers will undoubtedly find this article provocative and thoughtful.

John Schmidt, former editor of the JITP and a frequent contributor to invitational theory, offers an insightful examination of "Challenge, Confrontation, and Exhortation As Intentional Invitations by Professional Helpers." This thoughtful article examines an area of interaction between professional helpers and those with whom they work, which is often not well understood. Additionally, it is an extremely difficult topic about which to write because of the many subtleties involved. Dr. Schmidt approaches this topic with a tremendous amount of background, sensitivity, and understanding and his article will certainly be a prime citation in subsequent articles dealing with this topic.

Gary Chandler, a long-marcher with the Alliance, takes us where few have ventured as he looks at athletics in the middle school from the perspective of invitational education. In his article, "Invitational Practices in Middle School Athletics." Dr. Chandler gives up the traditional "winning is everything" philosophy, which perhaps emanates from professional athletics, and embraces the notion of making middle school athletics a rewarding and fulfilling experience for all students through the implementation of invitational education.

Margaret Maaka and Pamela Lipka take us to the land of banyan trees and the world of children and their elementary school teacher. In their article, "Inviting Success in the Elementary Classroom," these educators and their at-first-disbelieving charges go "full-tilt Bozo" into an evolving and first-year experience as viewed through their eyes, the eyes of the children, and not coincidentally, some of the impact on the children's parents. This evolution is exciting, highly readable, and it does not back away from the very practical issues involved in the implementation of invitational education with elementary school children.

Dale Brubaker and Lawrence Simon consider the negative and often destructive consequences of highly stressful events, especially with school principals, in their article, "Private Victories To Enhance Your Self-Esteem: A Principal's Guide To Success." By turning the is-

sue from negative, self-defeating perceptions of stressful events, Brubaker and Simon examine more intentionally healthy approaches of perceiving and responding to stress. Their presentation is enriched with the inclusion of personal vignettes accumulated from some 500 principals' life stories presented in graduate education classes. While the authors focus on the school principal, the spread-of-effect is readily seen in a more emerging inviting family-type of school environment.

Michelle Hart also offers a preview of the 1996 conference with her article, "Identification Badges: An Invitational Approach to School Safety." In her presentation, Michelle examines the increasing specter of violence in the schools, especially perpetrated by those outside the school. She examines the advantages of the use of school identification badges as an alternative to some of the more intrusive and negative-impact procedures used or proposed by some schools. She reports on the perceived effectiveness, benefits and concerns experienced by three school systems that have used identification badges for at least one year.

Finally, Kenneth Brinson looks at invitational education as a model for school reform in his article, "Invitational Education As A Logical, Ethical And Democratic Means to Reform." Ken presents a broad and thoroughly researched article that views the basic principles of democracy in education and sees invitational education as a foundation for educational reform. His view as an administrator is not that of bricks and mortar or curriculum, but an emphasis on people and how the institution of the school can be an environment that invites all within the school to grow.

As your new editor, I feel blessed with the richness and the variety of the manuscripts that were submitted, and am indebted to those of you who have made submissions. While some articles are still under review, with others being in the process of revision, I enthusiastically encourage others to continue to submit manuscripts to the journal. Those wishing to correspond directly with me may do so using the address on the inside cover of the journal, or for a more expedient response, through e-mail at: wbs0@lehigh.edu

William B. Stafford Editor

The Case for a Strong Values Education Program in Public Schools

Cheryl B. Aspy

University of Oklahoma Oklahoma City, OK

David N. Aspy

Oklahoma City, OK

The accumulating evidence related to the various forms of violence throughout our society indicates a need for values instruction in educational institutions. The main issue is the vigor of those efforts. A significant number of schools have created low intensity programs which seem out of step with the severity of the problem. They portend failure in this critical area. The nation needs high intensity efforts that clearly reflect society's fervent intent to correct its values deficit. Such a program must involve broad-based groups who are fully dedicated to its objectives and informed about its procedures.

The need for a strong values education program in public education was expressed forthrightly by Close who said, "The fundamental tragedy of American Education is not that we are turning out ignoramuses but that we are turning out savages" (Elam, Rose, & Gallup,1994, p.49). This statement was followed by one by Ryan (Elam, Rose, Gallup, 1994, p. 49) who called schools "morally dangerous places."

The public's awareness of the values crisis was reflected by Cal Thomas (1994) who wrote, "Suddenly, like a tornado that approaches unexpectedly, values are the hottest political issue" (p. A7). He continued with this quote from George Washington:

Let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason, and experience both forbid us to expect that National morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principle. (p. A7)

This view is supported by Barone (1994) who wrote, "The conflict between the values of the feminist left and the religious right frames the political discussion" (p. 40).

The tornado that Thomas cites can be seen in writings all around us. William Bennett's (1994) *The Book of Virtues* is a bestseller. The Brookings Institution issued *Values and Public Policy* (Aaron, Mann, & Taylor, 1994). *Newsweek* (Fineman, 1994) published a major article on virtues as did *U.S. News and World Report* (August 1, 1994). Similarly, *The Futurist* listed Kidder's (1994) eight universal human values.

In education, *The American School Board Journal* (May, 1994) featured an article on character education (Thomas & Roberts,1994). *Educational Leadership* (November,1993) devoted an entire edition to character education as it had done in December 1985. *Counseling and Values* has presented a series of articles on values including February 1979 (Nordberg), October 1984 (Russo), April 1985 (Bergin), October 1991 (Haugen, Tyler, & Clark), and April 1993 (Mitchell).

There is values-related action at the Federal level. On July 29-30 there was a White House Conference on Character Education Building

for a Democratic, Civil Society. In preparation for that conference Etzioni (1994) wrote, "Without character, merely knowing what is right is no assurance that we shall live up to it. At the same time, character without values grafted upon it lacks content" (p. 2).

In short, things are happening in the values area. The nation is stirred. A major question is just how deep that renewal reaches. There is a need to generate enthusiasm for a profound look at this nation's basic values.

In 1990, Daley recognized that values education was returning to American schools. He stated:

Decades after God, in effect, was banished from the classroom, along with organized prayer, public schools around the country are cautiously venturing beyond academics to teach youngsters something about right and wrong, good and bad behavior. (p. B8)

Daley's pronouncement was accepted as a *fait accompli*. Indeed, a renewed interest in values was reflected in an announcement (*New York Times* editorial June 27, 1990) heralding a \$21 million grant to create a Center for Human Values that "will convene a range of specialists to study broad ethical questions" (p. B6).

Another indication of the emergence of values as a pressing issue can be found in the political arena. Paul Weyrich, New Right activist, called upon conservatives to take on "the role of defending and fostering basic American values" (Shogan,1990). William F. Buckley (1995) charged the American Press with the responsibility to inform the public on what is really happening to their rights to public prayer and school choice rather than providing misinformation that is an assault on self-government.

From the political left, Norman Lear of People for the American Way told the participants in the 1989 National Education Association Conference in Anaheim, California, that he "urged them to nurture the sense of the sacred that he says underlies all religions" (Steinfels, 1989, p. A10).

It is clear that interest in values education is surging. A strong stance is appropriate.

Historical Perspective

History suggests three phases of values education in America. These three phases will be described in the following paragraphs.

Phase I

This phase began in the 1840s and continued until the 1930s. It was characterized by a rather universal use of the Bible as the source of values. The major question was: How should people practice the values described in the Bible?

Phase II

This phase covered the period from the 1950-1980s and was characterized by individual definition of personal values. The major question was: How should people practice what she/he thinks is important?

Phase III

This period began with the 1990s and is characterized by the specification of the values found important by society. The major question is: How should one practice society's values?

The third phase of values education was supported by Thomas Lickona of the State University of New York at Cortland, who maintains that society has a right to teach values essential to democracy (Lickona,1991). Kevin Ryan of Boston University specified some of these values as kindness, honesty, loyalty to parents, spouses, and family members; an obligation to help the poor, the sick, and the less fortunate; the right to private property (Ryan, 1993). The recent effort emphasizes teaching people the values they need to be good citizens of a democracy. Therefore, values education has moved sequentially from a Biblical center to an individual focus and currently, to a social orientation.

Values and the Social Context

Daley (1990) recognized deeper problems that gave rise to the recent return to teaching values in education. She stated, "Partly, this is in response to growing concern over drug abuse, violence and teen-age pregnancy and it comes at a time when more and more broken homes and two-income families have left parents with less and less time to supervise their children" (p. B8). Thus, the force of the problems seems clearly incongruent with the nearly apologetic approach of the remedy which, according to Daley is, "cautiously venturing beyond academics to teach youngsters something about right and wrong" (p. B8).

The broad scale return to teaching values in public schools is reflected in the range of states initiating programs. These include Mississippi, New Hampshire, Maryland, Virginia, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and New York. Also, one national educational organization, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, has endorsed values education. As Lickona (1993) stated, "character education is making a comeback in American education" (p. 6).

The moderate posture of the new efforts directed toward values education seems at variance with some rather important data. For instance, in a project sponsored by the Girl Scouts, Lilly Endowment and the Mott Foundation, Coles (1990) in cooperation with Louis Harris conduced a continuing survey of 5,000 children grades 4 through 12. Among their findings are:

- 82% believe there is a God;
- 40% say daily prayers;
- 3% would seek out a member of the clergy for help with a moral problem;

- 33% believe their teachers care about them;
- 7% would turn to their teachers for moral advice.

Hechinger (1990) stated that Coles drew several important conclusions from his research:

- One reason for moral shortcomings is the pressure to succeed;
- Some children merely reflect the values of their society: the notion of what works is "what works for me";
- Given the membership in a highly competitive culture, some children can very easily entertain the notion of cheating;
- As so-called cultural literacy grows, what could be called moral literacy declines;
- A lot of kids have been brought up not to be anxious or ever to feel guilty. Shame, after all, is a moral position and some of these kids have no language to express this;
- It is very worrisome that almost 60% of the children in the survey rely on moral standards that have as their main purpose, self-gratification;
- Even at Harvard, there are a lot of kids who are bright but whose conscience is not all that muscular;
- Teachers can make a difference if they explain vigorously what we expect of our students and why. (p. B6)

In a similar vein, Jeff Meade, senior editor of *Teacher* wrote, "Parents, along with some of our more celebrated white collar thieves, are often the unknowing font of situational ethics," (Hechinger,1990). These adults contribute to the moral problems of children.

A survey developed by the federal Centers for Disease Control was administered to 5,500 high school freshmen and seniors in Kentucky and yielded data relevant to the moral decisions of students (Jennings,1990). The findings indicated the following:

- 55% had engaged in sexual intercourse;
- 32% had sex with more than one partner;
- 83% had drunk alcohol:
- 51 % had drunk alcohol within the last month:
- 30% had thought about suicide within the last 12 months;
- 19% made a specific plan and 11% made an attempt. (p. A1)

The foregoing information led Kentucky's superintendent of public instruction (John Brock) to state, "Clearly, a significant portion of our youngsters are in trouble-and I mean serious trouble, the kinds of trouble that our state can ill afford," (Jennings, 1990, p. A1) Surely, the data from Kentucky and the conclusions drawn by the CEO for education are not unique to that state. Others must be experiencing similar situations. For example, alcohol consumption among adolescents in Texas is increasing. According to a New York Times News Service editorial:

William Bennett's (1993) study of cultural indicators gave additional reason for concern. He reported:

- A 56% increase in violent crime
- A 40% increase in illegitimate births
- A 20% increase in teen-age suicide
- The divorce rate quadrupled
- Children in single parent homes tripled
- An 80 point drop in SAT scores. (p. 2-22)

These findings lend credence to a need for morals instruction.

Schools and Values

There are data to support the contention that schools contribute to students' values problems. In his studies, Robert Coles (1990) found that 21% of elementary students said they would try to copy answers or glance at another student's test. In high school, 65% said they

would. Apparently, at a minimum, the school experience does not diminish these students' copying from others. Indeed, the broad extent of cheating in school is rather solid evidence of the schools' role in that practice.

Goodlad (Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik,1990) attributes some of education's moral problems to teacher training. He asserted that, "Many students (and regrettably, many faculty members) had little interest in or vocabulary for discourse regarding moral issues and norms" (p. 256). In fact, Goodlad is so concerned that he proposes extensive changes in teacher training institutions.

Sirotnik (1990), a co-author of *The Moral Dimensions of Teaching*, stated:

Clearly, the moral and ethical foundations of public education in a democratic society and the requisite character of educators have received the most emphasis in this book. Ironically, in our view, they have received the least emphasis in today's programs for educating educators. (p. 316)

Sirotnik's conclusions were supported strongly by the findings of Aspy, Aspy and Roebuck (1984) who have analyzed 200,000 hours of classroom interactions. This is the world's largest data base drawn from evaluations of classroom interactions. The sample includes classes from 42 states and 7 foreign countries. Notably, morality was *never* mentioned in any of the classes in that huge study of teaching. These findings are consistent with the patterns of subsequent studies.

Evidence of an inverse relationship between age and responsiveness to moral instruction is buttressed by the results from a study in Amherst, New York. Values-related instruction was offered to both elementary and secondary students. The younger learners were

far more receptive to the program than were their older cohorts (Daley,1990). The clear inference is that as people age they become less amenable to morals instruction.

Additional, pertinent information can be found outside of education. Hechinger (1990) gave the following summary of Urie Bronfenbrenner's conclusions from his studies of American families:

- The average child of 10 in the U.S. has already developed a noncondemning attitude toward cheating.
- The environment teaches that it is unrealistic to maintain standards of honesty that are ridiculed by his friends and ignored by his elders.
- Exemplary characters which are the most powerful influence in education, are too weak to offset the evidence of the daily experience of how other people "get by." (p. B6)

Clearly, the foregoing data support two contentions: (a) that schools have a huge problem related to values and (b) that the general cultural climate restrains them from applying strong programs to deal with the difficulties.

Presently, there are two main courses of action available to advocates of values education. First, to implement the *low-intensity* moral education efforts permissible within the current legal/social constraints. Second, to initiate *high-intensity* efforts designed to prepare society to implement vigorous moral instruction programs commensurate with the nearly overwhelming problems. Of course, one approach does not preclude the other. That is, the former could be employed while the latter creates a climate for a more potent effort.

Course Content and Teaching Methods

A critical issue for values education is that of finding a curriculum that a functional majority can support. For instance, the Sweet Home Central School District in Amherst, New York, (Daley, 1990) is trying to develop such a consensus by focusing upon relatively non-controversial values such as doing good deeds, respecting others and being fair. Among their instructional methods for teaching these standards are: (a) recycling drives, (b) collecting food for the needy, (c) helping younger pupils with homework, (d) discussing morals in class, (e) rewarding good behavior in the cafeteria, (f) rewarding students for sticking their necks out for other students, and (g) paying students who are friendly and polite.

Kennelly (1994) reported programs at the following sites:

- <u>Dayton, Ohio</u>: Bravery and trustworthiness will be among lessons emphasized at Allen Traditional Academy. Speakers will visit, posters will go up, and educators will get more training. (p.10)
- Menominee Indian Reservation, Wisconsin: This fall, a foundation to promote values education on and off reservations nationwide will be announced. The program was developed by the Vision Pursuit Team. (p. 10)
- Howard County, Maryland: They decided on a tentative list of 18 values and put the list in a local newspaper, requesting input from parents. More than 2,000 replies supported values education. (p. 10)

Need for Stronger Programs

The outcomes of low-keyed efforts such as the Amherst program are unclear. Students report mixed reactions to the project. One eighth-grade student said that some make fun but others appreciate it. Teachers and administrators believe there is general enthusiasm for the program but it lags in the high school. Also, some teachers seem to have reservations because they feel responsible for teaching only substantive content (Daley, 1990). Thus, at best, the results from this low-intensity project indicate qualified success.

To the degree that the Amherst program is representative of those using less-intensive instructional procedures, it suggests that some consideration should be given to high-intensity programs that emphasize firm, personal accountability for behavior of citizens in a democracy. This would seem to favor an approach that begins by increasing the school community's understanding of the importance of moral instruction. The Amherst data indicates that motivation is especially necessary at the secondary level and should include staff as well as students.

A program designed to prepare a school community for potent moral instruction should focus upon the common need to live in a morally strong community. That is, it is essential to create a consensual understanding that moral behavior has "real world" benefits that can be expressed in very practical terms. For instance, honesty and civility among citizens can be translated readily into dollars and cents savings derived from smaller expenditures for police security and criminal prosecution. These behaviors also produce huge dividends in happiness, peace of mind and quality of life. In short, it is to everyone's advantage to live in a community that practices desirable values. It is critical that all parties share this concept.

Unifying the Advocates of Values Education

Since the problems related to values education are extensive, it seems highly advisable to coalesce as many forces as possible to bear upon the problem of our students' current moral posture. However, this tact encounters one major obstruction that results from the countervailing forces among those involved in the effort. Frequently, three primary groups emerge: (a) opponents of values instruction, (b) advocates of values instruction who include references to God, and (c) advocates of values instruction who exclude references to God. These divisions are typical of the groups developing within the pluralistic approach to public education.

Each of the diverse groups brings a unique strength to the general effort. The religious element has an established credibility for honoring moral behavior. Many religions propound a philosophy that holds that people are created in the image of God. Thus, everyone is to be treated with respect. Also, the religious community has an organization outside the school. It can support the values program beyond the educational context.

Ironically, groups that oppose values instruction have a respectability derived from their skepticism. Individuals who come to support a position they once opposed seem to have credibility. For example, President Nixon was able to lead the nation into a rapprochement with Communist China because the nation trusted him as a result of his earlier strong opposition to Communism. Thus, if an opposition group reverses its position and supports moral instruction, it gains validity among the doubters.

The advocates of values instruction that excludes references to God have a centrist position (Daley, 1990) which most people find acceptable. They may well be the ones who support the type of moderate approach being used in Amherst, New York. Quite probably, one of their major strengths is their accessibility to most groups within the school's community. That is, they are trusted by a

wide range of citizens. They may be the "door openers" for a stronger values education program.

A review of assets will reveal that, together, the three groups have the attributes essential for success: Tradition, fringe support and mainstream support. A combination of these groups can be effective.

The critical task is to unite the divergent groups into a cohesive force that will present a morals instruction program that is potent enough to counter effectively the values problems related to drugs, violence, teenage pregnancy, etc. This may be accomplished by a procedure practiced by the Prichard Committee for Educational Excellence in Kentucky which successfully has facilitated the most extensive educational reforms of any state in the nation. They bring participants together and let them exchange ideas until they have said all they wish to say. Then, they integrate the input into a program the entire group can support.

The Public's Views of Character Education

According to its 1994 polls, Phi Delta Kappa (Elam, Rose, & Gallup, 1994) reported that when the public was asked if values and ethics should be taught in public schools, "a small plurality favored" them. But, the results were different when the subjects were asked about teaching specific personal traits. The percentages making favorable responses can be found in Table 1.

Table 1
Personal Traits Taught In School

Trait	% Favorable

1. Respect for others	94
2. Industry or hard work	93
3. Persistence	93
4. Fairness	92
5. Compassion	91
6. Self-esteem	90
7. High selfexpectations	87
8. Thrift	74

Sixty-six percent favored teaching non-denominational religion. In short, the public mood is to include moral and religious training in the public school curriculum.

The Need for Alacrity

If a community builds a consensual, cognitive understanding of the universal need for moral behavior, the next step is to determine the level of importance of moral education in the schools. This means that a critical issue is: Does the problem demand prompt action? There is a large body of information to support the contention that the nation has a critical problem related to values education. However, this must be established in a given community through dissemination of the appropriate data.

Generally, the current opinion seems to be that values education is a rather nice program but not of critical importance. Jones (1994) wrote, "...two-thirds of the districts are working the requirement into their regular curriculum without any extra funding. You can look at Cadillacs or you can do many of these projects with Volkswagens...A lot of schools seem to be driving Volkswagens" (p. 36).

The source of limited financial supports for values programs may develop from the situation described by Thomas and Roberts (1994). They stated:

Some argue that character education has no place in public schools. It is too difficult to determine which values should be taught, they say, and teaching values should be seen as indoctrinating students. Educators at the other end of the spectrum argue that education must be taught as a separate subject, like algebra or history" (p. 33).

Related Data

Information from other areas supports the position assumed by this paper. Josephson (1990) wrote:

An unprecedented proportion of today's young generation have severed themselves from the traditional moral anchors of American Society—honesty, respect for others, personal responsibility and civic duty The twenty something generation is more likely to lie, cheat, and engage in irresponsible behavior when it suits their purposes. (*Los Angeles Times*, Tuesday, October 16, 1990, p. A1)

Alexander Astin, Director of the Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA, stated:

This age group is largely materialistic...surveys have shown an increase in the desire to make money, a drop in interest in the helping professions and a decline in existential concerns such as one's purpose in life. (Bailey, 1991, p. H1)

Indirectly, these statements indicate a strong need for potent values education programs to be implemented with alacrity. Josephson (1991) described some of the dimensions of such an effort:

Comprehensive ethics programs should also focus on the ability to solve realistic practical ethical dilemmas that students are likely to face. Discussing relevant examples, teachers can help students develop ethical alternatives and make them aware of the common rationalizations people use to justify improper conduct. (p. 52)

This is the kind of curriculum goal that will help the nation face its values education crisis but only if it has the proper support.

Discussion

Historically, values education in America has passed through two major phases: Bible centered and individual centered. The education community has rejected both of these approaches and yet, the needs that gave rise to them still exist and, in fact, have enlarged. Thus, schools are initiating a third phase in which a new form of values education emphasizes values commonly accepted throughout our society.

Since the earlier forms of values education were more or less expelled from schools, considerable controversy surrounded them. Therefore, the entire area is sensitive and a new approach is couched

in terms designed to avoid the opposition encountered by the previous efforts. Indeed, they are called centrist by Berreth (Daley, 1990) because they are constructed to gain acceptance by a broad middle-of-the-road group. The long-range hope is to strengthen the programs as they gain credibility.

The cautious approach to values education assumes there is time for it to gain acceptance. However, the severity of the problems related to values issues raises important questions about the time dimension. Violence, drugs, teenage pregnancies, and other related difficulties are hard core, intractable problems that are growing rapidly. The time frame for their solution may be small.

When the values-related *problems* are placed vis-a-vis the *solutions* proposed by the advocates of low-intensity values education programs, the best outcome prediction seems to be either moderate success or failure. This is not meant as a criticism, but rather to suggest the advantage of a complementary strategy. *Specifically. there is a need to supplement the less-intensive values program with a high-intensity effort* focused upon educating the school community about the severity of the problems that give rise to the need for values education. That is, there must be an increase in both the volume and perceived significance of the information about the need for values education so that the *community will support an appropriately vigorous program* that might achieve success.

It seems profitable for the advocates of values education to initiate an intensive program such as that designed by the Josephson institute for Ethics (Josephson, 1991). This program was created to accomplish two purposes: (a) to inform the education community about the problems related to students' values; and (b) to coalesce potential constituencies into an effective force to support values education. This recommendation stems from an analysis of data which indicate that

difficulties are increasing rapidly and there is need for haste in delivering a strong, personal accountability program to counter them. Indeed, the related information solidly supports the notion that the temporal dimension is quite limited.

There seems to be potential danger in pursuing a well-intentioned, low-keyed values education program that, by most reasonable predictions, will fall woefully short of a satisfactory goal. The nation cannot afford a negative outcome. The stakes simply are too high.

A second warning about the low-keyed approach is warranted. It may placate those who support values education and neutralize their efforts to create a potent program. The need for a strong intervention is clearly indicated by the data and the impetus drawn from it may be deterred by a watered-down procedure whose inability to cope with the problem is fully predictable.

It may be asserted that a moderate-values education effort is better than none because it may lay the groundwork for more potent ones. However, this conclusion is questionable because it is just as tenable to support an alternative hypothesis: The less-intensive approach will fail and, in light of related failures, will lead to the general conclusion that all such efforts are futile. Thus, it will cause the abandonment of the entire range of similar programs. That is, a negative outcome at this time might lead to a total banishment of all values education programs from schools.

The nation's schools must decide whether or not they have a crisis related to students' values. Certainly, there is a danger in being stampeded by cries of alarmists; but, there also is a problem that educators may be lulled into a false sense of security by those who settle for a less intensive brand of morals education. Schools are especially susceptible to the latter difficulty during this period when so many

changes are being proposed. Therefore, the best course is to turn to the data base related to the deficits in students' values. In short, the advocates of stronger values education programs must ask their colleagues to consider the objective facts of the situation. The information supports a vigorous approach.

In short, to make democracy work, we must learn and re-learn that it is important for us to live together in ways that optimize our use of our physical, intellectual and emotional resources so that all of us can benefit fully from our individual and group assets. The operative phrase is: Learn and re-learn that it is important. It is not a luxury. It is critical. This is a matter of values and we need strong values education programs to focus effectively on that goal.

References

- Aaron, H., Mann, T., & Taylor, J. (1994). *Values and public policy*. Washington: Brookings Institution.
- Aspy, C., Aspy, D., & Roebuck, F. (1984). Tomorrow's resources are in today's classrooms. *Personnel & Guidance Journal*, 62. 455-458.
- Aspy, D., Aspy, C., & Roebuck, F. (1984). *The third century in American education*. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press.
- Bailey, M. (1991, January 13). Are ID's amenable? *The Louisville Courier-Journal*, p. H1.
- Barone, M. (1994, August 1). A history of cultural wars. *U.S. News and World Report*, p. 40.
- Bennett, W. (1994). The book of virtues. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Bennett, W. (1993). Cultural indicators. Washington, DC: Heritage Foundation.
- Bergin, A. (1985). Proposed values for guiding and evaluating counseling and psychotherapy. *Counseling and values*, 29(2), 99-116.
- Buckley, W. F. (1995, November 2). The press, conservatism, and politics. *Theodore A. White lecture on press and politics*. Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Coles, R. (1990). Children in crisis. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publication.
- Daley, S. (1990, December 12). Pendulum is swinging back to the teaching of values. *The New York Times*, p. B8.
- Editorial (1990, June 27). The New York Times, p. B6.
- Elam, S., Rose, L., & Gallup (1994). The 26th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup Poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(1), 41-56
- Etzioni, A. (1994, July 29-30). *Points of discussion*. Paper prepared for the White House Conference on character building for a democratic civil society, Washington, D.C.
- Fineman, H. (1994, June 13). Virtuecrats. Newsweek, 30-36.
- Goodlad, J., Soder, R., & Sirotnik, K. (Eds.). (1990). *The moral dimensions of teaching*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Haugen, M., Tyler, J., & Clark, J. (1991). Mental health values of psychotherapists. *Counseling and Values*, *36*(1), 24-36.
- Hechinger, F. (1990, October 26). About education [Letter to the editor]. *The New York Times*, p. B6.
- Jennings, M. (1990, November 13). Students' replies on sex, suicide, alcohol alarm education chief. *The Louisville Courier Journal*, p. A1.

- Jones, R. (1994, May). Character comes to school. *American School Board Journal*, 8(5), 36.
- Josephson, M. (1990, October 16). Young America is looking out for no. 1. *Los Angeles Times*, p. A1.
- Josephson, M. (1991). The Essentials of Ethics Education. *Ethics Issue, II*, 51-52. Kennelly, J. (1994, August 19-21). Reading, writing and doing right. *USA Weekend*, p.10.
- Kidder, R. (1994, July-August). Universal human values. *The Futurist*, 8-13. Letters to our children [Editorial]. (1994, August 1). *U.S. News and World Report*, p.39.
- Lickona, T. (1993, November). The return of character education. *Educational Leadership*, *51*(3), 6-11.
- Lickona, T. (1991). Character education. New York: Bantam Books.
- Mitchell, C. (1993). The relationship of clinicians' values to therapy outcome ratings. *Counseling and Values*, *39*(3), 156-164.
- Nordberg, R. (1979). Values and motives: A deepening confusion. *Counseling and Values*, 23(2), 90-96.
- Russo, T. (1984). A model of addressing spiritual issues in counseling. *Counseling and Values*, 29(1), 42-48.
- Ryan, K. (1993, November). Mining the values in the curriculum. *Educational Leadership*, *51*(3), 16-18.
- Shogan, R. (1990, July 8). The right searches for a new identity. *The Louisville Courier Journal*, p. D1.
- Steinfels, P. (1989, November 21). Longtime foe of religious right urges schools to teach the sacred. *The New York Times*, p. A10.
- Thomas, C. (1994, September 14). Values wars. *The Louisville Courier Journal*, p. A7.
- Thomas, C. (1988). The death of ethics in America. Waco, TX: Word Inc.
- Thomas, G., & Roberts, C. (1994, May). The Character of Our Schooling. *American School Board Journal*, 18(5), 33-35.

Cheryl B. Aspy, is an associate professor in the Department of Family and Preventive Medicine, University of Oklahoma, and David Aspy is an educational consultant. Inquiries should be sent to the author at PO Box 26901, 900 Northeast 10th St., Oklahoma City, OK 73190.

Challenge, Confrontation, and Exhortation as Intentional Invitations by Professional Helpers

John J. Schmidt

East Carolina University Greenville, NC

This article examines intentional invitations that challenge, confront, exhort, and otherwise persuade people to change their behaviors, take emotional risks, and reach for higher life goals. The assumption that the sender controls the "intention," while the receiver determines the degree of "inviting," is considered within the context of these provocative messages. Elements of the invitational model are suggested as a framework to create acceptable inducements in the helping process. Additional safeguards are recommended to insure the integrity and welfare of the people being helped.

Invitational theory suggests that an understanding of human behavior is attained, in part, by applying the four levels of functioning (Purkey & Novak, 1984, Purkey, 1992). These four levels are not absolute categories of behavior, but rather are broad estimates of the choices that people make when sending and receiving messages. Furthermore, invitational theory proposes that everyone functions at all four levels at some time or other. All people, no matter how generous, thoughtful, and caring they may be, sometimes behave in ways that

are intentionally disinviting toward themselves and others. By the same token, people who function at the lowest and most toxic level much of the time, occasionally send virtuous messages to themselves and others.

One similarity among people who behave predominantly at the lowest level of functioning (intentionally disinviting) and those who act at the highest level (intentionally inviting) is the conscious purpose and direction with which they choose their behaviors. In both instances, they behave with clear intention. In contrast, people who lack intentionality tend to function with uncertainty and unreliability. Sometimes, their behaviors are disinviting and at other times they are inviting, but they do not have clear purpose and direction. Thus, people create two intentional levels and two unintentional levels of functioning. Figure 1 presents the four levels of functioning proposed by invitational theory.

Figure 1 Levels of Functioning

I. Intentionally Inviting
II. Unintentionally Inviting
III. Unintentionally Disinviting
IV. Intentionally Disinviting

Embedded in this four-tiered model of human behavior is the belief that while the sender creates the message to convey, it is the receiver, through his or her unique perception, who ultimately determines whether or not the message is inviting or disinviting. Consequently, a sender may intend to convey beneficial messages, but these communications may be rejected by the receiver. In such

situations, the disparity between the *intent* of the sender and the *perception* of the receiver is problematic in the development of healthy and helpful human relationships. As noted previously, this "creates a dilemma for the sender, particularly when, in spite of positive intentions, a message precipitates negative reactions and outcomes" (Schmidt, 1992, p. 43).

The conflict between a sender's intentions and a receiver's perceptions is particularly noteworthy when the messages are customarily thought to be worthwhile and beneficial to the receiver. The question for the sender remains, "How hard do I push to seek acceptance of my invitation?"

In this article, I suggest some characteristics of invitations that may bridge the gap between the intentions of professional helpers and the perceptions of those whom they seek to help (For the purpose of this article, the term "professional helper" is used in the broadest context, e.g., teachers, counselors, supervisors.). In particular, behaviors that intend to challenge, confront, and exhort others to changes their lives, reach higher goals, and excel in their endeavors are examined. Although behaviors that challenge, confront, and exhort others are not by nature invitations, when used with utmost care and respect for the individual's own unique perspective, they have the potential to help people bring about beneficial changes in their lives. To use this potential constructively, helpers first understand the disparity that sometimes exists between a sender's intent and a receiver's perception.

Intent vs. Perception

There are countless illustrations of how well-meaning and thoughtful invitations might be summarily rejected by the people for whom they are intended. We witness this phenomenon everyday in families, schools, work places, and other situations. For the purposes of this article, the following two examples show this predicament in teacher-student and supervisor-employee relationships.

Teacher-Student Relationship

Suppose that a kindergarten teacher has a mild school-phobic child in class. It is the beginning of the academic year and parents are coming to school with their children who are entering kindergarten. Many five-year-olds display some anxiety about this new venture, but a few demonstrate serious panic attacks that disrupt the learning environment. In this class, one young boy suffers severe distress and presents violent reluctance to staying at school. One morning he refuses to leave the car after his father drives him to school, and when dad goes into the building to seek the teacher's assistance, the boy locks the car doors. Of course, this protest takes the teacher, the school counselor, and many others away from their immediate educational tasks.

Given the level of anxiety this boy suffers, the question for the teacher and the school is how firmly do they insist on the student's attendance at school, which they believe to be in his ultimate best interest? In essence, they wonder how much discomfort to expect the boy to tolerate, and what safe-guards should they put in place to ensure his welfare? These questions lead the school to plan action that encourages the parents to be firm and see that the child comes to school. The plan includes parents giving the child responsibility for getting himself up in the morning, dressing himself, and being on time for school. At the same time, the school examines external factors that may unduly raise the boy's anxiety, and strives to alter or remove these inhibitors. The school counselor may schedule individual or

group sessions with the child to allow safe opportunities to explore his fears about coming to school. The perceptions the child shares with the counselor may also help the school make adjustments in school programs, policies, and processes that discourage the him from coming to school. In this way, the school evaluates the "Five Ps" (people, places, policies, programs, and processes) proposed by invitational theory (Purkey & Schmidt, 1996).

Whatever plan is designed by the school and parents, it conforms with interventions suggested in counseling and other professional literature (Schmidt, 1991; Thompson & Rudolph, 1992). In some instances, the school may decide that a schedule that permits the student gradually to enter kindergarten is most appropriate. At the same time, the teacher wants to provide avenues for the child to seek relief at school when he feels extremely anxious.

Employee-Supervisor Relationship

A second illustration of the conflict between a sender's intentions and a receiver's perceptions is a supervisor's evaluation of an employee. Imagine that Mary, a supervisor, believes that Ralph, one of her subordinates, is not performing up to his potential. Furthermore, his performance is detracting from the work of her other team members. Mary has observed Ralph, offered suggestions, and notified him of her continued concern about his poor performance. Still, he continues to execute his duties in less than adequate fashion.

As Mary reviews the situation, she realizes her choices are becoming limited. She is puzzled because Ralph has the ability to do an excellent job, yet he continues to perform poorly. In view of the situation, she decides to take firm action that will either press him to improve or request him to leave the company. For her, the question is

how firm should she be? How tough should she set the standards? She knows he has family obligations, and he has been loyal to the company in past years. These realities are difficult to ignore as she wonders what demands (i.e., invitations) he will accept in working towards performance improvement.

As part of her plan, she offers Ralph the opportunity for employee assistance counseling at company expense. Through counseling, she hopes Ralph will examine career goals and personal interests that may help him assess his career direction and make appropriate decisions about his role in the company. At the same time, she hopes Ralph may identify factors in his life or on the job that inhibit his performance. As these factors are revealed, the employee assistance counselor may help Ralph address life and career factors that need to be altered, and Ralph might help his supervisor identify job factors that can be changed to improve the work environment.

In the above illustrations, both the teacher and supervisor face a difficult proposition. What each hopes to find is a formula that enables the student or subordinate to move toward a higher level of functioning, while at the same time protecting the individual's integrity and self-worth. The four levels of functioning proposed by invitational theory offer a model for defining and describing behaviors, but alone they do not provide a necessary safety valve to monitor a person's level of comfort and continued commitment to the helping relationship. For this reason, professional helpers look at other components of invitational theory to know how to challenge, confront, and exhort people who need their assistance. Some of these components are found in the professional stance proposed by invitational theorists (Purkey, 1992).

A Professional Stance

In addition to the levels of functioning, invitational theory suggests that helpful professionals and beneficial organizations originate from a posture of optimism, trustworthiness and respect. These essential ingredients merge to form a proactive, beneficial, and dependable stance that ultimately defines one's direction and purpose in all personal and professional relationships. The inner structure that distinguishes this direction and purpose is our intentionality (Purkey & Schmidt, 1996; Schmidt, 1994). When creating invitations that challenge, confront, or exhort people to take risks, change behaviors, and alter their lives, professionals might find guidance in the optimistic, trustful, respectful, and intentional elements of the invitational stance.

Optimism

It is unlikely that any human relationship flourishes without the belief that all parties have the ability to make it happen. When involved in relationships that require firm resolve and challenge others to perform at higher levels, optimism is imperative. By presenting an optimistic posture, professional helpers maintain an unwavering belief in their ability to help the other person, and in the individual's potential to reach stated goals.

Optimism is guided and sometimes tempered by the helper's knowledge of the people being helped and understanding of human development and behavior. In this way, helpers accept the limits of human potential, accurately evaluate the strengths of individuals, and accept the uniqueness of each person involved in the helping process. These conditions translate into two additional qualities that support and encourage the helper's optimism: confidence and perseverance.

Confidence. Challenging others towards higher levels of functioning begins by establishing a level of self-confidence that exudes a "can-do" attitude. Without this belief in their own capabilities, it is difficult for professional helpers to convince others that they too have the competence to conquer fears and improve their performance. This skill of transferring one's confidence to another is an enabling stance that allows inviting professionals to repeat their successful relationships time and again (Schmidt, 1994). An abundance of educational and psychological research verifies that repeated successes contribute to increased self-confidence. This gives credence to the belief that as helpers persevere and encourage others to do likewise, they establish mutually beneficial relationships.

Perseverance. If helpers believe in themselves and their potential to overcome seemingly impenetrable barriers, then they persist in marching towards their therapeutic goals. This principle of perseverance is played out in countless ways in everyday experiences. What seems clear is that people who persevere are able to reach their goals, not because they are any more intelligent or more talented than others, but because they *believe* they can do it.

In both illustrations presented earlier, the teacher and the supervisor begin from a position of optimism. The teacher believes the child will survive his separation anxiety, and the supervisor knows the employee has the ability to perform successfully. When inviting others to take risks and overcome obstacles, professional helpers are correct to persist if their knowledge confirms that clients have the capability to handle the challenge, and the clients, in turn, demonstrate faith in the helper's commitment to their welfare. This trustful demonstration of faith is another important ingredient of the professional stance.

Trust

Taking a persistent course of action without cultivating a trustful relationship might be detrimental to one or both parties involved. People who have difficulty in their lives do not benefit from challenges and exhortations that emanate from positions of mistrust. As with optimism, trust is a condition that begins with the helper's knowledge and understanding of the individuals needing assistance. It is extended by a willingness to share one's self openly, a commitment to keep confidences when appropriate to do so, and a belief in the integrity of the individual.

Arceneaux (1994) introduced several sources for developing trust in helping relationships: reliability, genuineness, truthfulness, intent, and competence. He surmised that "Trust is regarded as all that is conveyed by these five sources" (p. 36). As such, a truly helpful professional: (1) exhibits reliability through consistent behaviors, (2) genuinely relates to those he or she attempts to help, (3) is truthful in communicating the challenges inherent in the relationship, (4) maintains a beneficial purpose, and (5) works within the limits of one's competency. By adhering to these five requisites, professional helpers are better able to establish a posture in which challenge, confrontation, and exhortation have a chance of being accepted. On the other hand, when helpers compromise these sources of trust, their relationships falter and people are less likely to accept provocation in the helpful spirit intended. This failure to establish a consistent posture of trustworthiness also compromises the respect that is equally important in helping relationships.

Respect

Respect is an essential condition of all helping relationships, and its importance is magnified when challenging the perceptions of others. Moreover, respect is a two-way proposition. Helpers win the respect of people they seek to help when they demonstrate unequivocal regard for the welfare and best interest of their clients. Such regard is best established in relationships founded on equal collaboration and mutual responsibility.

Collaboration. Encouraging people to accept challenges, confronting them about inappropriate behavior, and exhorting them to excel in their endeavors will most likely achieve success when helpers become equal partners in the professional relationship. This means valuing the opinions of others, listening to their concerns, and responding genuinely. It also means recognizing the expertise people bring to the helping process. As Purkey (1978) noted, "In the final analysis, the individual is the world's greatest authority on that individual" (p. 49). Denying or minimizing such expertise decreases the likelihood of a successful collaboration. In contrast, by accepting a person's self-knowledge as an important aspect of collaboration, helpers take responsible action in their professional relationships.

Responsibility. When challenging and exhorting others, helpers assume a position of responsibility. This means that they understand their role, its scope and limitations, and the inherent duties accepted in this capacity. Among the charges of being a helping professional is the clear responsibility to protect individuals from harm, and to ensure that the strategies chosen and the expectations decreed are appropriate to the task and reasonable to achieve. In this way, the optimal execution of responsibilities is connected to the helper's knowledge and understanding of the person or persons being helped, and the professional's level of skill.

In both of the earlier illustrations, collaboration and mutual responsibility play crucial roles. For example, the teacher and others in the school, in addition to the parents, will demonstrate respect towards the child's feelings, and share responsibility with the child in making the school a safe, pleasant experience. At the same time, the

school will create avenues that help the child relieve anxiety, such as calling home during the day to make sure his mother is all right.

The ingredients of optimism, trust and respect have many related qualities that contribute to and define one's intentionality. It is this intentionality, this inner structure, that guides a helper's direction and identifies the purpose behind his or her challenges, confrontations, and exhortations.

Intentionality

Invitational theory relies on the belief that people choose some behaviors purposefully, while other actions occur without considerable thought or intent. For this reason, intentionality is an important construct for helpers to consider when challenging, confronting and using other persuasive behaviors. As noted earlier, it is the sender of the invitation who determines the intent, so this responsibility takes on added importance when professional helpers contest people's perceptions, debate their indecision, or summon their courage to excel.

Unintentional actions often lead to destructive, harmful results. When helpers are thoughtless or uncaring, they may damage relationships with people about whom they care. In relationships in which helpers challenge, confront, and exhort others, unintentional behaviors are especially risky. Regardless of how sincerely they may apologize for their negligence ("I really didn't mean it."), these actions often do more to thwart relationships than intentional misdeeds do. This is why professional helpers maintain a positive direction of knowing *what* to do and a beneficial purpose of knowing *why* they want to do it.

Conclusion

Invitational theory proposes that the ultimate goal of all helping relationships, such as those established by teachers, counselors, parents, health-care professionals, supervisors, and others, is to create and send the most beneficial messages so that all people have an opportunity to develop their full potential. In practice, these beneficial messages are received and interpreted by the people these professionals intend to help. This reality colors relationships in which teachers, counselors, supervisors, and others push their students and clients, expect high levels of performance from employees, and persuade people to take reasonable risks in their lives. Therefore, truly helpful professionals who challenge, confront, and exhort others maintain a dependable stance of optimism, trust, respect, and intentionality.

The four conditions of an inviting stance have been presented in this article as a framework for insuring the integrity, emotional security, and psychological well-being of individuals who are assisted by professional helpers. In applying the ingredients of optimism, trust, and respect within an intentionally inviting relationship, helpers might consider the following "seven safeguards" to include in the process:

- 1. Form an alliance. Maintain the highest regard for the people whom you intend to help, and let them know that you will stand by them through this challenging period. Become a true ally who is willing to join in the struggle rather than sit on the sidelines criticizing and evaluating.
- 2. *Minimize defeat*. Accept setbacks and disappointments as part of the helping process by demonstrating a consistently positive attitude. Let people know that you are striving for "imperfection" and will tolerate mistakes, forgetfulness, and other actions, while you encourage them to march forward even if it means starting over again. It is essential to convey your belief that they can do it!

- 3. Feel the pulse. Ask for feedback and monitor the well-being of people you attempt to help. In all relationships, and most assuredly in those that challenge, confront, and exhort others, listen for sounds of pain, hurt or other discomfort that may disable those whom you are helping. Genuine concern for their welfare is a foundation block for successful relationships. Too much discomfort may lead an individual to terminate what could have been an otherwise helpful relationship.
- 4. *Provide a safety net*. When designing strategies and taking action, be willing to adjust your thinking and alter plans so people can save face if necessary, regain composure in difficult situations, and keep their self-worth in tact. Flexibility is a hallmark of an intentional helper.
- 5. Monitor self-interest. Guard against becoming too vested in the outcomes of your helping relationships. Sometimes when professionals become too involved in the lives of others, they base clinical decisions more on their own self-interests than on their client's best welfare. In these instances, challenge, confrontation, and exhortation can take on brutal connotations that are counterproductive.
- 6. Give credit away. As you make progress in your helping relationships, congratulate your clients in the successes they achieve. Remember, it is the person accepting your challenge and taking the risks who should be distinguished. Take quiet pride in your leadership skill by letting your clients receive the visible accolades.
- 7. *Have faith*. Difficult relationships can try your patience and cause you to question your commitment to the helping process. Be persistent in your belief that if you keep the relationship on a positive footing, gains will be made and the people you help will be successful in their endeavors.

Challenge, confrontation, exhortation, and other actions that inspire, persuade, dare, and otherwise expect people to improve their lives are important invitations. When created and sent from a posture of exemplary regard, healthy optimism and genuine concern for the welfare of others, these provocative messages maintain the critical elements of beneficial invitations.

References

- Arceneaux, C. J. (1994). Trust: An exploration of its nature and significance. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, *3*, 35-49.
- Purkey, W. W. (1978). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning*. Belmont. CA: Wadsworth.
- Purkey, W. W. (1992). An introduction to invitational theory. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, 1, 5-15.
- Purkey, W. W., & Novak, J. M. (1984). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning* (2nd Ed.). Belmont. CA: Wadsworth.
- Purkey, W. W., & Schmidt, J. J. (1996). *Invitational counseling: A self-concept approach to professional practice*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Schmidt, J. J. (1992). Particulars, universals, and invitations: A reprise. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, 1, 43-52.
- Schmidt, J. J. (1991). Survival guide for the elementary/middle school counselor. West Nyack, NY: The Center for Applied Research in Education.
- Schmidt, J. J. (1994). *Living intentionally & making life happen* (Revised Ed.). Greenville, NC: Brookcliff.
- Thompson, C. L., & Rudolph, L. B. (1992). *Counseling children* (3rd Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Jack Schmidt is professor and chair of the Counselor and Adult Education Department at East Carolina University in Greenville, NC. Inquiries should be sent to the author at PO Box 2428, Greenville, NC 27836-0428. The author wishes to thank his colleague, Dr. Joseph Ciechalski, for his editorial comments and helpful suggestions about this article.

Invitational Education as a Logical, Ethical and Democratic Means to Reform

Kenneth H. Brinson, Jnr.

The Pennsylvania State University

A pervasive feeling exists that whatever is being attempted in education is not working and needs to be changed in dramatic fashion. Educational reform has become faddish and conflicting in the explanations of what is needed. Many reforms ignore that people are involved and concentrate solely on the systems in which people work. Invitational Education seeks to assist individuals and their relationships with others. It is rooted in the foundations of democratic philosophy and it is imperative that those tenets are directly applied in any educational reform initiative.

"A Nation at Risk" (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) ushered the educational community into years of educational reform which still continue. Although there are many reports calling for reform, there are few that explain how to get from where we are to where everyone seemingly wants us to be (Nehring, 1992). There is a pervasive feeling that whatever is being attempted in education is not working and therefore needs to be changed in a dramatic fashion. Educational reform has become faddish and the reports are often conflicting in their explanations of what is needed. Large numbers of reform solutions, when instituted, tend to worsen the problems that they were supposed to fix. Unfortunately, many reforms ignore the people involved and concentrate solely on the

systems in which they work. Oftentimes, little attention is paid to what is readily available and logical to use.

Novak (1992) observed:

Dissatisfaction with conceptualizations of school practices that negated the heart of the educative process, led to the development of an alternative framework that was more sensitive to the perceptual realities and ethical responsibilities of participants in the educative process. (p.77)

That framework has become the field of Invitational Education. Texts have been written, hundreds of conferences have been held, and an International Alliance for Invitational Education has been established. Invitational Education stands poised to become one of the most logical, ethical and democratic philosophies to enter the arena of educational reform. Lewis (1989) reminded educators that a commitment to the role of student, or to the role of a professional working with students, is the only thing "sacred" in the current scene of restructuring. Invitational education puts people first and endeavors to assist students and professionals in their quest to fulfill their individual potentials.

Invitational Education

What then is Invitational Education? Purkey and Novak (1988) describe it as:

Invitational Education is a metaphor for an emerging model of the educative process consisting of four value-based assumptions about the nature of people and their potential...Invitational Education provides both a theoretical framework and practical strategies for what educators can do to create schools where people want to be and want to learn. (p. 11)

"We believe it offers a defensible approach to the educative process and a practical way to make school 'the most inviting place in town" (Purkey & Novak, 1984, p. 2).

Why would an understanding of this be helpful to educators? Short (1994) stated that in a democracy anyone wishing to reform the field of education should realize that:

...the role of school leaders...is not to know what's best and to impose it on others, but to lead groups of people through inquiry and a synthesis of research to a common understanding about what is most worth doing in school and how to go about achieving this. (p. 504)

This model can assist school leaders in doing that. Invitational education also shares a great deal with the notion of "school culture" in that it can also be construed as a "pattern of beliefs and expectations of the members of the school community that guide their predominant attitudes and behaviors" (Lomotey & Swanson, 1990, p. 68).

The Framework of Invitational Education

Four assumptions provide the framework for Invitational Education. They are value-laden and deal with the nature of people and what education can be. These assumptions are rooted in the ideals of a democracy.

First, "people are able, valuable, and responsible and should be treated accordingly" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 12). If educators do not believe this to be true in regards to students, then the students quite often will conduct themselves according to the educators'

expectations. If, however, educators accept this assumption, success will more likely be the reward as educators will discover methods ensuring the achievement of this outcome for each individual. Mortimer Adler (1982) reminded educators that children are indeed unequal in their capacity to learn, but if treated individually, they are always capable of improving their situation (Noll, 1991).

Second, education should be viewed as a "collaborative, cooperative activity" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 12). All individuals in the educative process should be invited to have a say in the planning and implementation of their own destiny. Carl Rogers (1983) wrote that an individual must be allowed freedom to choose alternatives, stating that even if the choices are few, that their freedom exists (in Noll, 1991). Dictated standards of behavior demanding conformation do not enjoy the high rates of success attained by collaborative ventures. Tyranny fails when democracy is possible.

Third, "people possess untapped potential in all areas of human endeavor" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 13). A great deal of what educators do is based on the perceived potential of the stakeholders in the educational process. The curriculum, physical environment, programs offered, and rules and regulations reflect assumptions. If those assumptions are raised, then a more inviting atmosphere is created which will help ensure a more successful educational process for all involved. It is of paramount importance that educators never anticipate a limit to the potential of any individual.

Fourth, "human potential can best be realized by places, policies, and processes that are specifically designed to invite development, and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 14). This assumption points to the main emphasis of invitational education: hu-

man relationships and achieving individual potential. "An invitation convinces children that their uniqueness has a special integrity of unquestioned value...the message helps youngsters view their qualities, characteristics, and descriptions of self in the most positive fashion imaginable" (Wilson, 1986, p. 11).

The Four Elements of Invitational Education

The aforementioned assumptions form a framework, serving as support mechanisms for the four elements of Invitational Education. The acronym "TRIO" is used when referring to trust, respect, intentionality, and optimism. Collaborative school cultures are built around educational leaders, male or female, who exhibit the four elements in building relationships (Fink, in press). Each of the elements will be examined in turn.

Trust is generated by consistency. Teachers who are trusting of their students are more committed to helping them, and that type of teacher commitment will instill a greater confidence and trust amongst the students (Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss, & Hoy, 1994,). James Herndon (1971) admitted that schools often are the places where students learn not to trust others, and that they must learn trust through the teacher. If educators are consistent in their practices and patterns of action, an environment of dependability and predictability will result. Invitational leaders, who trust that people are capable and responsible, and that an individual's choices predetermine their behavior, "trust others to behave in concert with these preconceptions" (Fink, in press). In inviting schools, supervision is low-key, regulations are fair and understandable, and students are empowered with the responsibility of their actions. There is evidence that trusting students with responsibilities encourages them to live up to expectations. Short, Greer, and Michael (1992) also mentioned that building trust is a necessity in the empowerment of schools.

"Respect is a given—an undeniable birthright of each person" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 15). "It expresses itself in respecting the individuality of teachers and others within a collaborative environment" (Fink, in press). When students err, they should be consulted as to how and why their behavior was inappropriate. A collaborative effort results in suggestions for improvement and, if necessary, disciplinary measures in line with what has already been discussed and agreed upon. In invitational education, penalties avoid measures that demote self-esteem, such as corporal punishment, and steer towards a loss of privileges. Instead of being regarded as a punishment, the consequences of an unacceptable action are representative of the preservation of individual rights and accepted as such (Wilson, 1986). Discipline need not be viewed as a means of control over a student as much as it should be viewed as a means to guide a student, by meeting their needs to achieving greater selfcontrol (Ryback, 1993). James Herndon wrote of his students "I don't want to get them under control, I want them to see some reason for getting themselves under control" (1968, p. 113). There should also be a balance of attention given to acceptable and desired behaviors equal to that given to negative behaviors.

The third element is intentionality. Educators adhering to this model must do things on purpose, in completing and implementing activities and making decisions. "Invitational leaders support policies, practices, programs, structures, cultures which intentionally create an environment and provide opportunities for all students to function fully as citizens in the post-modern world" (Fink, in press). If educators make decisions from a intentional position, they can better understand when they are capable of being more flexible and if the situation necessitates flexibility. "The measure of an invitational leader is the ability to create a learning organization which is

inclusive, responsive to its context and flexible in dealing with change" (Fink, in press).

Optimism is the most important element and often the most difficult to cultivate. Goethe has been quoted as saying "if we take people as they are, we make them worse...if we treat them as if they were what they ought to be, we help them to become what they are capable of becoming." Being optimistic does not mean naively focusing on unattainable goals, it means accepting the actual occurrences of day-to-day life and maintaining a positive outlook. Stockard and Mayberry (1992) wrote that having high expectations for students in skill acquisition and achievement tend to illustrate highly effective schools. Optimism and faith are the basic tenets of theologies and philosophies around the world and are a necessity in education reform.

The Perceptual Tradition and Self-Concept Theory

The theoretical foundations of invitational education emanate from two perspectives: the perceptual tradition and self-concept theory. A Freudian would conclude that people do what they do as manipulated by internal dynamics of the unconscious. A behaviorist would proffer that environmental stimuli influence behavior, "that behavior is caused by stimulus, response, reinforcement and reward" (Arceneaux, 1992, p. 88). Fink cites Fullan when he writes "since change in organizations is about change in people, attention to their perceptions of reality and particularly their sense of self are fundamental to successful 'change agentry'" (Fink, in press). The perceptual tradition maintains that people act according to their perception of the world at the point of action stretching "far beyond sensory experience to include such perceptions as beliefs, values, feelings, hopes, desires, and the personal ways in which persons regard themselves and other people" (Combs, Avila, & Purkey, 1978, pp. 15-16). It stresses ultimate responsibility for one's

actions as it empowers individuals to make and accept the benefits and consequences of their decisions. This theory suggests "that each person is a conscious agent who considers, constructs, interprets, and then acts" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 17).

Self-concept theory is a unique system of perceptions of self and one's personal world. "It is the organization of perceptions about self that seems to the individual to be who he or she is...it is composed of thousands of perceptions varying in clarity, precision, and importance in the person's peculiar economy" (Combs, et al., 1978, p. 17). How people view themselves determines how they view all that is around them and how they relate to, and interpret, what is observed. Purkey (1970) wrote that people's behaviors are closely linked to a system of beliefs. Based on this assumption, teachers' beliefs regarding themselves and their students must, therefore, become important factors in determining classroom effectiveness (Purkey, 1970).

Fink (in press) addresses the question of motivation as it relates to free will. Daresh and Playko agree with Fink in their interpretation of motivation by stating "no one ever truly motivates another person ...ultimately, whether or not a person works harder rests in that person's own choice" (1995, p. 155). Fink writes: "to say that one person can motivate another is to deny free will" (in press).

The Four Ps

When moving from theory into practice, emphasis should be placed on places, people, policies, and programs, known in Invitational Education publications as The Four Ps.

Places

The visibility of places creates a perfect beginning point for introducing invitational education (Purkey & Novak, 1988). Stockard and Mayberry pointed to the educational environment as having an effect on children's learning (1992). Changing signs in the school so that they are more inviting, ensuring the cleanliness of the buildings, making sure that the grounds are attractive and kept, comfortable and efficient office layouts and furnishings, fresh paint, and intimate cafeteria seating arrangements are all visible, noticeable, and desirable. A school can demonstrate the cultural diversity of its population by creating beautiful murals on the walls (Stanley, 1994). All will enhance the working and learning atmosphere. "Modern science is confirming that our actions, thoughts, and feelings are indeed shaped not just by our genes, neurochemistry, history, and relationships but also by our surroundings" (Klag, 1995, p. 3).

Policies

Policies include "the rules, codes, and procedures used to regulate the ongoing functions of organizations" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 22). Policies tell students, educators, and members of the community what the expectations of the school are, and how they affect each person. Policies must be appropriate, democratic, and caring. They must be reached collaboratively and be sensitive to whom they affect. Stanley urged school leaders to ensure that policies concerning attendance, suspension and promotion are not only fair, but understood by the individual students that are affected by them (Stanley, 1994). Wayson, Mitchell, Pinnell, and Landis explained that often policies in a school are used in an effort to prove that some children cannot learn (1988), and this must be avoided.

Programs

Programs refer to two different practices. First, educators should be aware of, and constantly monitor, any programs that label students especially if they segregate those students from others. Rather than trying to get children to fit into some type of existing model, the school should endeavor to alter its instruction so that it caters to the individual child (Stanley, 1994). Although sometimes a necessity, separating children from their peers can lead to the stigmatization of those involved. Students can experience a psychic numbing by being placed in a low track that separates them from the opportunities afforded those in the higher tracks (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989). Secondly, community-based service programs are known and utilized by invitational educators. Everything from Big Brothers/Sisters to free dental care, from The Salvation Army to retired volunteers can contribute to a schools' welfare and the welfare of its students. The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development recommended that partnerships should be formed between schools and community services to make sure that students have access to available health and social services (1989).

People

People come first. In an inviting school, educators know and use students names often. Not to do so seems to deny students their dignity as unique human beings (Stanley, 1994). Courtesy and civility are the rule in a school where there is an emphasis on the wants and needs of the students and faculty. Nehring pointed out that the goal of educators needs to be that elusive intersection of student interests and academic aims, and to create an environment where both can thrive (1989). If places or policies or programs inconvenience or inhibit learning, they should be altered. People, in schools or in any democratic institution, are the main order of business.

The Four Corner Press

Is there a long-range plan for implementing these theories in a school in order to make it more inviting? Yes. It is called the Four Corner Press. The elements of this plan focus on the behavior of the educator and include: (1) being personally inviting with one's self; (2) being personally inviting with others; (3) being professionally inviting with one's self; and (4) being professionally inviting with others. "While these corners are simple to describe, they are not easy to implement ...the goal is to balance the demands of the four corners and to orchestrate ways to blend them together" (Purkey & Novak, 1988, p. 26).

Personally Inviting—Self

Being personally inviting with one's self means taking care of one's self. "A call to education is the most important self-invitation many educators have ever issued" (Aspy & Aspy, 1994, p. 82). If an educator leads a monotonous life, chances are they are boring to others. The way in which teachers view themselves is in direct correlation to their ability to assist students who are striving to realize positive self-concepts (Purkey, 1970). Students tend to learn from the kind of person they wish to emulate (Smith, 1995). Educators should strive to have a positive presence, foster their own self-esteem, and live life to its fullest. John H. Wilson suggested that educators take time for thoughtful reflection (1986). Wilson's advice is in league with Achilles, Brubaker, and Snyder when they mentioned reflection and discussion as a means of streamlining understanding (1992).

Personally Inviting—Others

Being personally inviting with others can simply mean being able to give and accept praise in interaction with others. "One additional aspect ...is to develop and maintain unconditional regard and respect for other human beings" (Purkey & Novak, 1984). People require nurturing and should be open to that fact, and willing to give it to others. Cultivating friendships is a method useful in satisfying this corner. People desire to share who they are and should invite others to share of themselves (Wilson, 1986).

Professionally Inviting—Self

Being professionally inviting with one's self means being a lifelong learner and explorer. Standing still in professional development, means losing ground (Purkey & Novak, 1988). Satisfying this corner could involve traveling, piloting new programs, reading and writing as part of a group, or participating in an educational exchange with another district. Drawing from one's own talents and interests, a membership in a professional group could be attained and an active role played (Wilson, 1986). Ann Weaver Hart suggested that school leaders must take the opportunity to examine their careers, their personal and professional development, and their special needs as working adults (1993).

Professionally Inviting—Others

Being professionally inviting with others can be accomplished by taking advantage of the opportunities presented by the previous corners. The manner in which educators communicate, in a "common shared language" (Brown, 1990), with others indicates how inviting they are. The same is true in how an educator evaluates another. An educator who is professionally inviting with others looks at existing programs and policies to see if they are inherently fair, understood, and appropriately administered. "In effect, they [school leaders] may behave situationally as a manager, facilitator, counselor or change

agent depending on circumstances, but they remained steadfast in their stance with themselves and others" (Fink, in press). "'Inviters' know that all people deserve and need invitations to abundant life" (Aspy, 1994, p. 116).

Invitational Education - A Conclusion

Whenever a model or program is held up to an educator as the "answer" to the problems faced by the educational community, that educator should be wary. There are countless devices, and schools of thought, claiming to rid the profession of its evils, and all should be greeted with some hesitancy. Perhaps the answer lies not in encompassing any one school of thought, but in being able to glean bits and pieces from each. Perhaps educators can apply the beginnings of what they understand about invitational education and make a difference in the lives of themselves and in those with whom they work.

Invitational education seeks to assist individuals and their relationships with others. If that leads to a reform movement in education, so much the better. It is not the introduction of radical new concepts. In many ways it is the acknowledgment of what has always been there, even though it is often overlooked. It is rooted in the foundations of democratic philosophy and it is imperative that those tenets be directly applied in any educational reform initiative. If enough educators wish to improve their lot by using these principles and attitudes in their personal and professional interactions, then invitational change will come about. This type of reform ensures that schools everywhere will become "the most inviting places in town."

References

- Achilles, C. M., Brubaker, D., & Snyder, H. (1992). Organizing and leading for learning: The interplay of school reform and restructuring with preparation program reform and restructuring. In Wendel, F. C. (Ed.), *Reforming and restructuring education*, University Council for Educational Administration Monograph Series, University Park, PA: University Council Educational Administration, Inc.
- Adler, M. J. (1982). *The Paedeia proposal: An educational manifesto*. New York: McMillan Publishing Co.
- Adler, M. J. (1982, July). The Paedeia proposal: Rediscovering the essence of education. *The American School Board Journal*.
- Arceneaux, C. J. (1992). Multicultural education and invitational theory: A symbiosis. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, *3* (2), 87-95.
- Aspy, C. B. & Aspy, D. N. (1994). On rediscovering self-invitations to education. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, *3* (2), 75-83.
- Aspy, D. (1994). On inviting seniors to the dance of life. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, 3 (2), 109-116.
- Brown, F. (1990). The language of politics, education, and the disadvantaged. In Jacobson, S. L. & Conway, J. A. (Eds.), *Educational leadership in an age of reform* (pp. 83-100). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989). *Turning points:*Preparing American youth for the 21st century. Carnegie Corporation of New York.
- Combs, A. W., Avila, D. L., Purkey, W. W. (1978). *Helping relationships: Basic concepts for the helping professions*, (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Inc.
- Daresh, J. C., & Playko, M. A. (1995). *Supervision as a proactive process: Concepts and cases*, (2nd ed.). Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press, Inc.
- Fink, D. (in press). Changing schools through school effectiveness and improvement.
- Hart, A. W. (1993). When is now: A plan of action. In T.A. Astuto (Ed.), When teachers lead, University Council for Educational Administration
 Monograph Series. University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration, Inc.
- Herndon, J. (1968). *The way it spozed to be*. New York: Simon and Schuster. Herndon, J. (1971). *How to survive in your native land*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

- Hoffman, J., Sabo, D., Bliss, J., & Hoy, W. K. (1994). Building a culture of trust. *Journal of School Leadership*, 4 (5), 484-501.
- Klag, P. (1995). Making schools the most inviting place in town the Disneyland connection. *Invitational Education Forum*, 16 (2), 2-5.
- Lewis, A. (1989). *Restructuring American schools*. Arlington, Va: American Association of School Administrators.
- Lomotey, K., & Swanson, A. D. (1990). Restructuring school governance: Learning from the experiences of rural and urban schools. In Jacobson, S. L. and Conway, J. A. (Eds.), *Educational leadership in an age of reform* (pp. 65-82). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform: A report to the nation and the Secretary of Education. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Education, Government Printing Office.
- Nehring, J. (1989). "Why do we gotta do this stuff, Mr. Nehring?": Notes from a teacher's day in school. New York: M. Evans and Company.
- Nehring, J. (1992). The schools we have, the schools we want: An American teacher on the front line. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.
- Noll, J. W. (Ed.) (1991). *Taking sides: Clashing views on controversial educational issues* (6th ed.). Guilford, CT: The Dushkin Publishing Group, Inc.
- Novak, J. M. (1992). Critical imagination for invitational theory, research and practice. *Journal of Invitational Theory and Practice*, *1* (2), 77-86.
- Purkey, W. W. (1970). Self-concept and school achievement. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Purkey, W. W., & Novak, J. (1984). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning*, (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Purkey, W. W., & Novak, J. (1988). *Education: By invitation only*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Rogers, C. R. (1983). *Freedom to learn for the 80s*. New York: Merrill Publishing.
- Short, E. (1994). When school leaders function as true educators: A review of key sources in the context of school renewal and restructuring. *Journal of School Leadership*, *4* (5), 502-516.
- Short, P. M., Greer, J. T., & Michael, R. (1992). Issues in creating empowered schools. In Wendel, F.C. (Ed.), *Reforming and restructuring education*. University Council for Educational Administration Monograph Series, University Park, PA: University Council for Educational Administration, Inc.

- Smith, F. (1995). Let's declare education a disaster and get on with our lives. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76 (8), 584-590.
- Stanley, P. H. (1994). Ideas for reaching minority youth in schools. *Invitational Education Forum*, 15 (2), 14-19.
- Stockard, J., & Mayberry, M. (1992). *Effective educational environments*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.
- Wayson, W. W., Mitchell, B., Pinnell. G. S., & Landis, D. (1988). *Up from excellence: The impact of the excellence movement on schools*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Wilson, J. H. (1986). *The invitational elementary classroom*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.

Kenneth H. Brinson, Jnr. is a doctoral candidate in educational administration at The Pennsylvania State University. Correspondence should be sent to the author at 809 North Allen St., State College, PA 16803.

Invitational Practices in Middle School Athletics

Gary L. Chandler

Gardner-Webb University Boiling Springs, North Carolina

Invitational practices and strategies have found their way into the realm of physical education (Turner & Purkey, 1983; Chandler & Purkey, 1986; Chandler, 1988). The presence of invitational practices in the physical arena can now be measured (Chandler, 1988). The next logical step is to invoke invitational practices and strategies into an area where even further impact can take place, middle school athletics. The coach, in a leadership position, has the potential to extend inviting concepts to student participants, in many ways into the community and potentially into society.

Interscholastic athletics traditionally provide a program for a few gifted athletes. It is possible to meet many of the same basic objectives of a traditional athletic program on the middle school level by invoking a more inclusive, principle-based and enjoyable, athletic experience. It should be possible to do so for nearly every student who desires to participate. This experience, as well as its positive and achievable goals, may present itself in the form of an invitational approach to middle school athletics.

This possibility seems especially necessary when one realizes that "it seems that youngsters stop participating in organized sports because these activities are less enjoyable to them" (Kirshnit, Ham, & Richards, 1989, p. 601). Research (Chalip, Csikszentmihalyi, Kleiber,

& Larson, 1984; Chandler, 1987; Csikszentmihalyi, 1984) indicates that adolescents enjoy informal sports more so than formalized or organized sports. Kirshnit, et al. (1989) found this to be true specifically among middle school students.

While there is no certainty as to the reasons for attrition among adolescents, they do seem to become disassociated with sports as they get older. The nature of the problem is crystallized when one realizes that "approximately 80% of all children drop out of organized sports programs between the ages of 12 and 17" (Kirshnit, et al., 1989, p. 602). Perhaps a more inclusive, inviting approach may help ensure their continuance in athletic programs from the entry level on. Kirshnit, et al., (1989) also found that the "development of programs that reinforce perceptions of skill and help adolescents fit sports into their increasingly busy lives would enhance the likelihood of continued athletic participation during adolescence" (p. 613). These types of problems affect us all, yet they have answers. Perhaps a part of the solution may be found in a more positive, inclusive and inviting approach to middle school athletics.

Four Assumptions Of Invitational Practices

Purkey and Novak (1988) espoused four assumptions which purport that invitational education "is as much an attitudinal disposition as it is a methodology" (p. 12). In distinguishing invitational education from other educational processes, they assert that there are four basic assumptions which clearly delineate the unique character of the invitational educational process.

These assumptions include the belief that: (a) people are able, valuable, and responsible and should be treated accordingly; (b) education should be a collaborative, cooperative activity; (c) people

possess untapped potential in all areas of human endeavor; (d) human potential can best be realized by places, policies, and processes that are specifically designed to invite development, and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally (pp. 12-13)

Invitational Potential in Middle School Athletics

What should be the emphasis of a middle school athletic program? In order to fully consider the ramifications of a more effective, inviting middle school athletic program, perhaps it is necessary to look at the potential outcomes of such a possibility. The "all must play" notion (Riemcke, 1988, p. 82) emphasizes the development of skills and healthy competition, capitalizing on the assurance that every child has the opportunity to participate, while every effort is made to eliminate exclusionary tendencies. "Participation, performance, and competition" (p. 82) are the hallmark of such an approach, as students are encouraged "to develop and exhibit skills to the best of their abilities" (Riemcke, 1988, p. 82).

Such a school athletic philosophy can be based in and focused upon the following substantive elements: building self-esteem, development of skill, as well as expanding interest in lifetime and leisure activity. Such elements would also provide opportunities for personal and social growth, as well as providing the encouragement for all students to participate. While winning is valued, other aspects of this athletic philosophy can be met before the coaches "coach to win" (p. 82).

By maximizing the number of activities available throughout the school year, participation opportunities are maximized. Ideally the introduction of a variety of more diverse school athletic activities allows the opportunity for greater student participation. Greater opportunities for participation can be enhanced by the addition of low-cost, high-participation opportunities such as volleyball, soccer, wrestling, softball and others if not already a part of the athletic scheme.

With the emphasis upon skill development, participation and en-

hanced self-esteem through achievement, the student is more likely en-sured greater opportunities for success at upper grade level athletics. There is also the greater likelihood of increased capability in lifetime and leisure activities.

Transference of Invitational Processes to Athletics

Actions which are unintentionally inviting have the potential to be transferred to the learning fields of middle school athletics. The importance and value of athletic involvement, competition, and team work have long been recognized (Duda, 1985). The benefits of implementing the invitational process into middle school activities are many and the rights of the student should be explicit. These rights include maximum opportunities for learning, self-development and enhanced self-esteem (Burke & Kleiber, 1980; Duda, 1985; Higginson, 1985; Hines & Grove, 1989; Kirshnit, et al., 1989).

The role of coaches in society, particularly in public schools, has typically vacillated between one of venerated leader of young athletes to the source of many of the problems in youth athletics. In the invitational sense, the middle school coach can also be the primary factor in the solution to some of the current problems in athletics as well, and perhaps consequently a factor in the solution for the problems of many of the youth in society. The coach serves as a role model for all who partake of athletics. For better or worse the influence is there. "It is well known to psychologists and teachers that success is the best activity to promote continued learning," (Burke & Kleiber, 1980, p. 308) so why not promote success and learning via a more inviting process?

Invitations for Athletic Involvement

With these concepts in mind, it is time that middle school coaches and athletic staffs clearly and emphatically begin to send more effective messages; signals that today's young athlete will be offered new personal opportunities for interaction and growth. These signals are invitations, invitations that are communicated within a middle school athletic environment. Invitations are opportunities provided by athletic staffs (coaches) for the development of middle school athletic participants in a variety of ways. These invitations are manifested by helping students realize, in an athletic setting, "their relatively untapped potential for physical, intellectual and psychological development" (Chandler & Purkey, 1986, p. 123).

The application of invitational principles to the educational setting, initiated and developed by Purkey (1978), has proven effective, successful, even innovative in the field of education. An extension of these practical principles into the physical arena has been effectively demonstrated (Turner & Purkey, 1983; Chandler & Purkey, 1986; Chandler, 1988).

The Inviting Role of Coaches in Middle School Athletics

Effective coaches are traditionally leaders by skill, knowledge, example, experience and verbalization—all messages, all signals which are sent and received, are invitations. What they do, what they say, as well as how and when they say and do things is of utmost importance, because these are perceived invitations by their athletes to behave in a similar fashion.

Coaches are capable of inviting in many ways. Messages are sent via their physical appearance, their respectful or disrespectful treatment of peers and students, the equanimity with which they treat all, their preparedness, their ability to listen and respond fairly in all situations, as well as the consistency with which they behave. "Invitations are sent and received as messages and may be informal or formal, verbal or nonverbal" (Chandler & Purkey, 1986, p. 123). As such, invitations in their most positive form are intended to inform athletes that they are valuable, able and responsible. Conversely, a disinvitation indicates that they are worthless, unable and

irresponsible. Invitations and disinvitations are manifestations of an attitude and expectation, and they are presented in every aspect of our lives including athletics, which are especially important on the middle school level.

Unfortunately, "coaches in highly structured sports are not sensitive to the needs of the...child who may have virtually no experience in the motor skills needed for success" (Burke & Kleiber, 1980, p. 308). It is not difficult to understand why "the child who is exposed to an environment in which he/she cannot be successful...is quite likely to respond defensively and express hatred for all physical activity" (p. 308). We, as professional educators, must choose to find ways to include invitational methods in our coaching practices.

Invitations and Disinvitations in Middle School Athletics

Examples of invitations include the immediate recognition of players by name, position and special skills. If there are unique characteristics or attributes which a player has, such as leadership, hustling play, cooperation, or physical skills, these should be identified to the player in such a way as to invite their further development. Special team guidelines could also be established to foster respect for team members and coaches. It is imperative that the coach set the tone for team behavior by modeling self-respect as well as respect for others. Negative manifestations or disinvitations might be exemplified by recognition of only selected players, preferential, or unequal treatment of players or the pitting of unequal skill or sizes of players against one another to discourage certain players from participating.

This is especially important since "we know that early experiences with physical activity and sports also have long-term consequences for

physical and mental health" (Remak, 1988, p. 15). "Uncertain and self-conscious children ...run the risk of developing a pattern of shying away" (p. 15) from physical and athletic involvement. This sets the stage for further embarrassment and withdrawal.

"At an all too early age the door might be closed to the many opportunities to enhance life through exercise, sports, and play" (Remak, 1988, p. 15). Hence, there is significant value in implementing the invitational approach in coaching to ensure a positive perspective of and response to middle school athletics. One way to lay the groundwork for a healthy attitude and a positive perspective of sports at an early age is to initiate invitational processes in training coaches and to recognize and value its principles.

The role of inviting coaches is immeasurably important. Their leadership in the development of skill, healthy competitive attitudes, self-esteem, personal and social growth is paramount. They also have the unequaled capacity to place performance in athletics in its relative place. The recognition of the importance of leisure and lifetime activity as it relates to middle school athletic involvement can also provide lifelong benefit.

The Legacy of Traditional Athletics

Duda (1985) conjectured that children's sport "offers a competitive setting overflowing with the potential for evaluation and judgment on various athletic competencies by a host of significant others, such as parents, coaches, and peers. The successes and failures of young participants are observable to all" (p. 55). It is here that divergent opinion chooses sides as to the methods, as well as benefits and detriments of involvement. One side offers "the claim that sport benefits the young because it's fun and the participants tend to enjoy" involvement (p. 55). These benefits lend themselves to the development of feelings of inclusion, belonging, competence, and self-esteem among participants.

Those who argue against beneficial factors of traditional athletic competition stipulate the dangers of competitive stress in athletics and counter that, while increased confidence and self-esteem are noted among traditional sports participants, this opportunity has generally been reserved for only the "elite participants who are very skilled, and that a philosophy of winning at all costs pervades the youth sport scene" (Duda, 1985, p. 55). This is where providing an inviting approach to coaching middle school athletics can come into play.

Duda (1985) suggested the availability of reasonable, practical goals that may help the would-be inviting coach in determining if

he/she is moving in an inviting direction. "For youth sport to be a positive experience, the [participants] need to feel that: (1) they have the ability to meet the physical requirements of the sport situation; (2) they can meet their personal goals and successfully demonstrate competence; and (3) they are in effective control in the sport context" (p. 55). Coaches can do this and they can do it more effectively in an inviting environment.

Combined with the conceptual paradigm in which Csikszentmihalyi (1975) asserts that when one is experiencing involvement (activities) in which the perceived challenges are equal to one's skill level, then enjoyment (flow) can occur. Perhaps then we have taken another step in the direction of the invitational coaching process. Csikszentmihalyi (1975) and Chandler (1987) substantiated, especially where physical activities were involved, that enjoyment was experienced when these criteria were met.

Competition, the meeting of an adversarial opponent who may or may not be an equal in skill, ability, and, strength, usually brings about indeterminable levels of anxiety. Such "anxiety in children's sport has been linked to lowered self-esteem in present and in future sport participation" (Duda, 1985, p. 56). Youth need to feel that they "have some influence over their environment and that goals are within their control" (p. 56). An invitational approach to coaching may help meet this need.

Duda's (1985) proposal for modification of youth sport programs focused on the precept of "having children feel good about themselves as much as possible" (p. 56). In conjunction with this proposal for the incorporation of invitational strategies into middle school athletics, Duda (1985) recommended four points of emphasis:

(1) Provide a re-emphasis on skill improvement and mastery, especially as a criteria of success, and de-emphasize "competition

- and social comparison;"
- (2) Include the children's perception of their skill level in any goal setting or evaluation process;
- (3) Rethink the emphasis of effort and ability, rewarding not just skills, but the willingness to try and the effort expended. Since not all participants will have equal skills levels or proficiency, this helps "enhance perceptions of control" in the youth's sporting involvement;
- (4) In order to enhance enjoyment, fun and the development of self-confidence, minimize social evaluation, especially if negative. It is difficult to improve and develop skill, much less have children want to participate on a regular basis "in front of a critical and demanding audience of coaches, parents and peers." (p. 56)

Agents of Influence in Middle School Athletics

Higginson (1985) suggested that sport participation is dependent upon, at least to some extent, "the influence of socializing agents such as parents, coaches and peers" (p. 73). It is interesting to note that for some middle school participants under the age of thirteen, the coach/teacher is "still a secondary influence on some...athletes' sports participation" (p. 80) while for some athletes of junior high age, the coach/teacher surpassed the parents in influence. This increased likelihood of participation and influence by coaches provides increased opportunities for positive influences in the area of invitations. It was also noted that sport interest for some increased significantly and that athletes were positively reinforced for their sport participation, "perhaps by agents of socialization" (p. 78) such as coaches. Over half the athletes interviewed indicated that their sport interest had increased significantly from under the age of thirteen to the middle school level. There was also the tendency for these athletes to increase the number

of sports in which they participated.

Hines and Groves (1989) determined that there was "no significant relationship...between win-loss record and total self-esteem and its associated factors, that is, self-degradation, family/parents, leader-ship/popularity, anxiety/assertiveness" (p. 865). This applied between sex and self-esteem as well. Whether you win or lose doesn't seem to be paramount, but having the right and opportunity to be involved at some level does.

It is interesting that this same research found that "a coach's perception has a significant impact in all areas of self-esteem except anxiety/assertiveness (Hines & Groves, 1989, p. 865). What the coach thinks of young athletes and how they are consequently treated as youthful athletes matters. Negative, disinviting coaches can have a detrimental impact upon young athletes. Positive, inviting coaches can have a beneficial impact upon these athletes.

Perhaps we can better assure that coaches have these inviting qualities through some uniform coaches' training process. This may be provided by a coaching methods class which includes the types of principles espoused by the invitational process. Advocacy by local educators or coaches of such principles is another step in that direction. The development of the inviting coach may be best enhanced by the incorporation of these invitational principles into academic coaching curricula. Since the youth coach seems to have such incalculable impact on his/her athletes, it seems requisite that such steps be taken.

In conclusion, the first logical step is in bridging the gap between verbalization and action. It is feasible to develop practical, fundamental applications and strategies that can be easily and willingly implemented to better ensure the presence and of invitational

principles in middle school athletics. Below are listed strategies which have applicability in the development of an invitational approach in middle school athletics.

Invitational Strategies in Middle School Athletics

- 1. Involve everyone.
- 2. Teach respect for self and others.
- 3. Encourage individual skill and personal development, but allow for individual differences in growth and development.
- 4. Support and foster competitiveness as well as the healthful physical and psychological benefits which accrue from them.
- 5. Advocate the development of positive self-esteem through self-testing and the demonstration of developed skills and team work.
- 6. Foster the development of skills to the best of one's abilities.
- 7. Provide ample opportunities for positive and growth-enhancing experiences culminating in memorable lifetime events. A "lifetime of memories...can be captured in...moments of success and failure, stress, relaxation, physical exhaustion and restless anticipation" (Spindt, 1984, p. 47). These types of memories are among the true rewards of athletic participation.
- 8. Ensure teams of equal or similar abilities, maturation and skill levels to participate against other teams similarly designated, perhaps even have modified rules and goals.

Indications of the Presence of Inviting in Middle School Athletics

There are elements which may not be categorized as strategies, but which may be deemed instrumental and beneficial in the development of an invitational middle school athletic program. These are signals which are demonstrative of the presence, as well as the importance, of invitational processes in middle school athletic program. Among these are:

- 1. Devise a means of honoring participants each week, for recognition of not only valued inviting characteristics displayed in a game, but those exhibited in practices as well. After all, practice is where game techniques and many lifetime skills are developed and more participants can be honored in this way, not just a select few.
- 2. Place formal, tasteful signs around school, athletic facilities and locker rooms indicating specific values and inviting characteristics important to the team, e.g., fair play, equitable playing time, teamwork, sportsmanship, trying your best, when your turn comes give your best effort, etc.
- 3. Develop a team handbook, perhaps entitled "Who We Are" or "What We're About." In it include items such as players' names, positions, valued characteristics and traits of each team member (hard worker, hustler, team player, selfless player, etc.). Also include items such as team motto, slogans, principles valued by team members, and, perhaps plays, conditioning information, reminders for healthful living for athletes, workout schedules, games schedules, etc.
- 4. To encourage good sportsmanship and true principles of inviting, have participants meet and shake hands before and after a game. This exhibits inviting at its best to fans, those who emulate athletes, as well as the community.

5. Educate parents regarding invitational values and invite them to practices to support and exemplify important components of invitational coaching.

- 6. Encourage and support an organization of PCPs (Parents, Coaches and Participants) which meets regularly and which supports and values those principles valued by the team. Bring in guest speakers, former participants, videos, etc. which can be used to promulgate invitational principles in athletics. Examples generated from local high schools, colleges and even professional ranks may be used for inspiration and modeling, but the organization's primary function should be to set forth and support specific cherished values and principles.
- 7. Use physical education classes in school to advertise and educate about the invitational values and principles. Traditional values of athletic competition may frighten away potential participants.
- 8. Often, entering sixth-grade middle school students, who may be timid and unsure, can be positively influenced to participate once they meet the coaches and understand what they are about. The "fear to involve" may be overcome not only by openly discussing these values, but also by setting aside specific opportunities for new students to meet coaches and other players. This may be accomplished in several ways: (a) by having coaches meet with new students by classes or in an assembly at the beginning of school, and (b) by providing a "meet the coaches" luncheon periodically. This may be accomplished by grade levels on various days at lunch for students to bring their lunch tray to a designated "coaches' table". There interested students can eat and become better acquainted with the coach in a more casual setting. This also provides an opportunity for them to learn more about the team's philosophy of participation and Opportunities such as these tend to diminish intimidating factors and demystify some traditional negative myths regarding coaches (they're hardened, tough minded, workhorses, etc.).

Invitational practices can play an important role in the development of middle school athletes. The success of invitational processes in youth development continent upon a coach's knowledge of the invitational process, a recognition of its value, and the willingness to implement the practices on a consistent basis.

References

- Burke, E., & Kleiber, D. (1980). Psychological and physical implications of highly competitive sports for children. In W. Straub (ed.), *Sport psychology: An analysis of athlete behavior* (pp.305-313). Ithaca, NY: Mouvement Publications.
- Chalip, L., Csikszentmihalyi, M., Kleiber, D., & Larson, R. (1984). Variations in experience in formal and informal sport. *Research Quarterly for Exercise Sport.*, 55, 109-116.
- Chandler, G. L. (1988). Strategies for invitational physical education in the junior high school. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*. 59 (4), 68-72
- Chandler, G. L. (1987). Flow and the perceived balance between challenges and skills in physical education and other classes in a secondary school curriculum. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina at Greensboro.
- Chandler, G. L., & Purkey, W. W. (1986). Invitational physical education. *The Physical Educator*, 43, 123-128.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). Beyond boredom and anxiety. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Larson, R. (1984). Being adolescent: Conflict and growth in the teenage years. New York: Basic Books.
- Duda, J. (1985). Consider the children: Meeting participants' goals in youth sport. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, 56, 55-56.
- Higginson, D. (1985). The influence of socializing agents in the female sport-participation process. *Adolescence*, *XX* (77), 73-82.
- Hines, S., & Groves, D. (1989). Sports competition and its influence on self-esteem development. *Adolescence*, *XXIV*(96), 861-869.
- Kirshnit, C., Ham, B., & Richards, M. (1989). The sporting life: Athletic activities during early adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 18 (6), 601-615.
- Purkey, W. W. (1978) *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning.* Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Purkey, W. W., & Novak, J. M. (1988). *Education: By invitation only*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Riemcke, C. (1988). All must play--The only way for middle school athletics. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, *59*, 82-84.
- Remak, B. (1988). Starting them right: Helping parents prepare young children for sports. *Strategies*, 2 (1), 14-16.
- Spindt, G. B. (1984). Athletics for everyone. Journal of Physical Education,

Recreation and Dance, 55, 46-47.

Turner, R., & Purkey, W. W. (1983). Teaching physical education: An invitational approach. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance*, *54* (7), 13-14, 64.

Gary L. Chandler is associate professor of Health Education and Physical Education at Gardner-Webb University in Boiling Springs, NC. Correspondence about this article should be sent to him at Faculty Box 261, Gardner-Webb University, Boiling Springs, NC 28017.

Private Victories to Enhance Your Self-Esteem: A Principal's Guide to Success

Dale L. Brubaker

University of North Carolina-Greensboro

Lawrence H. Simon

Elon College Elon, NC

The authors propose a few straightforward guidelines which can help enable educators in leadership positions deal with the occupational hazard of too much stress. Use of these guidelines can lead to private victories over stress; the processes of consciously choosing healthy ways to think and act that can enhance self-esteem and fend off burnout. Each guideline is illustrated by an actual vignette from an educational leader who has learned how to avoid some thinking fallacies that could erode their self-esteem and leadership effectiveness.

During the last 20 years, we (the authors) have read the professional autobiographies of approximately 500 principals who wrote their life stories for graduate education classes. One-fifth of these students were also observed in doctoral internship experiences (Brubaker, 1995). The advantages of this kind of qualitative research are twofold: (1) the uniqueness of each person's perceptions are

invited and valued, something that Purkey and Novak (1996, p. 126) cite as "...a hallmark of the inviting family school...", and (2) each person's sense of efficacy is acknowledged, a concept identified as "the self as instrument" in the seminal work, *Helping Relationships*, by Combs, Avila and Purkey (1978, p. 5). The advantages cited above are central to invitational theory and practice (Purkey and Novak, 1996).

After reading our graduate students' life stories and observing them in internship experiences, it is clear that their biggest challenge is to have enough stress to keep them on their toes but not so much (dis)stress that they are overwhelmed. Educators who achieve this balance win private victories that enhance their self-esteem. They take out insurance that wards off burnout.

The common denominator held by those who reach this state is their belief that the way they choose to think and act makes the difference. In particular, they largely rid themselves of dysfunctional thinking. They choose healthy ways to think and act. Consider the attitudes and actions they adopt and what the consequences of these conscious decisions are.

First, educators, who consistently experience private victories in relating to stress, focus more on their strengths or talents than on their weaknesses. This is not to say that they deny their weaknesses. Rather, they have learned that it is psychologically healthier to love their strength than to hate their weakness. Psychiatrist David Viscott, author of the best-selling book, *Emotionally Free* (1992), believes that accepting only our weaknesses is a way to avoid responsibility. Our hidden doubts impair us at the very moment when we need to take a risk in order to reach an important goal.

The following anecdote, as others throughout this article, illustrates a key point we wish to make. Anecdotes are taken from the life stories of principals who wrote them.

An elementary school principal in the Southeast describes how she learned to "feed her strengths and starve her weaknesses." She was invited to give a speech at a local civic club's banquet honoring leaders in the community. Her first impulse was to refuse the invitation: "I have an informal style and this appears to me to be a formal setting that calls for a formal speech using a microphone and standing behind a lectern." She quickly reminded herself that this kind of negative thinking would minimize opportunities for advancement and furthermore could cause her to lose sleep because she had sold herself short. She accepted the invitation and prepared a speech during which she would move directly into the audience of approximately 100 people to share her warmth and personality. On the evening of the banquet she acted out her plan and went through the wall of fear approximately five minutes into the speech. Later that evening she gave herself a "B" grade for her performance knowing full well that the next time she could do even better, once again using her informal style that is an expression of her talents. She achieved a private victory that enhanced her self-esteem and helped her sleep better rather than being visited by fear in the darkness of night.

Second, private victories occur when the educational leader thinks and acts in a way that does not put down others in order to build up self. When stress is viewed as a threat to the leader's existence, one's impulse is to strike out at the person or persons posing a threat. This win-lose way of dealing with a difficult situation may feel good in the short run, but it can come back to haunt in the long run.

A new principal was assigned to a school whose former principal's leadership style could best be described as laissez-faire or hands off.

Older faculty members ran the school and resented the newly hired superintendent and the recently appointed principal. The situation was made more difficult because the new principal was different in gender and ethnic background from her predecessor and the older faculty members. At the first faculty meeting of the year, an outspoken member of the faculty confronted the principal by saying that things were just fine in the school before she came and they didn't want anyone telling them what to do. The new principal paused and said: "You and I have the opportunity for a fine relationship because we have something in common. I don't like to be told what to do either." She said this in a calm but self-assured manner, after which the critic sat down and the faculty meeting moved ahead in a smooth and civil manner. The principal chose not to view this situation as win-lose and instead deflected her antagonist.

Psychiatrist David Burns, author of *Feeling Good* (1981), pointed out that we can reliably disarm a critic by finding some way to agree with him or her. One can either agree in principle with the criticism, or find some element of common ground and agree with that, as did this principal. If neither of these options is intellectually honest, we can, as a last resort, acknowledge that we understand why the person is upset because it rightfully squares with the way he or she views things.

Third, leaders who consistently experience private victories in relating to stress learn from the past, plan for the future, but know that what really matters is the present. By doing so they avoid, or at least minimize, a number of destructive pitfalls. They don't romanticize or idealize the past—a behavior that excludes teachers, parents and children who were not a part of this past. And, they don't fall into the traps of mind reading and fortune telling the future, cognitive fallacies that Burns (1981) called "jumping to conclusions." Our fears often fuel mind reading and fortune telling, thus leading us into negative thinking that can become a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Principals who live in the present take time to laugh and share who they really are with those they lead. They also delight in the joy of children, teachers and other adults associated with school activities. A side benefit is that people tend to feel relaxed in their company, a tremendous source of power for principals as others tend to want to be around them. The opposite of this is the principal who consistently communicates the stance of a critical parent: "I will accept you *in the future* if you do thus and so." A teacher who worked under such a principal describes such a leader: "Teachers in this school are relieved when they come to school and see a vacant parking place where the principal's car is usually parked. We want our principal to attend meetings away from our school."

Principals, who value the present rather than trying to find relief in the past or future, know that time is the most democratic gift we have received. It is the great equalizer, for each of us has twenty-four hours a day. Time can't be bought or sold and wise leaders know that time is an organization's most important non-human resource. Effective leaders know that they cannot directly control how employees use time, but they can give leadership in the creation of settings that influences how employees use time.

Time can only be managed in the present. No one can redo the way time was spent in the past and no one can spend tomorrow's time today. Time management is part of something far more important—*Self-Management!* When we feel good about ourselves, we manage ourselves better, and when we manage our lives better we feel better about ourselves. Self-management and self-esteem, therefore, are necessarily connected in the lives of creative leaders who experience private victories.

Fourth, elementary school principals, who have learned to use and manage stress to their advantage, recognize there is no sure cause and effect relationship between hard work and success, enthusiasm and success, talent and success, or a positive attitude and success. Hard work, enthusiasm, talent and a positive attitude simply do not automatically assure a person that success will follow. To recognize this without becoming cynical is one of the most difficult lessons in life. A principal shares this learning in his life story: "I was taught as a child that you should be rewarded for all of the good things you do. I was also taught that people who do good things will have few problems. It was a shock to me to find out that bad things really do happen to good people and, in fact, many of the good things you do as a principal may upset some of them. Much of the time, good things you do will not even be noticed. How can you be rewarded for things that are taken for granted?"

The fifth and final characteristic of educators, who consistently experience private victories in relating to stress, is in many ways the most important. Curiosity and the desire to learn are at the core of their leadership. They are motivated by memories of awe, wonder and amazement they had as children turned on to the work around them. They have in many respects retained a childlike innocence for new ideas and better ways to do things. They are particularly curious about how their schools run and how they can be changed to run better. It is this curiosity that not only motivates them, but it also tells others in the school that they enjoy their work and those with whom they work. A related benefit is simply that the leader's natural need for personal status, recognition and ego gratification becomes a non-issue when the leader is absorbed in the learning process. There is no need to manipulate others to recognize the principal's "stardom" because the principal values something far more important—ways in which to improve the school for children and adults.

An elementary school principal shared an experience that illustrates this type of leadership based on curiosity and looking for better ways of doing things: "When I first came to this school from out of state, I held every kind of evening PTA program conceivable to get parents involved with their children's learning. The turnout was always disheartening. After doing some research, I found that over 60% of our kids came from homes headed by a single parent—in most cases, a mother who worked outside the home. They were too tired after work to get to PTA. At first this seemed like a problem with no solution. After all, I couldn't change the students' home situation! My school improvement team and I set out to find some creative ways to manage this problem. After some initial polling to gauge interest, we put together a series of late Saturday morning clinics on 'How to Help Your Child Succeed at School.' My teachers and assistants even offered free refreshments and an on-site child care service for those

willing to come out. We've run these clinics for four years now, and have had great success with them. It just proves what unconventional methods and teamwork can accomplish."

In conclusion, our reading of principals' life stories and our time with them in their schools during their internships gives us hope for the future of schools. Most principals are "can-do persons" who, when doing their best, are "scholars on their feet." They not only want to improve their schools, but they also recognize that in order to do so they must avoid the thinking fallacies that will erode their self-esteem and leadership effectiveness.

References

- Brubaker, D. (1995, November). How the principalship has changed: Lessons from principals' life stories. *NASSP Bulletin*, 79 (574), 88-95.
- Burns, D. (1981). Feeling good. New York: William Morrow.
- Combs, A., Avila, D., & Purkey, W. (1978). *Helping relationships*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon
- Purkey, W., & Novak, J. (1996). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching, learning and democratic practice* (3rd ed.) Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. Viscott, D. (1992). *Emotionally free*. Chicago: Contemporary Books.

Dale L. Brubaker is professor of educational leadership at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro and Lawrence H. Simon is a professor of education at Elon College. They are co-authors of Teacher as Decision Maker: Real-Life Cases to Hone Your People Skills. Inquiries about this article should be mailed to the first author at the School of Education, UNC-Greensboro, Greensboro, NC 27412.

Inviting Success in the Elementary Classroom: The First Steps from Theory to Practice

Margaret J. Maaka

University of Hawaii at Manoa

Pamela A. Lipka

Benjamin Parker Elementary School Kaneohe, Hawaii

The notion of a community of learners where all participants are treated as valuable, able, and responsible was investigated. This article reports on the findings of the first year of a two-year study that examined a range of practices designed to promote an inviting learning-centered classroom community, tailored to cater more effectively to the diverse needs of all participants. The findings are congruent with the tenet that the core of an effective school program is knowledgeable teachers who have the expertise and inclination to encourage all children to reach their potentials.

The call for better education in our schools now seems almost universal in the United States. ... The central element of quality education is, of course, the teacher. Knowledgeable teachers are the core of an effective school program. (Stevenson, 1987, v).

The easiest part of becoming an inviting teacher is embracing the theoretical foundation of invitational education; the challenging part is putting that theory into practice. While there are excellent resources outlining various ways to invite school success (see Purkey & Novak, 1984; Purkey & Stanley, 1991), many teachers remain overwhelmed by the prospect of significantly restructuring their curriculums. "How do I start?"; "Where do I start?"; "What are the important questions I need to ask about my practices?"; "How can I encourage the realization of the potential of all my students?" are familiar pleas.

In recent years, there have been calls to move away from transmission models of learning and teaching, which emphasize the learner's passive receipt of knowledge, to models which emphasize the learner's active construction of an understanding of the world (see Au, 1993). Invitational education is a collaborative approach to learning and teaching where all participants are treated as valuable, able, and responsible. Most importantly, it is founded on the premise that "potential can be best realized by places, policies, and programs that are intentionally designed to invite development, and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally" (Purkey & Novak, 1984, p. 2).

Routman (1991) underscored the importance of developing a happy, nurturing community where successful learning and teaching experiences are shared by the teacher and students. The establishment of such an environment is contingent upon components such as the active involvement of all students, regardless of ability levels; collaboration instead of competition, including the teaming of teachers, students, and parents; a variety of instructional methods designed to cater to all learning needs; the acquisition of knowledge that is of interest and pertains to the lives of students; and the treatment of

students as self-motivated and invested learners (see also Maaka, 1994; Purkey & Stanley, 1991; Short & Burke, 1991).

This article describes the preliminary, collaborative efforts of a Hawaii elementary school teacher and an educational consultant with the state university to invite school success by developing a learning-centered curriculum, tailored to cater more effectively to the diverse needs and interests of all participants. For the purposes of this ongoing study, curriculum is broadly defined as the total school-related experience including subject matter, social interactions, administrative policies and procedures, teaching strategies, classroom environment and management, assessment methods, and parental involvement. It is believed that this encompassing view of curriculum enables a consideration of the overall coherence and effectiveness of the classroom program (see also Short & Burke, 1991). Some findings from the first year of program implementation are presented.

Method

The school is located in a densely populated area of the City and County of Honolulu, Hawaii and is attended by approximately 600 children from a broad range of socio-economic backgrounds, although most are from lower/middle income families. The ethnic composition of the student body is very diverse, with the majority of students being a mix of Polynesian, Caucasian, and Asian. A large percentage of the students have "Pidgin" or Hawaii Creole English as their first language and often struggle with the standard English requirements of the formal schooling system. Parents are invited to become involved in the school program, however, many have been resistant, possibly because as students they did not find the education system a positive experience.

Participants

The teacher is a ten-year veteran with teaching experiences across the elementary school grade levels. Here is a sixth grade, full-inclusion class of twenty-seven students (14 boys and 13 girls, mean age = 11.6 years).

Design

Work on this long-term study formally began during the fall of 1994 in response to growing concerns that traditional transmission models of instruction, which adopt a prescriptive "one-size-fits-all" approach to education, were ineffective for the children at this school. During the summer months preceding the school year, the teacher and consultant conducted weekly meetings in the Hawaii style of "talk story" (an important speech event that involves the joint production of rambling, often humorous narratives about personal experiences) in order to establish a starting point (see Au, 1993). By drawing on their educational experiences and beliefs, they began to redefine the curriculum in terms of a learning-centered community. As such, it was agreed, for the first year to develop practices that would invite co-ownership of the classroom program, in anticipation that this would promote each child's feelings of positive self-worth and shared responsibility for success in learning.

Data were gathered and read by the teacher and the consultant in order to identify salient patterns and themes within the classroom community. The teacher kept a journal that included classroom observations and reflections on her teaching and these were discussed at each meeting. During the meetings, notes were taken regarding student participation, performance, attitudes, and concerns;

organizational decisions; curricular plans; teacher interests and concerns; and other related matters. In addition, data were collected through classroom observations, student surveys, and student interviews.

The following teacher's narrative describes some of the practices that were implemented during the first weeks of the school year and maintained throughout.

Procedure: A Teacher's Account

When I first read Purkey and Novak's (1984) commentary on the importance of keeping "connected" with children by taking personal interests in them and respecting individuality, maintaining realistic expectations, and encouraging responsible participation, I became greatly motivated to refocus my curriculum. I decided that this would be the foundation for the first year of this field-based research.

Getting Off To A Fast Start

I began the first day of school by gathering the children under a large banyan tree outside the classroom and greeting them with high enthusiasm and an invitation to talk story (Teacher—My name is Pam Lipka. This is going to be a great year and we will be learning lots of wonderful things together!). I continued by telling the children about myself and inviting them to ask questions. Not surprisingly, the old favorites arose; Was I married? Did I have any children? How old was I? What did I like to eat the most?.

As the children became more relaxed, I began asking them questions about themselves and encouraging them to talk to each other.

Throughout our conversations, I used collective references such as "we," "our," and "us" to help emphasize that learning and teaching would be collaborative activities. I watched as they enthusiastically broke into small groups and started to make connections—slowly interests such as surfing, roller-blading, martial arts, and hula began to pull them together. The seed for establishing a community of learners had been sown!

Building Momentum

After these initial introductions, I began the first phase of negotiating co-ownership of the curriculum by outlining my general expectations for the coming year. I told the children that I wanted all of us to do our best and feel proud of our efforts; to talk about working as a team to set and achieve our goals; to share the things we learn with our classmates, parents, and others; and most important of all, to be EXCITED about learning and have FUN!!! Although it was obvious that many of the children found this an "unusual" way to begin the year, I continued to emphasize the notion of interdependence or common purpose by asking the children to discuss their own expectations. It was not long before they had their own list of general expectations—they said they wanted to feel safe enough to take risks, make mistakes, and work hard to fix them; to be able to talk about problems as they arose; and to be kind and helpful to each other. Our community of learners, based on a solid foundation of trust and support was beginning to emerge.

Claiming Ownership

After setting the preliminary ground work, we reconvened in the classroom, where we were confronted by stacked furniture and bare walls and bulletin boards. With the entire class participating, I re-em-

phasized the notion of responsible co-ownership and asked the children to arrange the room (Teacher—Why is it important that we all have a say in organizing our room? How can we best set up our room so that we can all be responsible learners?). In response, the children set about asking questions and brainstorming their ideas on classroom organization (Children—What are some of the things we need to consider as we set up? Where will we place the different learning centers? Large group meeting place? Classroom library? Teacher's area? Where will we need to sit to be able to do our best work? Should we be allowed to sit with our friends?). Finally, in response to my subtle direction, a spokesperson was elected to draw a floor plan on the chalkboard that represented the input of all the children. After careful deliberation, the children enthusiastically began to establish the classroom space.

The next day focused on the second phase of negotiations—developing and institutionalizing the classroom guidelines. I considered it imperative to address this early in the school year in order to reinforce each child's sense of being an important contributor to the group and of needing the group. I began the session by asking the children to examine the notion of self-governance (Teacher—How should we behave in our classroom if we want to establish a community of successful learners? What consequences shall we have if our rules are broken? What rewards shall we have for good citizenship? Can we change the rules if they prove ineffective?).

After two days of intense discussion we developed a detailed list of appropriate behaviors and rewards, and consequences for inappropriate behaviors. The responses were recorded on a chart and this was hung in the classroom where all the children could see it. As I read the list, I was pleased to note that the children had included several dimensions to the classroom guidelines. For example:

- We will be responsible for ourselves.
- We will avoid "crushers" or nasty comments/actions.
- We will tell others about our good achievements.
- We will go on educational field trips as a reward.
- We will spend quiet time reflecting on our inappropriate actions.

The children also decided that: (a) Outdated rules would be reexamined and modified as needed; (b) they would self-monitor and monitor each other's behaviors, rather than appoint classroom monitors; and (c) initially, I should remind them of the classroom rules when necessary, model appropriate conduct, and give them time to practice expected behaviors. Because the latter suggestion was in keeping with my belief that effective classroom management is dependent upon the teacher as a positive role model, I accepted the responsibility.

Daily meetings as a class group also helped reinforce a sense of camaraderie and community pride. These were times for greetings, news and announcements, clarification of classroom guidelines, discussion of problems and concerns, recognition of successes, and the like. Interestingly, it was during one of these sessions that the children decided to create a rotating list of official "greeters" who would be responsible for welcoming and entertaining visitors to our classroom.

Maintaining the Momentum

Establishing a physical and social framework for a community of learners was only the beginning. I spent the remainder of the year experimenting with ways to invite success in our classroom. These included:

- Examining and monitoring my relationship with each child to ensure that I accepted individuality and promoted high self-esteem. This included an attempt to have some form of positive, supportive interaction with each child, every day.
- Developing a non-competitive, collaborative learning environment that involved the co-planning of integrated, literature-based, thematic units of study, including the choice of books, activities, assessment methods, field trips, and displays.
- Fostering independent learning by encouraging the children to take risks and seek their own answers to problems, rather than rely on me for easily accessible information. It did not take the children long to learn that helpful resources included computers, peers, parents, books, the television, and me (only when all avenues were exhausted!).
- Developing methods of assessment that supported, rather than dictated my curriculum. By expecting success in every endeavor, rather than failure, I was more able to build on strengths and address areas for concern. The successful implementation of portfolios allowed us to monitor the processes of learning as well as the products—for each child, I was able to negotiate realistic expectations, offer immediate feedback, and encourage input.
- Enthusiastically exploring the world of knowledge with the children and having fun doing so. This was an essential part of maintaining high levels of motivation as the children moved from one unit of study to the next.

Preliminary Findings

The data gathered to date indicate that the curriculum, which is anchored in the assumption that all children are valuable, able, and responsible, positively impacts the learning experiences of children in this elementary classroom.

It was clear that the teacher's highly enthusiastic first-day welcome and personal talk-story session set a very secure tone for the rest of the year (Amanda—You talked about yourself and no teacher has done that. I liked it when you had lunch with me too. Crystal—From that time on, I felt good around you. You made me feel comfortable.). However, the initial "handing over of power" to the children by asking them to organize the classroom environment and rules and regulations was more challenging in practice than in theory, especially in a system that recognizes the teacher as the ultimate authority (Teacher—I had to restrain myself from saying, "No! The two of you can't sit together, you'll talk too much."). Similarly, some of the children appeared uncomfortable when given such freedom of choice (Mehana—On the first day of school, I thought you were weird because the room was not fixed and the desks were not in order. Andrew—You mean we get to decide where we are going to sit? Michael—and we can move the desks, right?).

It was not too surprising that during the first couple of weeks, several children embraced the notion of "freedom to be irresponsible" rather than freedom to work together to form a community of learners, as was evidenced by the number of seating changes due to inappropriate, off-task behaviors! And it was also a time when the teacher began to question the wisdom of inviting co-ownership of the classroom! However, as the weeks progressed, it became evident that the children were viewing curriculum co-ownership as something that should be valued and approached with great respect and responsibility (Alan—This is neat, We never had to decide how to fix a bulletin board for

something we thought of. Jordan—How are we going to fix the room up this time?).

The system of classroom governance proved especially effective and it was interesting to note that, in general, the children adhered to the guidelines throughout the year. An emphasis on personal satisfaction as well as extrinsic rewards such as free assignment choices, field trips, and verbal praise helped maintain a high level of investment and motivation throughout the year (Teacher—I work hard at mentioning the children's names in positive contexts as often as possible. Carl—You expected a lot from me, but I felt good about doing things. This is the best class.). It is of particular interest that along with this willingness to self-monitor behavior, there was a lower incidence of disruptive behavior and absenteeism (in comparison with classes of previous years).

Although the classroom program was governed by the broader school curriculum, it was important that the teacher provided a plethora of exciting and challenging choices for the children. As they grew confident in their decision-making abilities, the children readily accepted the joint responsibility for planning a curriculum that included a variety of interests and a combination of teaching approaches (Teacher—The children soon learned the importance of reading and writing activities and that the learning in the classroom should relate to their lives. Teacher—My children created a scene from the novel "Terabithia" within our room. We had vines hanging from the ceiling and walls and a tree encasing the doorway. The children loved it!). Within this learning-centered environment the teacher observed greater investment and motivation to participate in the classroom program (Mehana—Ms. Lipka, you forgot to do reading response. Farris—If we go to the computer lab, we can use Kid Pix for

our "Terabithia" report.), as well as improvements in the standards of work, including requests for more time to read and write (Alan—I know I can read this part. Jesse—Can I go to the library to look for more books on Bosnia? B.J.—We'll have to do some more research on this topic. I think I'll write a story after.).

Cooperative work proved to be an enjoyable and effective way to learn, especially in that it promoted fluency in reading and writing and encouraged children to share their ideas (Amanda—When we work together with other kids, it makes learning fun. Plus we can learn from them too. Cherie—Ms. Lipka, we read with Ami and now she can understand the story.). Teacher demonstrations of good learning habits by reading and writing with the children also proved effective, as did collaborative journal writing which allowed the children sufficient time to write and later, share their ideas (Ricky—I like being able to work how I like.). Probably one of the most important aspects of the cooperative approach was the encouragement of parental input (Teacher—I mail a postcard which simply states, "Ricky did a super job on his research". The parents and children love this! Nadine—Can I take this and show it to my dad and mom?). As a result, this year's parent/teacher meeting was attended by over 80% of the parents.

Assessment practices focused on both the processes and products of learning. Portfolio assessment was particularly successful in encouraging children to set challenging standards and self-monitor their progress. Combined with this, ongoing conferences with the teacher allowed the children to make decisions regarding the standard of work that would be achieved and problems that needed to be addressed (Teacher— The children and I work together to set learning goals, do mini-lessons on skill areas, edit papers, evaluate writings, or discuss issues that are on the children's minds.).

Although the teacher had significant success in promoting most of the children's feelings of positive self-worth (Jennifer—I knew I could do something wrong with my work and you or the kids would help me....., not laugh), this was more difficult than anticipated especially for a small group of children who had a history of failure within the school system. Attempts to break the cycle of low self-esteem and associated poor school performance at this age level became a daily challenge, often with varying degrees of success. As such, the results of this study lend strong support to the proposal that this type of esteem-enhancing curriculum should prevail at the beginning levels of the formal education system.

However, despite areas for concern, at the first year mark, the data indicate rewards for all those involved. The teacher and consultant came away from their meetings energized, but most importantly the children talked frequently of feeling capable of achieving success and of school as a 'fun' place to be (Ian—School is fun. We like it here because the things we do we are interested in. We don't do basal stories. The work is interesting, we get involved.).

Concluding Comments

For the teacher, the true value of this project, lies not so much in the pursuit of an end goal, but rather, in an empowerment to change or to maintain practices as deemed appropriate. The second year of this project will continue to focus on the development and fine-tuning of practices that invite all children to succeed in the education system. Data relating to specific learning-related behaviors including self-esteem (Culture-Free Self-Esteem Inventory), locus of control (Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale) and literacy attitude and habits (student Literacy Survey) will also be collected.

References

- Au, K. H. (1993). *Literacy instruction in multicultural settings*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich.
- Maaka, M. J. (1994). Assessment for learning: Trends in New Zealand. *The Kamehameha Journal of Education*, 5, 205-214.
- Purkey, W. W., & Novak, J. M. (1984). *Inviting school success: A self-concept approach to teaching and learning* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Purkey, W. W., & Stanley, P. H. (1991). *Invitational teaching, learning, and living*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Routman, R. (1991). *Invitations: Changing as teachers and learners, K-12*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Short, K. G., & Burke, C. (1991). *Creating curriculum: Teachers and students as a community of learners*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Stevenson, R. J. (1987). Foreword. In D. R. Cruickshank, *Reflective teaching: The preparation of students of teaching*. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators.

Margaret J. Maaka is an assistant professor in the Department of Teacher Education and Curriculum Studies in the College of Education at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. Pamela A. Lipka is an elementary teacher with the State of Hawaii Department of Education. Correspondence should be sent to the first author at the College of Education University of Hawaii at Manoa, 1776 University Avenue, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822, The authors thank the principal, Naomi Matsuzaki, and children of Benjamin Parker Elementary School, where this study is taking place.

Identification Badges: An Invitational Approach to School Safety

Michelle C. Hart

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

As violence within our schools continues to increase, educators are in need of innovative methods for school safety. The following article examines the use of identification badges as an invitational approach to creating schools without fear. Three high schools were contacted which use identification badges for students, teachers, administration, staff, and visitors. The use of these badges was reported to be an effective and inviting measure within each of the three schools.

More than ever, educators are concerned with violence in our schools and the safety of our students. Statistics justify these concerns as well as reveal a nation that is in great need of new and effective safety procedures for its schools. White (1994) reported that of the 729 school districts responding to a National School Board Association Survey, 82 percent said that violence in their schools has increased over the past 5 years. In response to this increase, schools are installing metal detectors, video cameras, and security fences, as well as hiring security guards. It is hoped that such measures will produce safer schools. However, these procedures send negative messages to students, creating an atmosphere that resembles that of a prison rather than a school.

Juhnke and Purkey (1995) reported not only do these methods present significant financial burden and decrease time for educational instruction, but also contribute to a decline in student and teacher morale. Furthermore, such safety measures create implied criminal expectations of students. Rosenthal and Jacobson's study (1966) concluded that teacher expectations lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy. Students begin to perceive themselves as they are treated and behave accordingly.

It is apparent that educators need to focus on more positive means of school safety. Such solutions should insure the security of all students, as well as create an environment where students feel they are invited to learn and grow. The purpose of this article is to examine the current use of identification badges and determine their effectiveness within the school.

Background

Juhnke and Purkey (1995) used Invitational Education as a framework for developing a safety program which promotes a more positive atmosphere within the school, one which is conducive to learning. The five propositions of the invitational theory are as follows:

- 1. People are able, valuable, responsible, and, they should be treated accordingly.
- 2. Education should be a cooperative activity.
- 3. Process is as important as product.
- 4. People possess untapped potential in all areas of worthwhile human endeavor.
- 5. Potential can best be realized by places, policies, processes and programs specifically designed to invite development, and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally.

The authors offer several suggestions for school safety which are representative of this invitational approach. One of these suggestions includes the use of permanent identification badges (preferably plastic or metal) for identifying those individuals who belong on campus and those who do not. The authors believe that such measures invite students to see themselves as able, valuable, and responsible and encourages them to behave accordingly.

Roberts (1992) stated that identification badges are a cheaper, less-intrusive way to improve school security that is nonetheless highly effective. Roberts' study of a school system in Tulsa County, Oklahoma reveals that badges, which are currently worn by teachers and staff, offer an added sense of security, a sense of pride and camaraderie, and a boost to public relations. Trotter (1992) added a citation within Roberts' article which examines the use of identification badges by students as well. Large cities, such as Dallas, Texas, are depending more on student identification badges as a means for identifying school intruders: intruders whose intent could range from vandalism to murder.

Jim Scisres, School Safety Coordinator in Guilford County, North Carolina, agrees that each individual who enters the building should wear an identification badge. Scisres reports there was an increase of incidents where students from other schools, or students who had been suspended or expelled, were trespassing on campus grounds. In many cases, these students are doing so with intent to harm another student or faculty member. Scisres states, By issuing identification badges, such situations could be avoided. (personal communication, November, 1994)

To further investigate this method, the following sections present information gathered from telephone surveys with three high schools which currently use permanent identification badges for school safety.

Methodology

Telephone surveys were conducted with three high schools: Emerald High School in Greenwood, South Carolina; Samuell High School and Skyline High School located in Dallas, Texas. Emerald High School enrolls 740 students, Samuell High School enrolls 1,300, and Skyline High School, which includes the school system s career center, enrolls 4,000 students.

Survey questions included the following:

- 1. How long have you used the badges?
- 2. What are the advantages of this method?
- 3. What are the disadvantages?
- 4. What information is found on each identification badge?
- 6. Are you currently considering any future plans?

The surveys were conducted after school with either the principal or the individual responsible for making and administering the identification badges. Table 1 contains the results of the information gathered in each survey.

Results

Emerald High School

Chuck Graves, principal at Emerald High School, reported that identification badges are used for every individual who enters the building. This includes students, teachers, staff, visitors, and substitute teachers. Graves states that identification badges not only create a secure atmosphere within he school, but also create a sense of family. The school has used the badges for a year and will continue using them.

Each badge has the name of the individual who is wearing it, a picture of that person, and the name of the school. The badges are inexpensive to make and can be made at school.

Graves reported that the school has found several other uses for the badges. For example, each student identification badge contains a bar code which is used to buy lunch, check-out books, and is even used to award prizes as an incentive for wearing the badges. Emerald High School is located at: 150 By-Pass 225, Greenwood, South Carolina, 29646.

Table 1 School Responses to Use of Identification Badges

	Emerald High S	amuell High	Skyline High
1. Length of time badges in use.	1 year	4 years	7 years
2. Advantages student	Secure atmosphere, sense of family, found other uses (bar code used for buying lunch, checking-out books)	Students feel more secure, teachers can easily identify grade levels by color of badge lunch period	Identify intruders, collaborate, found other uses (color of badge indicates if is in the right
3. Disadvantages	None reported students to remember	Difficult getting	Students lose badges
4. Information found on badges	Names, picture, school's name, bar code	Picture, signature color coded by grades	Name, picture, school name, color coded by lunch periods
5. Those required to wear badges	Students, teachers staff, visitors, and substitute teachers	Anyone who enters the building	Students, teachers, administration, staff, visitors, and substitute teachers
6. Future plans computer	Will continue to use	None reported	Would like to purchase

system to make badges faster

Samuell High School

Dwain Dawson is responsible for making and administering identification badges at Samuell High School. Dwain reported that the school has used the badge system for four years and has been extremely satisfied with the results. Everyone who enters the building is required to wear an identification badge. This method helps students and teachers know who belongs on campus and who does not. Furthermore, students report that they feel more secure with the badge system because they are able to identify outsiders who may be of potential harm.

The school uses a Polaroid camera which is designed for making the badges. A picture is taken and attached to the badge. After the badge is signed by the owner, it is laminated and a clip is attached. Student identification badges are color-coded according to grade level.

Dawson reported that, in the past, students have had difficulty remembering to wear their badges. Dawson, in response, developed an alternative placement classroom for students who have forgotten their badges. The students are required to remain in this classroom for the entire day and complete any assigned work. Dawson stated that this method has helped decrease the number of badges left at home. Samuell High School is located at: 8928 Palisade Drive, Dallas, Texas, 75217.

Skyline High School

Skyline High School contains 4,000 students and each students is issued an identification badge. Furthermore, teachers, administration, staff, substitute teachers, and visitors are all required to obtain and wear a badge. Nelda Curry, presently employed at Skyline, stated that the badges make it easy to identify those individuals who do or do not belong on campus.

Each badge contains the owner's name, a picture of that person, and the name of the school. They are color-coded according to lunch periods. This helps teachers and staff recognize those students who are in the wrong lunch period. Curry reported that although there have been difficulties with students losing the badges, the school is satisfied with this method and believes the effort is worth it.

When asked about any future plans, Curry reported that the school would like to purchase a computer system designed to make the badges at a much faster rate. However, the funds are not currently available to do so. Skyline is located at: 7777 Forney Road, Dallas, Texas, 75227.

Discussion

After examining the literature written thus far concerning identification badges, and the results of the surveys conducted with three high schools which currently use them, the following themes were found:

- 1. Identification badges help to create a safe atmosphere within the school. Individuals trespassing on the school grounds can quickly and easily be identified. Knowing this, students, teachers, and staff members feel a sense of security while at school.
- 2. Identification badges are inviting and create positive expectations of students. Although methods such as metal

- detectors, security guards, and video cameras sometimes work, they create negative expectations of students. Eventually, students may begin to perceive themselves more as criminals than students, and behave accordingly. Schools must strive to use inviting methods for school security, such as identification badges. These methods convey the message that students are able, valuable, and responsible.
- 3. Identification badges are inexpensive in comparison with other methods. For example, a metal detector an cost up to \$4,000.00 and may require as many as three or four security guards to operate (Wilson & Zirkel, 1994). This is a large amount to pay considering that an identification badge costs a few dollars to produce, and even in large schools would be a fraction of the cost to purchase and operate a detector.
- 4. Identification badges help decrease discipline problems within the school. For example, Dwain Dawson, from Samuell High School, states students are less likely to start a fight knowing they can be easily and accurately identified.
- 5. Identification badges create a sense of family and school spirit. When an athletic team is formed, each player receives a number. Identification badges can be used as a way of creating a team atmosphere within the school. Schools may even decide to use school colors to promote this spirit.
- 6. Identification badges make it possible to address other students and teachers personally. Consider a school of about 800 students, such as Emerald High School. It would be impossible for school professionals to remember each student s name, and it is unlikely that students will learn those of teachers and staff. However, by wearing identification badges, each student and teacher, even within a large school can be addressed personally and made to feel welcomed.
- 7. Identification badges have several useful purposes. Badges may be used to check out books, to buy lunch, or can even be used to

award prizes throughout the year. Furthermore, schools may wish to color code their badges in order to recognize different groups. For example, to recognize students who are in a certain lunch period, or to recognize students in different grade levels.

Identification badges alone are not going to solve our schools problems with violence. However, according to schools where badges are currently in use, it is a step in the right direction. Such methods create inviting schools where students feel they are able, valuable, and responsible.

References

- Juhnke, G., & Purkey, W. (1995). An invitational approach to preventing violence in schools. *Counseling Today*, *37*(8), 50-55.
- Roberts, K. L. (1992). Facing security concerns. *American School Board Journal*, 179, 40-41.
- Rosenthal R., & Jacobson, L. (1966). Teachers expectancies: Determinants of pupils IQ gains. *Psychological Reports*, 19 (1), 115-118.
- Trotter, A. (1992). ID badges for students, too. *The American School Board Journal*, 179, 40-41.
- White, L. E. (1994). *Violence in Schools: An overview* (Report No. CRS-94-141-EPW). Washington, D.C.: Congressional Research Service. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 369 159)
- Wilson, J. M., & Zirkel, P. A. (1994). When guns come to school. *The American School Board Journal*, 181, 32-34.

Michelle C. Hart is a graduate student in the Department of Counseling and Educational Development at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Inquiries may be sent to UNC-Greensboro, School of Education, Greensboro, NC 27412.