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HIGHER EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION: A CURRICULUM ANALYSIS

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HIGHER EDUCATION AS A PROFESSION:
A CURRICULUM ANALYSIS

by
Judy Diane Grace

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF HIGHER EDUCATION
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
In the Graduate College
THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

1984

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GRADUATE COLLEGE

As members of the Final Examination Committee, we certify that we have read
the dissertation prepared by Judy Diane Grace
entitled Higher Education as a Profession: A Curriculum Analysis

and recommend that it be accepted as fulfilling the dissertation requirement
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

I hereby certify that I have read this dissertation prepared under my
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SIGNED: Judy Davis Gran
DEDICATION

To Clif Conrad without whom this project would not have started or ended.

"Ambulando discimus."

--Abraham Flexner, Medical Education: A Comparative Study
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ABSTRACT

This study explored the nature and definition of a profession for the purpose of determining measurable criteria upon which the degree of professionalization of an occupation can be measured. Two criteria were persistent in the literature: the possession of unique skills and knowledge and an overriding service orientation. The occupation of Higher Education was then judged with these criteria.

The service orientation was well-acknowledged in the literature as an occupational activity of Higher Education. In order to determine if Higher Education possesses unique knowledge and skills, a curriculum analysis was undertaken by using student transcripts, program handbooks, and university catalogs.

The results of this study include confirmation of the existence of a core of courses which may be thought to define the unique skills and knowledge of Higher Education. The content of this core was compared with results of other studies (Dressel and Mayhew, 1974, Basil, 1980).

The last phase of this study compared Higher Education curricular characteristics to those of other occupations, including the mature professions, for the purpose of describing the status of the professionalization of Higher Education. The findings of this study describe Higher Education as being more professionalized in terms of characteristics of the curriculum than the emerging professions of business and library science but less so than law.
and medicine. Additionally, there is evidence that over the ten-year time frame of the study, Higher Education has become more professionalized in terms of the maturity of its professions education.
"In our society, among the more desired and admired statuses is to be a member of a profession" (Becker 1961, p. 4). Many students entering college as undergraduates and most continuing on as graduate students regard themselves as being in the process of becoming professionals. In the same vein, members of various occupational groups, having been engaged in an activity for numerous years or having undergone extensive training for that activity, also perceive themselves as having attained the status of professional. Yet, professionalism is built on more than self-designation. The status and rewards of being a professional are so attractive in our society that almost all occupations would like to make claim to professional status (Anderson 1974). It is this very ambition that underlies the development of a profession.

The concept of profession is as ancient as our recorded history. The idea of specialization, and of some occupations and activities being more highly regarded than others, dates at least as far back as the Greeks and Romans. While medicine had become a unique activity with selective schools, like Hippocrates' School of Medical Research at Cos, the law was still the responsibility of every citizen of the State and Empire. The clergy existed as a specialty, shrouded in mystery and aloofness, but professional
clergy were inducted into the profession through an apprenticeship rather than through an educational process. The military also combined apprenticeship with civic responsibilities in preparing men for entry into the profession. It was the institutionalization of general education, and finally the establishment of the universities, that brought sequence and theory to preparation for the professions and established formal education as the typical route for entrance into a profession.

The institutionalization of education brought bureaucracy to preparation for a profession. Entrance into a profession was controlled by entrance into the university. Progression toward the degree was controlled by faculty judgments as to the student's attainment of the knowledge and skills passed on to him by the faculty through lectures and demonstrations. Accomplishment of the curriculum was marked by extensive examinations wherein the students reiterated to the faculty the information from the lectures and also demonstrated the ability to use the facts of the curriculum to some useful end. Once a student was licensed by the faculty, he could begin his profession albeit at an apprentice or intern level (Haskins 1957).

During the Middle Ages and into the Renaissance, this entry into the professional world was reexamined and the curriculum scrutinized for appropriateness. The content of professions education became the interest of scholars and practitioners. For example, during the Renaissance the Jesuits were deeply concerned about the preparation of teachers. Their *Ratio Studiorum* prescribed
alternating theory and practice, periods of memorizing knowledge alternating with periods of observation of the application of the skills of teaching under the supervision of a master teacher (Brubacher 1962).

In Colonial America, professions education was conducted through apprenticeships. This apprenticeship not only included observation of the skills of the master, lawyer, or doctor. Apprentices received theoretical training by reading the professional books of the men to whom they were apprenticed (Brubacher 1962). The system was accused of being lacking in intellectual content but served many of the immediate needs of the colonists for practitioners.

Mindful of the need for higher standards, many early nineteenth century practitioners established schools of apprenticeships. These schools allowed greater numbers of students to be served, thus keeping up with demands of the growing population increasingly skeptical of European training. Nevertheless, standards remained low. Various reform efforts, calling for increased quality and standardization, moved from East to West. After the Civil War, concerted effort to instill in professions education the intellectual content long distinguishing European education (Brubacher 1962) gave rise to modern standards.

Over the past fifty years the concept of professions education has been the object of considerable speculation. Some of this interest arose from the fallout of an increasingly technological society; much of the interest came from within occupational groups, from members who sought to establish themselves as unique contributors
to society. Occupations became increasingly interested in professionalization and in professional preparation.

Since World War II, interest by occupational members in professionalization has dovetailed with dramatic occurrences that have affected American higher education. Externally, changes such as enrollment fluctuations and, more recently, changing funding patterns have altered the position of higher education as an institution within our society. Internally, equally important changes have been taking place, bringing new responsibilities and rights to higher education and to professionals concerned with it. Of conspicuous attention are the widely discussed issues of quality and student consumerism. A less explored change has been the development and expansion of graduate programs for the study of higher education, programs designed to prepare college and university administrators and researchers who can guide institutions of higher education through an era of skepticism and dwindling fiscal resources.

The growth of higher education has not been in any sense orderly. It is not surprising, therefore, that the study of the enterprise did not arise in any particularly ordered fashion. In fact, the development and expansion of programs in Higher Education have been merely keeping up with the demand (Budig 1984). Growth and the heterogeneous nature of higher education and its problems had created a void in leadership and administration (Henderson 1960). The profession of a higher educationist is an outgrowth of this void, an attempt by an occupation to establish unique expertise in an area not fully served by other professionals.
Background

Higher Education is evolving into a profession in response to a need. The challenge of managing institutions of higher education has not been sufficiently met by part-time activity. As a result, the study of higher education has developed into a scholarly activity conducted not by researchers in associated fields such as sociology but by its own specialists. There has been increasing recognition that managing institutions of higher education requires more than receipt of a doctorate. Higher educationists have undertaken the study and practice of higher education as a full-time activity (Wilensky 1964). Training in the field was established and early institutionalized even though an apprenticeship-type training was emphasized until recently. Most researchers cite 1893 as the date of the offering of the first instructional course devoted to the unique study of higher education. From 1893 to 1910, G. Stanley Hall, President of Clark University, taught a comprehensive survey of the American educational system (Cowley 1954). After the turn of the century, other instructional courses were offered at other institutions—by James at Minnesota, Buchner at Johns Hopkins, and Koos at Chicago (Ewing 1964). An upsurge of interest in the study of higher education occurred in reaction to the expansion of higher education after the first World War and even more dramatically after World War II.

Since early in the century, Higher Educationists have used professional associations to strengthen the scholarship and status of their occupational activities. Professional associations were
formed to protect members and to assist in the clarification of the standards and objectives of the profession's work. Part of the professionals' work, both independently and through the associations, was the examination of the process used to establish membership in the profession. Like other emerging professions, Higher Education began to examine the education of its profession. For the early decades of the 1900s, the American Association of University Professors gathered data on higher education and conducted research on the problems of the emerging profession of managing institutions and of studying the changing nature of higher education. The National Education Association's special interest in higher education was expressed by the creation of a department devoted solely to this level. This division separated from NEA in 1969 and is still known by its original nomenclature of American Association for Higher Education. Research and policy in higher education also have been concerns of the Association of Professors of Higher Education, now the Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Like other emerging professionals, Higher Educationists currently face a variety of problems associated with the establishment of their disciplinary "turf." For instance, emerging professionals confront special problems germane to the development of the curriculum of their would-be discipline. Higher Education, like many emerging fields of inquiry, is frequently described as being interdisciplinary, taking theory and its knowledge base from various disciplinary areas and using a variety of methodologies. It is through the encouragement of scholarship and research by the national associations
and the continued refinement of instructional courses in higher education institutions that the establishment of the perimeters of Higher Education are to be accomplished.

Several definitive studies have been undertaken in search of the parameters of the professionalism of occupations as they move from that of a field of inquiry and interest toward the status of a profession. For Higher Education, the most comprehensive touchstone on the issue is Dressel and Mayhew's *Higher Education as a Field of Study: Emergence of a Profession* (1974). Among the issues dealt with in this study are certain components of the field as measured against the generally agreed upon criteria of a professions education, such as the possession of a generally accepted, unique body of knowledge as reflected in the curriculum and consistently applied techniques for replication and revalidation of research and scholarship. According to Dressel and Mayhew, Higher Education has adopted many of the trappings of a discipline profession: scholarly associations, journals, restricted membership. However, because Higher Education lacks clear interrelations among the sequencing of experiences in the educational process, Dressel and Mayhew did not classify Higher Education as a discipline even though they argued for its emergence as one.

The defense offered for the absence of clearly defined disciplinary parameters is often given as Higher Education's youth, its newly emerging status. It is true that as a field of study Higher Education did not become nationally visible until the growth period of the late 1940s. Another surge of introspection in the
early 1960s accompanied the enrollment rise. Studies to date have yet to present conclusive evidence on the status of Higher Education as a discipline or as a profession. However, it is generally agreed that Higher Education Administration is moving toward becoming a profession. It is the intent of this study to examine that movement by looking at the development of the curriculum as an indicator of the professionalization of the field.

The Curriculum

For years education theorists have maintained that the outstanding purpose of instruction in institutions of higher education was to convey certain knowledge and skills to students so that they would have the information and competencies necessary to contribute to society in their chosen area of expertise. More recently, scholars have generally acknowledged the existence and importance of the so-called co-curriculum, those developmental or socialization experiences of the educational process that contribute to the successful production of a college graduate or of a graduate student (Becker 1961, Chickering 1974, Astin 1982). In fact, broadly defined, curriculum is the total of the education experience (Conrad 1978). Nonetheless, the presence of a set curriculum in graduate programs of Higher Education, as well as other fields, implies that certain purposes are to be undertaken by instruction, that there are certain skills and knowledge that are to be conveyed, and that there are in existence ways of determining whether purposes are being attained.

The curricula of graduate programs are typical of a characteristic of American education. The American system of higher education
is marked by diversity and therefore by diverse approaches to the attainment of broadly stated purposes such as the production of skilled and knowledgeable graduates. In turn, curricula vary from institution to institution, from year to year, and from discipline to discipline.

Notwithstanding this variation, those fields of study that are generally regarded as more mature fields—those training professionals, those in which there is an agreed-upon body of knowledge—seem to possess a consistent curriculum. This consistency is normally reflected in the formal recognition of graduates of these fields or by licensing examinations (medicine), bar entrance requirements (law), or program certification or accreditation (business, law, medicine). An agreed-upon body of knowledge as acquired through mastery of the curriculum can be evaluated, and the student's satisfactory mastery of that curriculum can be certified.

Some self-certification must take place in an emerging field of study. Students can be expected to pass certain examinations, written and oral, which purport to reflect in content elements of essential knowledge and skills. Additionally, students may be required to do an extensive independent research project. Throughout these processes, judgments are made by faculty and extra-institutional professionals and sometimes by peers and other students as to the successful attainment of skills and knowledge necessary to function competently as a professional. While some of this attained knowledge is no doubt a result of socialization or acculturation (Vollmer and Mills 1966), much of it is surely curricular content.
An inquiry into the status of the common curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education serve two purposes. First, it is informative to examine the content of the curriculum experienced by those persons being trained to administer institutions of higher education and to study higher education as an institution. Second, a comparison of the characteristics of the content of the curricula of Higher Education to those of other professional curricula characteristics can provide a foundation for examining the status of Higher Education as an emerging profession.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine selected characteristics of the curriculum in graduate programs in Higher Education as a foundation for locating Higher Education along a continuum of professionalism. Two time frames were examined to measure movement toward the positions occupied by the mature professions.

Analytical Framework

In order to analyze the characteristics of the curriculum of Higher Education graduate programs of study, an analytical framework adopted from Conrad (1978) was utilized. Building in part on models of curriculum analysis from earlier studies, Conrad developed a model by which curricular characteristics can be examined along four continua: locus of learning, curriculum content, design of program, and flexibility of program. These continua provided an analytical framework for examining the characteristics of the curriculum vis-à-vis how the knowledge and skills aspect of a professions
education is dispersed through the curriculum. These continua were applicable to this study in that they isolate the central characteristics of knowledge and skills as identified in the literature on professions education. The conjoining of these continua with the literature on the mature professions yielded the following analytical framework:

1. Locus of learning: Campus-based classroom learning—experiential learning. Although traditionally the majority of the curriculum content has been carried out through classroom instruction, there recently has been a movement in many curricula toward the inclusion of more experiential learning. The mature professions have emphasized a balance in this continuum; more than half of the content in a mature professions curriculum is dispersed through classroom learning. The position occupied along this continuum of the locus of learning by graduate programs in Higher Education may be compared with the balance taken by the mature professions.

2. Curriculum content: Breadth—depth. The second continuum was examined to determine the extent to which the curriculum is characterized as either generalist or specialist in nature. The mature professions strike a balance between specialized (depth) skills and broad-based knowledge (Schein 1972). The position of Higher Education along this continuum was compared with the balance of the mature professions.

3. Design of program: Faculty—contractual—student. The degree of student versus faculty control over the curriculum
was examined with the third continuum. The locus of control of Higher Education curricula was compared with those of the mature professions, where faculty prescription is found.

4. Flexibility of program: Required--distribution--elective. The position occupied along the continuum of flexibility was examined. The degree of restrictiveness of the curriculum of Higher Education was compared with those of the mature professions, which are restrictive.

This framework for analysis enabled the researcher to examine the characteristics of the dispersal of the knowledge and skills through the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education and, in turn, to place the profession along an overall continuum of professionalism in terms of the curriculum.

**Research Questions**

1. Is there concurrence on the shared content in the graduate program curriculum in Higher Education? If so, is there more constancy in 1982-83 than in 1972-73?

2. Is there a balance of classroom versus experiential learning emphasis in the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education as there is in the mature professions?

3. Is there an emphasis on balance between breadth and depth in the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education as there is in the mature professions?
4. Is there faculty control over the content of the curriculum in graduate programs in Higher Education as there is in the mature professions?

5. Is the curriculum of Higher Education prescribed as it is in the mature professions?

6. Can characteristics of a curriculum be used to measure professionalization of a field?

7. Where along the continuum of professionalization can Higher Education be placed in terms of certain characteristics of the curriculum?

**Limitations**

1. This study examined only curriculum as a measure of professionalization. Service, autonomy, status, and other characteristics of a profession are not examined.

2. The most visible programs in Higher Education constitute the sample for this study. The researcher does not examine Type II and Type III programs (Dressel and Mayhew 1974).

**Assumptions**

1. This study assumed that Higher Education is an emerging profession whose knowledge and skills as reflected in the curriculum can be placed along a continuum of professionalism.

2. While this study acknowledges that much of professionalization is socialization, it assumed that the most important aspects of the process of professionalism is prolonged training in a common body of knowledge and skills (Goode 1960).
3. This study assumed that course-taking behavior within the curriculum is an accurate indication of the common core of knowledge and skills in a professions education.

**Definitions**

This study required that certain terms be defined so as to be understood in a particular sense. These terms are defined or understood for the purpose of this study as follows:

1. **Higher education** refers to the entire area of collegiate education beyond the secondary level and includes over 3,000 colleges and universities. **Higher Education** refers to that particular field of interest and research centered on the activities and concerns of higher education institutions.

2. **Profession** refers to an occupation that has attained a status distinguishable from other occupations by two characteristics: the possession of unique skills and knowledge and the utilization of these in a service context and that has been "fortunate enough to have obtained and maintained the title" of profession (Becker 1962).

3. **Emerging profession** refers to an occupation that has partially attained the characteristics of a profession and that is becoming by design more professional.

4. **Professions education** refers to the formal educational process, frequently institutionalized, which instills in a student the skills and knowledge and attitudes unique to the successful practice of that profession.
5. **Discipline** refers to an area of academic study characterized by an underlying unique theory or methodology.

6. **Field of study** refers to an area of academic interest which may not be fully developed into a discipline or may be interdisciplinary.

7. **Discipline profession** refers to a profession which possesses an underlying discipline.

8. **Field of interest** refers to an area of academic study or concern not defined as a discipline but rather as a part of one or more disciplines.

9. **Professional fields** refer to areas of study, occupation, or interest which can be designated as professional, that is, possessing certain characteristics.

10. **Professional science** refers to parts of one science or the grouping of parts of several sciences which have pertinence to the work of the profession.

11. **Higher Education Administration** refers to the profession of Higher Education with the understanding that members are either occupied with tasks related to administration, or study them, or undertake some combination of these activities. The terms Higher Education vis-à-vis profession and Higher Education Administration are used interchangeably.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This study was based upon the delicate balance between the wealth of literature on the professions and on the exiguous literature on Higher Education as a graduate field of interest and as a profession. This chapter is organized into four areas: (1) the definition of a profession; (2) a description of the process of professionalization, the process by which occupations become professions; (3) an examination of professions education; and (4) a summary of studies on Higher Education as a field of interest.

Profession: A Definition

The question of what is a profession has concerned American scholars for decades. Certainly, members of a profession profess (Hughes 1963), but there undebated agreement ends. The issue is not simply one of concern to professionals on a group level as they seek to draw the perimeters of their occupation but also to each emerging professional who seeks carefully to fulfill the written and unwritten requirements for entering a particular profession.

The search for a definition of profession has been conducted largely among the ranks of the social scientists, but lawyers and physicians have contributed much to the discussion. An instructive definition, one upon which many studies have been based, was provided
by Schein (1972), who drew upon the extensive work of sociologists studying the professions (Goode 1957, Blau and Scott 1962, Barber 1963, Hughes 1963, Wilensky 1964, Gilb 1966, Abrahamson 1967, Parsons 1968, Gross 1969, Moore 1970). Rather than defining a profession in terms of what it is, Schein delineated the underlying criteria of a definition. While these criteria are most readily identifiable in terms of the classic professions, law and medicine, they can be applied to an analysis of other professions. That is, the criteria can be used to fit various occupations somewhere along a continuum of the definition of a profession (Moore 1970).

The criteria brought together by Schein include the following: Professions involve full-time work for which one has a strong motivation or calling. Members of a profession cannot advertise their services (this criterion has come into question in recent years). The professional has a service orientation which is employed for the good of the client within an atmosphere of trust. Entry into a profession also encourages autonomy, both in client-professional relationships and in matters of professional judgment, though this criterion has been debated recently. According to Schein, what are perhaps the more tangible and important criteria of the definition of a profession are the possession of a specialized, specific body of knowledge and skills which are acquired during a prolonged period of study and membership in a strong, guildlike organization which controls entry into the profession. While no field or occupation fits these criteria perfectly, the literature suggests that all
professions have two distinguishing characteristics: possession of a unique knowledge base and possession of a service orientation.

The definitions of Schein and others place in perspective the pioneering work of Abraham Flexner and the changing nature of professions brought about by a society altered by technology and a changing environment. Shortly after the turn of the century Flexner examined the problem of defining a profession. In his classic 1915 speech "Is Social Work a Profession?" Flexner distinguished professions from other kinds of work based on the following criteria: Professional activity is motivated by altruism; it is intellectual; its knowledge base is organized and practical; the professional activity has a technique which can be learned. Raising the issue of the overriding service motif, Flexner concluded his address by stating

What matters most is professional spirit . . . . The unselfish devotion of those who have chosen to give themselves to making the world a fitter place to live . . . [can] lift [social work] above all the distinctions which I have been at such pains to make (Becker 1962, p. 5).

Other researchers have found that the distinguishing characteristic of a profession is "skill and intellectual technique" necessary to solve everyday problems (Carr-Saunders and Wilson 1933). Both Blauch (1955) and Goode (1960) have pointed out the consistent application of unique skills as a central criterion in defining a profession. They also emphasize the necessity of a strong ethical code to ensure the appropriate use of those skills.
What evolves from these efforts at defining profession is not denotative but connatative. In short, a profession involves the ethical utilization of certain unique skills for the betterment of societal situations, the spirit of service spoken of by Flexner. Accordingly, it seems most appropriate to examine a definition of profession not as a rigid, objective definition but rather as an "ideal type" (Vollmer and Mills 1966). That is, professions fall along a continuum of professionalization, with different occupations being variously successful at defining and maintaining the profession (Becker 1962).

Efforts at defining profession, then, demonstrate that the definition lies not so much in denotation but in connotation, in the comparison of certain criteria which would be found in an ideal type of profession. These would compare to those possessed by a certain occupation. And these criteria can be generally agreed upon to be the possession of unique knowledge and in the socially advised use of that knowledge, the service orientation.

**Professionalization**

Like the term profession, the term professionalization has varied denotations and connotations. And like attempts to define profession, the efforts toward understanding the process of professionalization have been conducted primarily in the social sciences. The process by which the members of a certain occupational group attempt to professionalize themselves, to turn an occupation into a profession (Hughes 1963), has been of interest to social
scientists less in terms of the occupations involved but rather for purposes of examining the relationship of the process to other group occupational interactions within society.

This study adopted the perspective of Vollmer and Mills (1966) who regard professionalization not as a set, delineated process but as a continuum, consistent with the way they regard profession not as a type of occupation but as an ideal to which various occupations can be compared. For Vollmer and Mills, professionalization is a concept referring to a dynamic process with certain occupational characteristics placed along a continuum containing specific criteria. These researchers prefer the use of the term professionalization over that of professionalism, with the latter identified as an ideology pervading the activities of members of occupations aspiring to be professionals. The work of Vollmer and Mills specifically explored the interrelationships of professionalization with other occupational processes—bureaucratization, socialization, and acculturation.

Vollmer and Mills, building upon Max Weber's work on worker behavior, developed ideal types or models of professions and then placed patterns of occupational behavior along continua within these models. Along the continuum of professionalization, with the ideal type at one end and the disorganized occupations or non-proessions at the other end, certain activities are carried out to certain degrees—some sequential, some informal. According to Vollmer and Mills, activities of particular occupational members
are more or less professional than are activities of other occupations' members, with professional activities becoming more and more formalized and ritualized in more mature professions. The process of professionalization, then, affects occupations to a greater or lesser degree.

An instructive historical perspective on professionalization was provided by Carr-Saunders in 1928. Carr-Saunders, the first social scientist to analyze systematically the transition of occupations to the status of profession, defined professionalization in terms of the possession of specialized skill and training, the use of which brings financial compensation; the formation of professional associations; and the possession of a code of ethics. The purpose of these activities is to control entrance into the activity and to enhance the status of the occupation in society. Carr-Saunders saw this activity of professionalization as a positive facet of growth in an industrialized society.

Extending the work of Carr-Saunders and others, Greenwood (1957) attempted to identify and describe the essential elements leading to the ideal profession. According to Greenwood, professions are distinguished by the possession of a basis of systematic theory, an authority recognized by clientele, broader community approval and sanctions, codes of ethics, and a culture sustained by the professional associations. Both Greenwood and Carr-Saunders emphasized as a central point the strength of the loyalty to these associations held by members. According to Greenwood, it is not easy to term
particular occupations as professional or non-professional even though there are distinguishable features of the ideal profession. Like Vollmer and Mills, Greenwood viewed occupations as distributed along a continuum. This model of a profession as a dynamic process provides a useful framework for examining the degree to which a particular occupation has become professionalized.

Having accepted the idea of a continuum for the purpose of this study, it is instructive to investigate the sequencing of the way occupations assume the attributes of a profession. Caplow (1954) examined the professionalization of journalists, realtors, morticians, salvage consultants, and medical technologists and arrived at a consistent and explicit sequence. First, a professional association with specific criteria for membership is established. Second, the name of the occupation is changed, disassociating it with the previous occupation and monopolizing a new area of expertise. Third, a code of ethics is adopted. Last, the occupation gains public support for the new area of expertise, much like sociology accomplished during World War II (Slaughter and Silva 1983). In gathering public support, the occupation sets up training facilities which, while under the control of the occupation, interact with related occupational and institutional groups.

In becoming a profession, occupations undergo internal and external change. The transition from occupation to profession comes internally from members of occupations desiring greater compensation and higher status. Externally, industrialization (Carr-
Saunders 1928) and technology (Goode 1961) create a void in services provided by occupations to society. In turn, this void may encourage occupations to become more professionalized. It also has been suggested that what distinguishes an occupation from an emerging profession is altruism (Goode 1960). According to this view, the focus is placed on a client's needs versus a client's wants. The profession is concerned with client needs, the occupation with wants. As long as an occupation merely carries out the wants of society, it cannot become a true profession (Goode 1961). It does not move far along the continuum of professionalization.

According to Goode, the key to an occupation being able to respond to needs rather than wants is the possession of esoteric knowledge, a distinction of a profession. An occupation must create a belief that it possesses unique skills and knowledge which are useful to society if it is to be placed at the higher end of the continuum of professionalization. In conjunction with the service orientation, the conviction of uniqueness in terms of skills and knowledge enables the emerging profession to be placed further along the continuum of professionalization.

Among the professions historically regarded as the most professionalized are law, medicine, and clergy. Entrenched since the Middle Ages (Brubacher 1962), these three occupations are usually placed at the far end of the continuum of professionalization. Wilensky (1964) cited the military as the fourth occupation to become professionalized, the process moving markedly along the
continuum from the Renaissance until the early 1900s. Dentistry, architecture, and some areas of engineering were professionalized in the early 1900s; CPAs, accountants, and other areas of engineering fields followed (Wilensky 1964). Those still in progress include social work, correctional work, veterinary medicine, and administration and management of nonpublic facilities. According to Wilensky, various borderline occupations including teaching, librarianship, nursing, and pharmacy cannot be placed very high on the professional end of the continuum because of their occupational duties.

By examining those occupations taken to be the most professionalized, Wilensky arranged the process of professionalization in the following order: first, the occupational activity must be undertaken full-time. Then, training for that activity needs to be established and institutionalized. Next, those occupational members and those in training combine to form a professional organization. Concurrent with the latter is the political activity needed to gain the recognition and support of society by means of legal protection, including licensing and certification. Finally, a code of ethics becomes formalized. While the sequence varies, Wilensky (1964) found only a 25 percent variation in the sequence.

In addition, Wilensky (1964) addressed comprehensively the idea of the technical knowledge base of an occupation as an indicator of its professionalization. He acknowledged that this technical knowledge, when viewed in a service context, utilized under norms of behavior, constituted the distinguishing characteristic
of a profession. In addition, he asserted that this technical knowledge could be either scientifically based or non-scientifically based, with many occupations adopting a balance. For example, the contrast between scientific and non-scientific basis for the technical knowledge of a profession could be viewed thus:

```
clergy  university teaching  law  medicine

less professionalized  more professionalized
Science-based knowledge

medicine  law  university teaching  clergy

less professionalized  more professionalized
Non-science based knowledge
```

Figure 1. Technical Knowledge of Selected Professions.
(Adapted from Wilensky 1964, p. 142)

Wilensky concluded that it was not the nature of the knowledge base that alone determined the professionalization of an occupation. However, something related to that knowledge base might be used to determine the professionalization: the establishment of training schools or the institutionalization of the training for a given occupation.
One way by which an occupation establishes its uniqueness and controls entrance into the activity is by controlling the preparation for the occupation, first by establishing the training schools which will disperse unique knowledge and then by establishing fairly uniform knowledge and skills to be taught in the schools, thereby further indicating its uniqueness, creating a consistency and universality to the professional preparation. Using the establishment of a training school as one criterion in the process of professionalization, Wilensky places various occupations as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>less professionalized</th>
<th>more professionalized</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advertising (1900)</td>
<td>medicine (1765)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>city planning (1909)</td>
<td>civil engineering (1819)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hospital admin. (1926)</td>
<td>dentistry (1840)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>architecture (1865)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>accounting (1881)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Date of Established Training as a Measure of Professionalization.

(Adapted from Wilensky 1964, p. 143, based on professions education in the United States only)

The establishment of formal training does not guarantee that an occupation will develop into a profession. Aspiring to become a profession is problematic. Many social scientists feel
every occupation is capable of and aspires to the status of a profession, yet Wilensky concluded that sufficient barriers exist to prevent the professionalization of every occupation. The strongest impediment is that many occupations rest on a knowledge base which is too general or vague or too narrow and specific to be regarded as exclusive domain, according to Wilensky. Another strong obstacle to a "natural history of professionalization" is the political struggles faced by aspiring occupations. It becomes more and more difficult for occupations to carve out unique territory not already claimed by an established profession. The tasks involved in professionalization are sufficiently complex to discourage occupational members from responding in a random and overanxious manner.

Despite the fact that not all scholars seem to share Wilensky's view on barriers to professionalization, most agree the process is multifaceted. As already suggested, some researchers have adopted the idea of a dynamic process of professionalization rather than the notion of a static state. Moore and Rosenblum (1970) referred to a professionalization continuum as a scale rather than a cluster of attributes in which the process of status enhancement involves a sequence of points along a scale. These points include undertaking full-time occupation, possessing a commitment to a calling, a setting apart from others by various signs and symbols in a formalized organization, possessing esoteric but useful knowledge and skills which are utilized in a service orientation, and enjoying autonomy.
The process of professionalization consists of filling out these criteria.

The essential focus of the process according to Moore and Rosenblum is the filling of a specific need by the professional's application of standardized knowledge to concrete problems requiring alleviating solutions. The standardized knowledge is determined by a knowledge base which has fairly well-defined boundaries. Although technology and demand constantly force professionals to redefine these boundaries, the profession adapts boundaries and yet maintains uniqueness.

Professionalization, therefore, can be viewed as the process by which an occupation becomes a profession. This dynamic process does not begin and end at specific points, but rather an occupation moves through various steps along a continuum, moving toward an ideal type, best exemplified by the more professionalized occupations, the mature professions.

According to the literature, professionalization involves the acquisition of various traits. The two distinguishing traits of professionalization are the acquisition of a unique body of knowledge and skills and the adoption of a service orientation. This acquisition, now more than ever, occurs in an institutional, formalized setting, usually in institutions of higher education. The institutionalization of professionalization results in formalization of the preparation for a profession.
Professions Education

As discussed above, professionalization as a process is framed by acquiring knowledge and skills in a service context. In becoming a professional, the neophyte learns a professional identity, an identity defined by both the acquisition of skills and knowledge and the assumption of the values and attitudes unique to the profession (Bragg 1976). Preparation for the profession means embracing the professional role model as put forth by the faculty (Fife 1971) and mastering the content of the curriculum. Both facets of professions education are strongly controlled by the faculty. At the same time, the influence of the faculty complements the effects of students upon one another. Despite the fact that much of the sociology literature on the acculturation process of education, especially professions education, deals with the strong impact of student culture (Becker et al. 1961, Bragg 1976), the primary force that shapes the student professional identity seems to be the curriculum as implemented by the faculty. For Anderson (1962), among others, in education for the professions, the curriculum is the main aspect to merit examination and analysis. Although he acknowledged the important role of socialization and of the larger environment, he viewed curriculum as that aspect of professions education which merits the most continuous surveillance as a measure of maturation of a profession.

The curriculum of a professions education contains theory and skill. And although superior skill is often cited as the
distinction between professional and nonprofessional training, the distinction is something more complex than the acquisition of a technique. Professional skill is derived from organized knowledge, knowledge built on a consistent system, a body of theory. This body of theory is a system of abstract propositions which describe in general terms the focus of interest of the profession (Greenwood, 1957). The skills cannot be mastered unless the theory has been comprehended beforehand. Therefore, preparation for a profession involves considerable knowledge of a systematic theory upon which the application of a technique is conducted. Professions education is both intellectual and practical.

Practical knowledge can be learned through apprenticeship. Intellectual knowledge, however, is best learned in institutionalized, formal settings. As an occupation becomes more professionalized, the preparation for it becomes less apprentice-like and more intellectual in content and more likely to be institutionalized (Greenwood 1957).

Institutionalization of a professions education offers a great advantage to an emerging profession: institutionalization allows for greater opportunity to conduct research on the profession's body of theory. In turn, the generation and validation of theory provide a solid base for professional skill and knowledge, the base which will be applied to the service-related problems undertaken by the profession. The skills and the knowledge base are related directly to the acceptance of the occupation as a profession:
the more unique the skills and knowledge are in meeting needs, the greater the possibility that the occupation will be regarded as a profession. Emerging professions may measure the professionalized content of their professions education in comparison with the following characteristics of skills and knowledge attributed to the mature professions:

1. The knowledge and skills should be abstract and organized into a codified body of principles;
2. The knowledge should be regarded as applicable to concrete problems;
3. Society or relevant clients should believe that the knowledge can actually solve these problems;
4. The clients or society should agree that the problems should be turned over to that professional group;
5. The profession is responsible for helping to create, organize, and transmit the knowledge;
6. The profession should be accepted as the final arbitration in disputes over validity of technical solutions;
7. The amount of knowledge and skills and the difficulty in acquiring them should be great enough that the clients or society view the profession as possessing a kind of mystery knowledge, unique to that profession (Goode 1969).

Thus, it is important for the aspiring profession to control the knowledge and skills it regards as unique. But this knowledge and skill is not always controllable, since some of the knowledge...
possessed by a specific profession is also possessed by other occupations. That is, sometimes the unique knowledge possessed by a profession is what Goode (1957) called general natural principles, learnable by other professions. Nonetheless, the profession must be able to provide unique service to society. The professional accomplishes this by using the general knowledge available in a unique way to solve particular problems. The professional combines knowledge with skill to provide a unique solution. It is the balance of knowledge and skill that distinguishes professions education from occupational training.

The balancing or synthesis of knowledge and skills in the educational process is a measure of the professionalization of the occupation. Several scholars have examined maturing professions to determine the balance taken in the preparation for the profession. Schein (1972) held that the mark of a mature profession was the convergence of skills and knowledge in the professions education. The process consists of three components according to Schein: (1) underlying discipline, (2) applied science, and (3) skills and attitudinal concerns. Schein asserted that professions education can be analyzed in terms of the sequence and form of these components. In other words, professions can be distinguished from each other and from semi-professions and occupations on the basis of the degree to which the skill and knowledge components of professions education have become convergent (Schein 1972) and on the degree of consensus as to what constitutes the relevant knowledge base for practice.
of the skills (Moore 1970). Schein suggested that it is the integration of the convergent and divergent elements, the skills and knowledge, which mark a mature or true professions education. Such a professions education incorporates the applied skills aspect with the knowledge and attitudinal concerns. Professions education balances the acquisition of skills, knowledge, and attitudes.

Other researchers have also examined professions education across professions. For Anderson (1974) the distinction between education for the "learned professions" and "other" professions can be examined by cross-professions analysis. While he acknowledged that each profession renders a unique service to society, he felt that there are certain trends among education for the professions that distinguish emerging professions from other occupations or from the established professions. These trends affect professions education in subtle and yet dynamic ways. Perhaps the most significant trend is the sheer increase in professions education. A widely shared prediction for the future of professions education has consistently been that it will increase as the work force becomes more professionalized and that institutions of higher education will continue to take on an increasing role in the education of professionals (McClothlin 1960; Anderson 1962, 1974; Nyre and Reilly 1979; Zumeta and Solmon 1982). The then U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare reported that 61,798 first professional degrees were awarded in the U.S. in 1977-78. This figure does not include the degrees conferred at the bachelors, masters, and doctoral level
in the professional fields which numbered just under one million (Zumeta and Solmon 1982). Several decades ago, 60 percent of all degrees were granted in professional fields (Anderson 1962), and that figure has increased markedly in the last few years. These numbers indicate a significant increase of persons educated to enter professional occupations. In 1955, the total number of professionals employed was only 3.8 million, 6.5 percent of the work force (Blauch 1955). By 1970, the total number was 11 million, 14.5 percent of the work force (Leslie 1976).

This increase in number of professionals being educated and the implications for institutions of higher education and for society are among the concerns Anderson (1962) listed as common to professions education. These concerns are shaped by and shape society and, in addition, have a parallel formative relationship to professional education.

Other problems influence professions education. In addition to the increase in sheer numbers, Anderson cited problems in finding and refining objectives, in attaining uniqueness, of winning prestige, in maintaining standards of quality and providing supply, of achieving reform, of obtaining a balance between theory and skills in training, and of maintaining relationships—to the liberal arts, to the university, to society, to subprofessions, and to other professions—as the common concerns facing the professions education.

Leslie et al. (1971) grouped these concerns into four categories: establishing identity and purpose, organizing instruction,
maintaining relations with other units within the institution, and soliciting relations with external agencies outside the institution. Defining identity and purpose, the first generalized problem, is manifested in many aspects of professions education. Among the issues raised here is the balance between theory and practice. The literature on professions education suggests that theoreticians do not easily conduct pragmatic research (Heist 1962, McGlothlin 1964), yet the theoretical purpose of professions education is addressed in the curriculum. The literature suggests that the balance between theory and practice hangs precariously on current tastes. While historical precedent suggests that practice should be emphasized (Brubacher and Rudy 1968), changing internal and external demands tip the balance in favor of theory (McGlothlin 1960).

Other researchers use areas of conflict as the frame for discussions concerning professions education. Glazer (1974) distinguished the major professions schools from those of the quasi or minor professions by the absence of four conflicts. In the minor professions schools, instruction is carried out by researchers who are teaching practitioners; the role for which students are being trained is inferior to some ancillary professional roles which are also part of the curriculum; the status of the disciplines and the faculty conducting instruction outrank the profession for which the students are being trained; and the knowledge base in these fields undergoes frequent and disrupting changes (p. 349).
In addition, Glazer cited an unambiguous end—purpose—as distinguishing the major professions; he contended that many of the minor professions adopt some of the models of the major professions, but they undergo "radical revolutions" (p. 351) too frequently to possess a consistent purpose. Therefore, consistent and unambiguous purpose marks a mature professions education.

The curriculum is the battleground upon which many of the theoretical and practical aspects of professional knowledge are fought. It is there that questions of depth versus breadth, locus of learning, clinical versus theoretical experience, ethics, and other aspects of professionalization are addressed and passed on to professionals-in-training. There the issue of exploding knowledge is addressed. There the technology of method as well as the attitudinal skills are transmitted. There is where those criteria which frame the definition of professions are developed. In the curriculum, the essence of a profession is defined, the *sine qua non*. The curriculum is the most definitive and essential element of a professions education.

Some occupations transmit knowledge and skills in a less formal manner. While occupations can transmit knowledge and skills through an apprenticeship, the more likely an occupational activity is to become professionalized, the greater the need for training based not on apprenticeship but on a structured, theoretical base. Citing the change from apprenticeship training to basic theoretical instruction as a mark of emerging professions education, McGrath
(1962) identified four areas which distinguish professions education. For McGrath, the curriculum of those programs generally regarded as being in the forefront of professions education display certain developments toward a balance of studies in the specialized activities of adult life, both civic and personal. Educational preparation, according to McGrath, includes broad theoretical instruction necessary to proficient practice, technical skills and specialized knowledge unique to the given profession, general education necessary for the living of a properly discharged and effective civic and personal life, and professional and general continuing education (McGrath 1962). In particular, McGrath included in the first category of theoretical instruction two areas of material: (1) those subjects which provide the theoretical basis for the profession and (2) subject matter not specifically related but essential nevertheless to the activities of that profession. In short, ideal professions education requires emphasis to be placed on specific theory and general principles rather than on acquisition of details and facts.

The ideal is no more readily realized than in a world where technology and exploding knowledge threaten almost daily to overturn tradition and relative truth. Facts are relative only to time. Like liberal arts, contended McGrath, professions education emphasizes principles and integrating concepts not rote memorization. According to McGrath, recognition of this fact has brought about radical change in the curricula of some professional schools such as engineering and business administration. There, for example, students are
not permitted to study specialized subjects until the second half of their professional program. An established, limited core program is taken by all students, regardless of their specialties. This curricular adjustment results in a reorganization of students' thinking toward integration of principles and synthesis and away from details. Adaptability is provided for by providing a core of skills related the "efficient intellectual workmanship" (p. 286).

Adaptability often is reflected in the balance between theory and practice. Theoretical knowledge as a sole basis for the carrying out of a professional life is insufficient. A professional must possess the technical, manual, and intellectual skills to use theoretical knowledge. Practical experience is essential to professional competence. The questions, then, are centered on concerns of what kind of practical experience, how much, and when should this aspect be included in the education of a professional.

For some professions, if not many, application competence occurs sometime after completion of formal instruction, thereby elongating the training period. Although this sequence is based mostly on tradition, the logic of general to specific is solid. McGlothlin (1964) reported on a comparative study of time spent in professional training vis-à-vis general education, professional sciences, and application processes. According to this study, medicine devotes half its time to arts and sciences, a fourth to professional sciences, and the remaining forth to application. Law divides its process equally between arts and sciences and professional studies. Business
also emphasizes the same two components, giving 40 percent of its
time to arts and sciences and 60 percent to professional sciences.
Education for teaching is divided three ways: 50 percent arts
and sciences, 30 percent for professional sciences, and 20 percent
for application. Each profession has thus arrived at a compromise
between theoretical competency and practical competency. However,
the sequence of first general arts and sciences, then professional
sciences, and finally application seems to be consistent enough
(McGlothlin 1964).

Although the sequence of professions education is based
on theory, the length of a professions education is determined
by the market, by how much time and money students and faculty
are willing to invest in training for the profession. The question
of length of the curriculum of professions education is of concern
to the profession and to the students undertaking the training.
According to McGlothlin (1964), the minimum time commitment is
four years, at least three of which are at the baccalaureate level.
Although not all professions educations require a minimum of four
years' study culminating in the baccalaureate, the majority of
professions recognize its value as a screening and certifying device.

In analyzing the length of professional education curricula,
McGlothlin (1964) found the following principles to be relative
to the elongation of training. In summary, the principles are
(1) professions have considerable autonomy in determining the length
of training. The various decisions are based on judgments about
the length of time needed to achieve beginning competency; (2) the length of training should be determined solely by the amount of time needed by the average student to complete the curriculum. However, other factors such as unwillingness to discard traditional ways and material also contribute to the decision; (3) since the knowledge base of a profession is constantly changed by research, the content of the curriculum might change, altering the length of the curriculum. In addition, it is typical that as the work force becomes professionalized, the education process to become a professional becomes elongated. This elongation should be a matter of conscious study not accidental happening; (4) the curriculum should be no longer than necessary to accomplish the objectives of the professions education. Lengthening one aspect of the process should be undertaken only after serious examination; to lengthen the time required for basic arts and sciences instruction does not shorten the time spent in acquiring professional sciences or application skills (pp. 47-48).

In applying these principles, the following professions have chosen the length and content of their education process as adapted from McGlothlin (1964). Business Administration devotes four years at the baccalaureate level to professional sciences as does teaching. Medicine and law use three years to lay the foundation of arts and sciences. Law spends three years on professional sciences, medicine four. Medicine also has an additional year of internship (a transition between professional sciences and
application) and three more years in residency, an advanced guild-like relationship where the young doctor learns the last of the application skills before setting out in professional practice. Dentistry and veterinary medicine devote two years to the general arts and sciences and four years to professional sciences. Of the professions examined in this study, only medicine and psychology practice a year's internship (McGlothlin 1964, pp. 45-47). Figure 3 summarizes McGlothlin's conclusions on the length of professional preparation. McGlothlin reported that the years spent in preparation for various professions are then as follows: business four, engineering four, law six, medicine eleven, and teaching four (these figures include undergraduate work).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Arts/Sciences (Undergraduate)</th>
<th>Professional Undergraduate and Graduate</th>
<th>Application (Graduate)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Years Spent in Academic Preparation for Various Professions.

The findings of McGlothlin have been affirmed in principal by other researchers. In a similar study, Berelson cited 2.9 years beyond the baccalaureate work as the median length for the achievement of the doctorate in professional fields, eight years for doctoral
degrees as a maximum average, three years beyond the baccalaureate for law degrees, and four for medical degrees (1960, pp. 153-160). Berelson's data make other important points, among them that the duration of professional preparation varies substantially by field: short in sciences, medium in humanities and social sciences, and elongated in the professional fields (professional fields here are defined to include education, engineering, agriculture, and business). Professions education is marked by an elongated period of study, and the more professionalized the field, the longer the period of study for the doctorate. Therefore, the degree of professionalization of a field can be measured in part by the duration of its study. Education for the professional fields takes about three years, law three years, medicine four. A hypothetical professions education might take a little over three years to complete. Although McGlothlin's study does not use the doctorate as the touchstone to mark the degree of educational attainment, his data provide a parallel and supportive finding. The duration of the professions education (excluding law and medicine) is four years.

The content of professions education was also a focus of Berelson's and McGlothlin's studies. McGlothlin concluded that professions education is based upon the liberal arts, the arts and sciences of the undergraduate curriculum, those courses which give students skill in applying broad knowledge to specific areas and problems. And, by extension, even in law and medicine, the broad knowledge of the professional sciences is used as a base
for the application skills of the later training period. In other words, professions education moves from general to specific, and approximately half of the process is used for general knowledge and half for specific knowledge. The model professions educations is divided between general and professional knowledge.

Another aspect of the model professions education of concern to researchers is the relationship between the general and professional knowledge. Considering the logic of the baccalaureate curriculum in professional and pre-professional studies, it is unlikely that any great changes in the sequence of general to specific knowledge will be altered in professional curricula. The flexibility of many undergraduate curricula and the no-requirements and interdisciplinary movements have encouraged graduate and professional schools to continue to review general material before students are allowed to specialize. In addition, the autonomy of the professional spirit also accounts for the tradition of faculty determination in curriculum content and sequencing, regardless of student interest and preparation. However, two trends in graduate and professional education are noted here only to demonstrate that some researchers have found an interest among faculty for reform in the sequence of the content of the curriculum in professions education.

According to Mayhew (1970), among the possible changes anticipated in the curriculum of professions training is a pronounced trend to require more field expertise of students and to require it earlier in the educational process. Additionally, this interest
in more pragmatic experience may alter the nature of research conducted by students at the pre-professional level, providing them with a more realistic approach to the research experience. Such a reform might bring about a change in the sequence of curricula experiences for students, perhaps intermixing specialized with general education, perhaps requiring that application skills be practiced earlier in the educational process. Practical field experience might indeed become central to the graduate and professional training experience.

A second possible area for change in professions education curricula has to do with the shaping of the curriculum by external forces, in particular the kinds of innovations which alter instruction in higher education. In a study related to research done with Ford, Mayhew (1970) reported on faculty responses to education innovations in graduate and professional education. Among the most frequently expected changes cited by Mayhew were technological innovations, such as computer-based instruction and programmed instruction. Changes in instructional methods might bring about changes in the professions education curriculum, perhaps the undertaking of general and specific knowledge simultaneously.

Another force affecting professions education curricula is the molding of professions education and the graduate education tradition. Both the academic community and the professional community are accustomed to independent action. Placing either of these within the democratized structure of institutions has been a source of conflict. There are those who see this as a challenge rather
than a liability. John Gardner wrote of the situation as strengthening professional education in these terms:

The future is . . . hazardous for the individual who . . . receives an advanced degree . . . and believes society owes him a living for doing [that kind of work]. . . . If he is broadly trained . . . he is in a position to survive the ups and downs of the job market (1961, p. 43).

While belonging to a profession involves membership in a guild-like, closed corporation (Darley 1962), the institutionalization of professions education can bring about the perspectives Gardner and others see as necessary to the survival of the modern professions.

Professions education as practiced currently is the result of the decision by the profession to institutionalize and formalize the preparation for practice of the profession. While the advantage of increased theory validation is gained through institutionalization, several disadvantages also result. Although institutionalization encourages reform and forces reconciliation of professional standards with the traditions of graduate education, the traditions do not always complement each other. These issues are addressed in the curricula of programs preparing professionals, the curricula being shaped by external forces.

Despite various pressures for change, those professions regarded as mature professions have developed certain curriculum agreements which are expressed in characteristics of their curriculum and supported by the literature on professional education. In particular, there is agreement that there exists balance between
theory and practice, faculty control and student determination, requirements and electives, and sequence. While not all of these curricular characteristics are supported empirically, they are supported by the analytical literature.

**Studies on Higher Education**

**Introduction**

This part of the review of the literature begins by discussing Higher Education's emergence as a field of interest and is followed by a discussion of studies and articles on Higher Education vis-à-vis the nature of professions education and a survey of studies related to curriculum, that aspect of professions education with which this study is concerned.

**Studies of Higher Education As a Field of Interest**

Studies on Higher Education as a field have been fairly steady if low in production. Still, the interest in studying higher education parallels growth and decline in higher education: as society becomes more aware of postsecondary education problems which require unique solutions from persons trained to bring about concrete resolutions, interest in the field increases. The earliest studies on higher education were primarily descriptive and historical (Adams' *Institutional History of William and Mary* in 1887 and Knight's *The Influence of Reconstruction: Education in the South*, 1913). The main legacy of these early studies was the furthering of the
belief that higher education and its purposes can be understood through the application of scholarly techniques (Dressel and Mayhew 1974). In the twentieth century, many of the first studies were evaluative works, like Flexner's on medical education, which were premised on the belief that scholarly examination of the educational process could provide a basis for policy formation. Studies of this nature gradually evolved into the field of institutional research. Building on the writings of the University of Chicago group—Reeves, Brumbaugh, and Russell—who attempted to examine institutional practices as the basis for establishing administrative principles, the literature on higher education began to focus on how institutions functioned (Dressel and Mayhew 1974), thus directing the focus of studies on higher education on evaluation and prediction. The study of higher education now had an additional purpose, and this approach rested on the collection and analysis of empirical evidence.

Institutional research paralleled the growth of institutional self-studies. The impetus for self-study seems to have derived from philanthropic foundation support and regional accrediting associations. With the growth of higher education in the late 1940s and early 1950s came the interest in and need for standardization. Federal influence and financial support encouraged accreditation. Institutions previously dismissing accreditation as irrelevant, anxiously undertook self-studies which would lead to accreditation by regional associations. While often self-serving, these studies increased awareness of the nature and concerns of higher education
institutions (Dressel and Mayhew 1974). Although the quality and objectivity of studies (such as Stanford's *The Undergraduate and the University*) resulting from this development left much to be desired, the sheer numbers produced an introspective attitude among scholars in higher education.

A final facet of the development of introspective study resulted from the need for and development of student personnel services designed to measure and evaluate students and instruction. The testing and counseling movements transferred much of the work with the military to institutions of postsecondary education. This was complemented by the massive influx of G.I.s into higher education. The nature and scope of higher education changed dramatically; Higher Education also changed notably.

While federal and state governments sought to sort out the implications of the enormous growth of higher education in the World War II period by establishing commissions designed to formulate and control policy, universities began to become interested in developing a theory to underpin the administrating and managing of institutions of higher learning. As institutions and their roles in society became more complex, educational leaders sought unique and immediate solutions to problems now extending beyond familiar areas. The professional administrator began to emerge, usually from within institutions. These professionals and those who studied them and their work began to define the parameters of the field (Dressel and Mayhew 1974). These persons began to
study more systematically the field and its problems as well as
the probable consequences of solutions to those problems. By the
1950s, the field and its literature had taken on purpose and form.

Higher Education: Profession
and Professions Education

The development and nature of Higher Education as a profession
is one thread of the literature on Higher Education. Although
this subject is mentioned in many studies on Higher Education,
several have examined it in detail. Fitting the profession into
the institutional setting and establishing appropriate areas of
service was the theme of a 1965 article by Arthur Dibden. Building
on an idea of David Reisman, Dibden suggested that the one mission
which universities serve but is not sufficiently appreciated in
higher education is the research and development function of higher
education itself (pp. 72-73). Based on this philosophy, Dibden
suggested a rationale for formal programs in Higher Education.
According to Dibden, adequate reasons for the establishment of
programs in Higher Education are intellectual and educational curiosity
and the inherent and practical importance of institutions of higher
education in society, with the latter meriting the same self-scrutiny
given by an education populace to other institutions upon which
society is dependent for existence (pp. 211-212). The administration
of higher education required professional attention, and thus the
development of programs in higher education is necessary.
Notwithstanding the practical dimension of that rationale, Dibden pointed out the difficulties experienced by departments of Higher Education in carrying out programs. His first concern reflects back on the earlier discussions of profession and professionalization. Dibden was concerned with the distinctive content, emphases, and boundaries which would establish disciplinary perimeters for Higher Education. His second concern was with the curriculum of such programs. Suggesting that the nature and organization of higher education itself would determine the curriculum, he listed as foci educational assumptions, goals, contents, methods, persons, evaluation, structures, operations, relations, and problems of influential orders and groups as determinant. Since such programs would prepare administrators, he cited the built-in tension of the balance between pure and applied training associated with the practical orientation. The balancing of these considerations when focused into a graduate program presuppose the presence of an ordered, selective curriculum incorporating the skills and knowledge necessary to resolving these concerns.

Most studies on Higher Education, including those previously cited, urge further research into the shortfallings of graduate programs preparing professionals for the field. Typically, reform becomes part of the on-going process of professionalization. The demand for reform is usually first formalized in the journals of the profession. A notable example of this process is the Winter 1973 issue of the Journal of Research and Development in Education.
which was devoted entirely to Higher Education as an emerging profession and the need for reform. Developments motivating the publication of the issue included a confusion over the role and structure of higher education which followed the optimism of the 1960s and a growing demand for programs in Higher Education (Fincher 1973). Although there was no consensus on the status of Higher Education, authors of articles in the issue address those external and internal forces shaping the development of Higher Education. Summarized in the following paragraphs are some of the ideas presented in this journal issue concerned with reform of the profession.

Collins Burnett argued that Higher Education is at least a scholarly field of study based on five criteria. Citing Young (1952), Ewing and Stickler (1964), Dibden (1965), Overholt (1967), Currie (1968), Sagan (1968), and Rogers (1969), Burnett suggested that there is a history of development of Higher Education with an increasing status and recognition. Burnett's second criterion focused on the presence of a societal need for higher education and the accompanying need for a study of the institution. By reason of sheer demographics and fiscal dimensions, Burnett established the importance of studying higher education. A third criterion in Burnett's study was the presence of objectives and learning experiences in doctoral programs in Higher Education. Surveying program descriptions, the researcher found three general career objectives in graduate training programs: administration, teaching, and research. This examination of this general criterion showed
the weaknesses and inadequacies of such programs, but Burnett suggested that development in this area was taking place, moving Higher Education along the continuum of professionalization.

Somewhat related to the third criterion was Burnett's next concern: is there a recognized, viable literature to Higher Education? Burnett cited several studies which attempted either to determine from where Higher Education drew its literature or to delineate the topics with which Higher Education dealt. Included in his citations were bibliographies based on studies unique to the field and listings of several relevant journals. Burnett pointed out the professional associations such as the American Association for Higher Education publish bibliographies. These associations also work with the service associations (American Council on Education and the Clearinghouse on Higher Education) in developing a comprehensive list of the body of literature in the field. The efforts of national organizations in accomplishing tasks like literature collection fulfill Burnett's fifth criterion. A specialized field of study is identified with national organizations which represent the profession's interest. Based on the partial fulfillment of these criteria, Burnett conservatively concluded that Higher Education was an emerging scholarly field, not yet a specialized field of study.

The interest in Higher Education manifested in the offering of graduate training in institutions of higher learning is the focus of another article in this issue. Marvin Peterson (1973)
examined approaches to the study of Higher Education including utilizing the university department and discussed the issues facing emerging departments, issues faced by all emerging professional programs. Peterson asked whether it was appropriate to establish a separate department or profession for the study of higher education considering its interdisciplinary nature. He then went on to argue that like other professional training, Higher Education should devote considerable interest to improving scholarship and instruction. Peterson argued that because of the complexity and interdisciplinary nature of Higher Education, existing disciplines cannot adequately handle the study of higher education. Peterson concluded that the establishment of separate units to study Higher Education within universities would place the field comparative to business administration, urban studies, and environmental studies in relationship to the continuum of professionalization.

In an article with a related thrust, that of Higher Education as an emerging profession, Samuel Kellams identified not an either-or situation for Higher Education but rather the issues which should be addressed for its professional development. Although not accepting Higher Education as a unique profession or as a discipline, Kellams at least accepted that it is a field of study. He paralleled the experiences of Higher Education professionals to those of other professions education. A complex knowledge base is possessed by Higher Education, but it is not organized. By contrast, Higher Education graduate programs are not unlike those of medicine and
law. There are those professionals who teach the knowledge base to others; there are those who add to that base through research. No one professional is expected to fulfill all roles. What role is fulfilled is determined by the clientele of the professional's efforts. And for Higher Education, the clientele is still ill-defined. According to Kellams, organizing and synthesizing the knowledge base to delineate the clientele would put Higher Education further along the continuum of professionalization.

Several scholars addressed the profession's responsibility to its own development. Burton Clark (1974) summarized the contributions from other disciplines to Higher Education; he viewed as essential work for the Higher Education professional the monitoring and integration of findings from other disciplines. Reinforcing this idea of responsibility, Robert Silverman suggested that professional organizations must encourage the development of the field (1974). By this action, the knowledge base of Higher Education would be strengthened, codified, and expanded. In a related article, Naomi Ross (1974) reported on the professional tasks of APHE (Association of Professors of Higher Education) members. Like other professionals, Higher Educationalists are frequently specialized; according to Ross' study, professors were primarily oriented toward governance and administration. Data reported by Ross also reinforced the emerging nature of the field in terms of faculty specialization.

The nature of the service aspect of the profession of Higher Education was examined in several articles included in the monograph
Higher Education: A Developing Field of Study (1974). E. D. Duryea and G. Lester Anderson considered the roles departments and faculty of Higher Education might fulfill. Duryea warned against direct service to institutions when such service may distract from the activities of teaching and scholarship. The worth of Higher Education faculty to an institution should be based on the enrichment of the role of teacher-scholar. At the same time, Anderson saw great richness in the role of consultant undertaken by the faculty of Higher Education programs. In moderation, service could provide faculty with unique opportunities to apply principles taught students. These service activities should not be in the realm of institutional research, cautioned Anderson. The role should be more of consultant-in-residence. While Anderson contended that service is a mark of a professional, he concluded that the appropriate service for Higher Education's unique skills and knowledge needed further examination.

Perhaps an even more basic issue in the identity of Higher Education as a profession is the identification of the professional community. Barbara Smith (1975) addressed the question of Higher Education's status as a profession, a discipline, or an emerging field of study. Pursuing this question, Smith used citation analysis and content analysis to examine if there exists a community of Higher Education specialists whose citations evidence congruent areas of research and if a common, specialized vocabulary exists. A main finding of her study was that the uniqueness of Higher Education
specialists lies in the catholicity of their interests. This interdisciplinary nature of the profession suggests that the professionals may not agree on the paradigms which might lead to theory construction. Surprisingly, Smith found that these paradigms did exist for Higher Education.

Concern with the parameters of the community of scholars of Higher Education was also the focus of a recent article by Jack Cooper (1980), who commented on the problems facing the professoriate, among them the need to be at the same time both specialists and generalists. The issue is problematic not only in instruction and in interaction with students of a program but in the service aspect of the professor's activities. And while the professor often is called upon to do consultation for other institutions, rarely is her/his talent recruited for problem solving on the home campus, mainly because few administrators and faculty realize the expertise exists. Cooper suggested that the solution focuses on the development of Higher Education as a member of the intellectual community and the expansion of its political advocacy.

Becoming a valid member of the intellectual community is also a step which Dressel and Mayhew urged for Higher Education. In their comprehensive book, Higher Education as a Field of Study (1974), Dressel and Mayhew insisted that Higher Education must be accepted on this level in order to be regarded as a member of the professions. For these researchers, the tension associated with this movement toward acceptance as a profession is the scholar
versus practitioner nature of the professoriate and, in turn, of the program. For Dressel and Mayhew, the issue is focused on the socialization of professionals. The emergence of would-be administrators into the administrative milieu versus into the objective scholarly study of higher education, the familiar tension of practitioner versus scholar, was of concern as part of the socialization issue. In addition, Dressel and Mayhew viewed service by practitioners as a major definition of the Higher Education profession. Yet, far too many programs are preparing scholars, perhaps in part to establish the intellectual validity of the field. This among other problems hampers the development of the profession according to Dressel and Mayhew.

As previously noted, the profession of Higher Education has developed with the growth and complexity of higher education. Although the need for specially prepared practitioners and scholars in the field is generally acknowledged, great debate continues over the parameters of professional expertise. And while Higher Education has successfully adopted many of the symbols of a profession, most scholars urge reform to clarify the areas of unique skills and service provided by the profession. One area of continuing interest is the preparation of professionals through graduate programs in Higher Education.

Reform in the educational process is urged for Higher Education much as it has been for other professions (Flexner 1925, Goode 1961). Among the areas most frequently cited for change are the
specific competencies sought through professions education. This concern for skills acquired in graduate programs in Higher Education was one facet of a dissertation by Carl Blackwell (1972) in which recipients of the doctoral degree were surveyed to determine if certain knowledge and skills inherent in program content were indeed acquired and regarded as useful. A notable finding of the study was that 34 percent of the recipients surveyed reported that abilities and knowledge related to general education were essential. In particular, graduates felt that the command of a broad field of knowledge acquired during graduate training was essential to the performance of their professional activities (p. 60). Blackwell's overall conclusions regarding the doctoral programs at Florida State University and their relationship to later career service and satisfaction of graduates reflected that programs did not provide sufficient skills, knowledge, and abilities related to general education in order to prepare successfully graduates for their careers.

Many calls for reform in professional preparation come from recent program graduates. Emphasizing the emerging status of Higher Education, much of this literature is found in dissertations. In a sense, these studies mark an effort to develop theory and validate findings by way of establishing a knowledge base for the profession. Researchers look for trends and the persistence of these trends in order to measure the professionalization of the field. William Carr's dissertation (1974) examined over time the
competencies acquired by program graduates. Overall, 84 percent of the graduates in his study regarded their graduate training as relevant to professional duties. However, those graduates surveyed cited certain competencies that should have been further developed in their professional preparation. Among these competencies were problem solving and decision making, planning techniques, and interpersonal diplomacies. It can be argued that these graduates' training experience could have been enhanced by greater emphasis being placed on the skills associated with the general education experience, thinking and problem-solving.

Another aspect of professions education addressed in the literature is the question of specialization and its place in the educational process. This concern was addressed in Davidson's (1953) examination of the development of graduate programs in education at several universities. He sought information on how institutions prepared educational professionals, instructors and administrators, policy makers and researchers. Davidson found that while education had secured a place in the ranks of the professions, the graduate faculty felt the experience of the student should be enhanced by providing a required core of subjects before specialization was undertaken. Davidson suggested that this was particularly critical for Higher Education program graduates who were presumed to be potential leaders in education thought and policy. Breadth was essential for these programs vis-à-vis the professional area of expertise unique to their graduates.
The Curriculum: Common Body of Knowledge

Other aspects of professions education have been the subject of dissertations. A persistent concern is the identification of the common body of knowledge of the field. Andrew Currie conducted a study (1968) to identify the field by means of content analysis. Currie sought to determine if the field existed as a body of information and concepts (facts, theories, methodologies) organized in a framework of unique concern as presented in the literature of that field. His study tested for the common body of knowledge by examining the literature for vocabulary unique to the field of Higher Education. He concluded that although specialized terms and concepts of the field could be obtained from the core of literature and that this knowledge was unique, the field had not developed beyond elementary stages (p. 56).

The common core of knowledge and skills associated with a professions education is generally regarded to be reflected in the curriculum. The curriculum is the focus of concern in defining the profession and its educational process. It is in this area that some richness in the literature of Higher Education can be found. The studies summarized in the following paragraphs present a view of the development of the common body of knowledge of Higher Education as presented in the curriculum.

Early studies on the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education focused on the number and nature of courses offered. In his 1952 dissertation on the development of instructional courses,
Burns Young summarized the status and content of courses in Higher Education at thirty-one institutions for the period 1949–50. Courses were grouped into one of four areas: general, administration, curriculum, or student personnel work. He found that the number of courses in each area increased proportionally with the age of the program, but the total number of courses offered was hardly overwhelming. Of the total number of instructional courses offered (n = 85), 47 percent were classified as general, 25 percent were concerned with administration, 14 percent with curriculum, and 14 percent with student personnel. Young concluded that Higher Education would not become an important field until the professoriate saw that institutions of higher education have careful and continuous study and that study was further developed. He saw this taking place when the two goals of instruction for preparation of postsecondary instructors and of studying higher education as an important social institution converged more fully.

A later review of the status of Higher Education as a field of interest was undertaken as a dissertation by John Ewing in 1963; the findings were reported by Ewing in a 1964 article co-authored with Hugh Stickler. The findings of this study provide a basis for comparison with Young's (1952) findings. Ewing surveyed eighty-seven colleges and universities in 1962–63 and grouped the total of 560 courses into the following seven areas (percentages are relative to total number): general descriptive and analytical (17 percent), administration and organization (11 percent), curriculum
and programs (8 percent), student personnel work (16 percent), specialized and other (13 percent) (1964, p. 400). Ewing concluded his study with comments regarding the relationship between the number and nature of instructional courses in Higher Education and a possible core program. He urged further inquiry into the distribution of the subject matter of Higher Education.

Dressel and Mayhew have long concerned themselves with the development of Higher Education. In their pivotal work *Higher Education as a Field of Study* (1974), the curriculum of graduate programs is addressed to the fullest extent to date. Surveying sixty-seven programs, Dressel and Mayhew were able to describe a loosely delineated core and the specialties associated with professions education in Higher Education.

According to Dressel and Mayhew, three types of programs prepare professionals in Higher Education. The first type was found in institutions willing and able to provide support for the scholarly talent needed. The programs at UCLA, Stanford, Florida State, and Columbia are examples given of this type. A second type of program, smaller and more local in perspective, serves the host institution and neighboring ones in the objective of professional development. The staff is smaller, and a larger number of students attend part-time. The curriculum here is limited and courses oriented toward application. Dressel and Mayhew list Southern Illinois, Arizona State, and the programs at the Universities of Washington and Pittsburgh as examples. The third type of program
is more hybrid than the others; a less formal core curriculum exists. These departments are associated with colleges of education (e.g., Old Dominion University).

Of particular concern to Dressel and Mayhew were program objectives to be accomplished by the curriculum. Overall, they found these confusing and unclear. Citing Florida State's goals of providing "general education of American higher education [and] specialized knowledge of one area" (p. 36) and Berkeley's "concern for prevalent social and educational problems, and a commitment to broadening the accessibility of higher education to all" (p. 36), Dressel and Mayhew discussed objectives concerned with providing "humanizing ideas and an awareness of the social implications of decisions and actions" (p. 37). One of the observations reported in their study suggested that the service activities have weakened the quality of instruction and research. According to Dressel and Mayhew, consistent goals have apparently yet to be realized in Higher Education programs.

Needless to say, the curriculum employed to carry out these objectives and goals might very well be highly fragmented, a common criticism of these programs according to Dressel and Mayhew (1974). They found highly structured curriculum in some programs. In some cases, the number of specialties or areas of emphasis highlighted the complexity of the curricula. Dressel and Mayhew cited twenty-eight authorized specialties, ten recurring frequently, including academic administration (in forty-eight of fifty-five programs),
student personnel administration (thirty-eight), community college administration (thirty-one), financial administration (twenty-one), institutional research (twenty-one), research (twenty), and planning (seventeen). Teaching occurred as a specialty eighteen times.

These specialties are frequently reflected in formal degree requirements; other times the dissertation represented an informal specialty. Generally, degree requirements or recommendations in doctoral programs in Higher Education utilized a combination of the following elements: core requirements in education, core requirements in Higher Education, requirements in research methodology, a specialty in Higher Education, practicum and/or internship, a minor within education, a minor or cognate outside education, foreign language or substitute, and the dissertation (p. 59). No program, however, requires all these experiences. The greatest variations are found in the core requirements in education, Higher Education, internship, the specialty, foreign language, and the dissertation, according to Dressel and Mayhew (1974).

Some programs specify the completion for doctoral students of a core in Higher Education. The distribution of this core has been reported above. The exact content of the core of the curriculum has been of great concern to researchers in Higher Education, including Dressel and Mayhew, since it is upon the curriculum that the unique skills and knowledge of the profession can be defended. In reporting their impressions of programs in Higher Education, Dressel and Mayhew stated that many courses were merely descriptive and
overemphasized current issues. Courses rarely presented a consistent framework or a consistent set of theoretical presuppositions. The researchers attributed this to the descriptive quality of the literature and to the youth of the field. Additionally, the literature lacked a unique theory and fit into no one theoretical base. Efforts to develop a curriculum based on a consistent interdisciplinary core or theory data were reported by Mayhew in a follow-up study (1974).

In a 1980 dissertation, Basil tested both Dressel and Mayhew's typology as well as the content of a common core. Among the findings reported in this study is the negation of the contention that curricula differs by program typology. This reinforces the consistency of the unique knowledge and skills associated with Higher Education. The content of the core examined in this study substantiated the findings of Overholt (1967) but indicated that the courses common to the curricula of Higher Education had expanded, an indication that professional preparation in Higher Education has become more professionalized in the sense of having more information and/or more perspectives to offer.

There is reason to believe that Higher Education has continued to move along the continuum of professionalization. The number of programs preparing professionals has increased dramatically. According to the most recent survey (March 1984), compiled by Glenn Nelson and Patricia Crosson for the Association for the Study of Higher Education and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education,
ninety programs are in existence. If interest in studying Higher Education is increasing, as the existence of so many programs indicates (Budig 1984), one might assume there is some agreement on the curricula of these programs, curricula which describe the profession's area of expertise, an agreement which encourages the establishment of such programs.

Perhaps some of the shortfalls of the professionalization of Higher Education reported in earlier studies have been overcome. No significant studies on development of the common body of knowledge unique to Higher Education have been conducted since 1980. It was the purpose of this study to inquire into the curricula of graduate programs in Higher Education. It may be that such a study will lead to the finding that the occupation of Higher Educationist may be termed professional on the basis of the criteria discussed above. There may exist for Higher Education, as reflected in the curriculum, a collectivity of facts, facts which Goode might call natural facts, knowable by anyone, which, when placed in a unique perspective, provide the basis of the professionalism of the field. Such a finding would lend support to our uniqueness as a profession.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

The literature related to the purpose of this study suggested several guiding principals upon which the methodology was based. The most basic of these principles are that a profession is different than an occupation and that this differentiation can be defined by certain characteristics, namely, that members of a profession possess unique skills and utilize these in response to the needs of society. Because the possession of a specialized knowledge brings status and reward, most occupations aspire to professional status. However, sufficient barriers exist such that not all occupations develop along the continuum of professionalism. The range of the continuum of professionalization is from occupational activities at the low end to the activities of mature professions at the high end.

Occupations may move along the continuum, adopting various characteristics of a profession. The most distinctive characteristic is acquisition of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the profession through a process of professions education. The educational process takes place primarily through the curriculum, the courses and activities undertaken by candidates for the profession. It is through the curriculum that the uniqueness of the profession is established as the curriculum imparts knowledge and teaches skills necessary
to the maintenance of professional expertise. By examining the content of the curriculum of a professions education, a common body of knowledge and skills unique to a profession may be found.

Upon these guiding principles this study was designed. The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodology used in this study. The first two sections of the chapter are concerned with the design of the study and the sample. The third section describes the data collection procedure, and the fourth section discusses the instruments used in data collection. The last section discusses how the data are analyzed and presented.

**Design of the Study**

In order to determine the position of Higher Education along a continuum of professionalization, it was necessary to describe the curriculum. This description takes the form of a set of characteristics which describes how knowledge and skills associated with a field are dispersed through the curriculum.

Recent attempts to analyze college and university curricula have generally been undertaken by means of models. These models can provide useful perspectives in analyzing curricula, including changes in curriculum viewed over time. To be sure, studies using models have focused on undergraduate curricula, particularly the distribution of courses between general education and concentration. Nevertheless, these models can be adapted to the analysis of graduate curricula.
There are a number of models of curriculum analysis that have emerged in recent years (Axelrod 1968; Mayhew and Ford 1971; Bergquist 1977, 1981; Blackburn et al. 1976; Conrad 1978; Conrad and Pratt 1983). These systematic attempts to describe and analyze curricula have had purposes which have been applied to various components of the curriculum. The model chosen to guide this study (Conrad 1978) was selected on the basis of two criteria: (1) it employs the idea of a continuum in describing a curriculum and, (2) it identifies those curricular characteristics which can be identified with the mature professions.

All but a few professions education curricula are organized around the field of interest—the core of knowledge and skills unique to the profession. The emphasis given characteristics of that organization can be described by the following four continua identified by Conrad's model (1978):

1. Locus of learning: campus-based classroom learning—experiential learning
2. Curriculum content: breadth—depth
3. Design of program: faculty—contractual—student

These continua describe how the knowledge and skills of the profession are organized and emphasized.

This study, based on the framework and the research questions, looked at Higher Education curriculum through the examination of course-taking behavior of students and information provided by transcripts, catalogs and student program handbooks. The study
was comprised of two phases. Phase I examined catalog information and specific student program handbooks. These materials were used to locate courses vis-à-vis two of the continua: design of program and flexibility of program. Phase II examined transcripts to distinguish information about the content of the curriculum as it relates to a common core of knowledge and skills and to the other two continua in the model: breadth versus depth and locus of learning and to the existence and nature of courses common to Higher Education. The transcripts provide the primary data base for the study. In order to provide a basis for comparison of development toward a common core, the study focused on two time frames, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

**The Sample**

A theoretical sample of three leading centers/programs in Higher Education was selected for the purpose of this study. All three belong to Dressel and Mayhew's (1974) Type I program and were selected from Type I institutions based on the following criteria: (1) centers are nationally oriented, maintaining a national perspective on the study of higher education; (2) the faculty members have national visibility; (3) the center/program generates significant research in the field; and (4) the students experience a kind of socialization believed to be representative of professions education in Higher Education. Based on these criteria, the following programs were selected for the sample: Indiana University; Teachers College, Columbia University; and the University of Michigan.
Data Collection and Instrumentation

To describe both past and current emphasis in Higher Education curricula, data grids were adapted from a previous curriculum study (Blackburn et al. 1976). These figures were used to tabulate the 1972-73 and 1982-83 catalog, student program handbook, and transcript information from each sample program. The following items were tabulated:

Figure 4 (Continua 1 and 2)
- Total hours taken
- Total research hours
- Hours in breadth
- Hours in depth
- Time frame

Figure 5 (Continua 3 and 4)
- Total program hours
- Of courses noted, which are required or recommended
- Of these, which are in Higher Education
- Of required or recommended courses not in Higher Education, what is area
- Breakdown of requirements according to area

The transcripts were used to identify the presence or absence of unique knowledge and skills as reflected in courses.

The two grids may be regarded as instruments. Catalogs and student program handbooks also served as instruments inasmuch as they were used to partially categorize information.
Date __________________________
Institution ____________________
Number of Hours Taken __________
Student Identification __________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. BREADTH</th>
<th>2. DEPTH</th>
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<tr>
<td>Core Courses in Higher Education</td>
<td>Additional Courses in Higher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Hours:</td>
<td>Total Hours:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Percentage of Total Program:</td>
<td>Percentage of Total Program:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. EDUCATION COURSES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field Experience Hours:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Total Program:</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. OUT-OF-EDUCATION COURSES</th>
<th>5. RESEARCH</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Hours:</td>
<td>Independent Study:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Total Program:</td>
<td>Dissertation:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Breadth Hours: Total Depth Hours:
Total Breadth Percentage: Total Depth Percentage:
(B = 1 + 3 + 4) (D = 2 + 5)

Figure 4. Transcript Information.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course/Area</th>
<th>Required</th>
<th>Recommended</th>
<th>Number of Hours</th>
<th>Percentage of Program</th>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Internships/Practicum/Field Experience</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Dissertation</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Minimum Program Hours**

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*Figure 5. Catalog and Student Handbook Information*
Data Analysis

The information provided by the catalogs, student program handbooks, and transcripts was recorded on the grids directly; no transliteration was necessary. After tabulation, the findings were related to each of the four continua of the model. Additional comments about the common core of knowledge and skills unique to the profession of Higher Education were made based on the consistency of course-taking behavior as reflected on the transcripts. Based on these findings, the status of the professions education of Higher Education as reflected in curricular characteristics vis-à-vis other professions was made. A second observation about the status of Higher Education as a profession based on overall criteria was made.

The Continua: Rationale and Evidence for Placement

In order to provide a framework for interpreting the findings, the results were compared to descriptions of other professions education curricula. Theoretical samples from four fields of study were drawn for comparative purposes. The disciplines or fields of study were library science, law, medicine, and business (accounting programs at the undergraduate and MBA programs at the graduate level). Law and medicine are generally regarded as mature professions in the literature; business and library science were chosen as contrasting cases since there is substantial and increasing interest in their emergence as professions as indicated in the literature.

The method used to obtain information about curricula as they are described by the continua (Conrad 1978) used in this study
is straightforward. For law and medicine, catalogs from programs at the institutions sampled for this study were surveyed. It was assumed that professions education across disciplines in the same institution would reflect similar philosophies (Davidson 1953). Where no program was offered, a national reference source was consulted such as the AMA Curriculum Committee's yearly report for medicine, or, in the case of law, law librarians were surveyed in order to obtain a consensus on program content. Where applicable, these two techniques also were used as a secondary source for placement of the curricula along the continua. In business, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accreditation standards were used as the primary source for placement of curricula along the continua. As a secondary authority, a dean of a school of business also was interviewed. (It also is noted that a member of the researcher's committee is a faculty member in business and was interviewed regarding placement along the continua.) For librarians, American Library Association accreditation standards were reviewed. Additionally, three librarians with accreditation experience were interviewed. The placement of these four fields of study along the four continua reflects the synthesis of this research effort.

For the purposes of this study, the distinction between classroom and experiential learning is slightly modified. Classroom instruction which includes laboratory, demonstration, and observation work is carried out under direct supervision. Experiential or field work is carried out under general supervision, often without
a supervisor or instructor present. This distinction enables the criteria to be compared across occupations since the evidence varies from occupation to occupation.

Medicine

Medical college curricula have become fairly standardized; the Flexner report at the turn of the century helped to encourage the medical profession's control over training for that profession. The development of the scientific base of medicine also played a notable role in this standardization (Hughes et al. 1973), and the basic framework of medical training has not been altered significantly since the reforms resulting from the Flexner report.

This standardization was confirmed by sampling medical college curricula. This review of selected medical college curricula found that in pre-internship work, the course work of medical education dealing with introductory and basic survey information comprises 42 percent of the total curriculum. These introductory courses provide the knowledge base of the profession, the breadth upon which attitudes and specializations are laid. The remainder of the pre-internship curriculum is devoted to in-depth exposure to the various specialties of the profession, often called clerkships. While this study acknowledges that most of this clerkship phase involves direct observation, experiential learning in terms of the first continuum of the model used in this study, the clerkship has been regarded as demonstration, part of classroom instruction and learning. Therefore, in regard to the first of the continua, locus of learning, medical training has taken a traditional position
on the continuum, emphasizing the classroom instruction mode as the means of dispersal of knowledge and skills.

Here the first indication of some problem of face validity arises. The common perception of medical education probably is that it is one of the most experienced based professional study programs. However, due to the operational definition used and the limitation of pre-internship education, medicine is viewed herein as non-experiential.

For the second continuum, curriculum content, this professions education has struck a balance on a near fifty-fifty distribution between breadth and depth. Forty-two percent of the curriculum is devoted to breadth; the remainder is composed of course work in depth. However, students may elect to broaden their base of knowledge rather than choose specialties.

In two-thirds of the medical college curricula examined, electives were part of the curriculum. Only 5 percent of the curriculum can be determined by the student (outside of the medical field). Only a fourth of the curricula has stated requirements of "humanities elective." The vast majority of electives were choices from within clerkships, other specialties of medicine students may choose to explore. Electives generally occupy about half of the curriculum. However, there exists no real elective mode to medical education in terms of balancing the exact knowledge and skills of the profession with the knowledge base of another discipline or field. In short, medical professions education is highly restricted in regard to the fourth continuum.
The third continuum, purposely examined last, overrides the fourth. The design of the curricula and the flexibility of the curricula are both controlled by the faculty, especially in terms of the responsibility of preparing students for licensing. Even the presence of electives does not significantly shift the balance on these last continua much toward student control or toward flexibility. The profession exerts substantial control over the knowledge base of the profession in medical education in terms of the manner in which it is dispersed.

In summary, the evidence suggests that medical curricula as described by the Conrad model would fall into the following distributions:

1. Locus of Learning: Classroom instruction is the traditional locus of dispersal of knowledge in medical curricula. Nearly all pre-internship work in medical education is conducted through lectures, which are illustrated by observations and also involve demonstrations. Both demonstrations and observations are regarded as classroom experience for the purposes of this study.

2. Curriculum Content: The curriculum of medical education is distributed nearly equally between breadth and depth. Forty-two percent of the curriculum is devoted to breadth coursework while the remainder is given over to coursework in depth.

3. Design of Program: Since only 5 percent of the curriculum can be determined in terms of non-medical courses by the
student, the program in medicine is strongly under the control of the faculty.

4. Flexibility of Program: Following the logic of the distribution along continua three, medical curricula are not flexible since there is very little choice of coursework outside medicine (less than 5 percent).

Law

Although law schools are not as closely controlled as medical schools, they have concentrated around one pattern of training (Thorne 1973). Both curricula and teaching methods are uniform and in general have not been changed much since the late 1800s; in addition, length and sequence are currently homogeneous, and specializations have generally been avoided. Specialization does, however, become evident in practice. Carlin (1966) found lawyers' specializations followed a social stratification pattern. Twenty-one percent of the lawyers in his study specialized in large businesses and industrial clients whose contacts with courts were on the federal level. The other lawyers in his study became increasingly more generalist in the nature of their practice as the social status of their clientele declined; the lawyers with the least affluent and lowest-status clients tended to practice individually or in small firms.

As the law becomes more complex, specialization in practice is becoming more common and desirable. The American Association of Law Schools' curriculum committee has suggested changing the curriculum to reflect the philosophy of medical colleges. Two
years of a standardized curriculum would become the basic professional degree. Specialization would be conducted through the third year of study; such a system also would provide for training in research and teaching leading to the doctorate (Thorne 1973).

Even though discussion of reform is commonplace, the curricula of law schools remain fairly rigid. A sampling of law school curricula through catalogs reveals the following requirements for the professional degree: three years (six semesters) are required for residence; the total number of hours required for the degree averages 87.5 credit hours; of these hours, 37.5 percent are required, and all of these latter hours are to be taken in the first year. The first year curriculum is composed of seven courses. The content, texts, and method of instruction in these courses are highly standardized.

Therefore, the evidence suggests that law school curricula compare with the continua of the Conrad model in the following distributions:

1. Locus of learning: Classroom instruction is emphasized in law school curricula. While moot court is part of the advanced (second and third years) curricula, the mainstay of legal education is traditional classroom instruction.

2. Curriculum content: The curricula of law schools can be viewed as providing programs balancing 37.5 percent in breadth and 62.5 percent in depth, with the former percentage reflecting the first year required curriculum. However, much of the literature on legal education suggests that only in a few schools does any real specialization occur
before graduation (Thorne 1973). Accordingly, this study assumes that the curricula of law schools emphasize breadth rather than depth. Here another potential difference in judgment may arise—the question of common perception versus operational definition. In the view of some, legal education may be seen as narrow in that the legal curriculum focuses almost exclusively on the law. However, as viewed from the operational definition, legal education is seen as quite broad. If the preparation of lawyers were defined as including all postsecondary study, the popular perception of the profession of lawyers would conform better to the placement of law in Figure 7.

3. Design of the program: Following the logic applied to the previous continua, the design of the program in law schools is controlled by the faculty to the extent of the first-year curriculum (37.5 percent). Students may select the content of their advanced curricula, although the total length of the program is controlled by the faculty.

4. Flexibility of the program: Law school curricula, again based on the logic of the previous statements, can be described as fairly heavily required (37.5 percent). Distribution requirements do not exist as such, though it can be assumed that certain distribution is suggested by the content of the bar examination.
Library Science

Professional librarian preparation also focuses on the various ends of the training. Specialization generally exists in one of four areas: academic, public, school, or special collections. Within the specialization, the pattern of the curricula remains consistent. Certainly, the role of accreditation of programs is significant here. The dispersal of the unique knowledge and skills of librarianship through the curriculum can be described as follows vis-à-vis the Conrad continua:

1. Locus of learning: Most curricula followed the traditional dispersal method of classroom instruction. Much of the survey course work involved actual hands-on experience with the tools and technology of the professions, but in general this is not considered field work but rather demonstration. Few programs require internships (Grattan 1984). In library science another possible objection to the operational definition occurs. What is "experience" to one profession may be seen in a somewhat different light in another. The "experience" of fields like library science, medical technology, chemistry, engineering, and architecture may be precisely the kind of experience gained in regular classrooms and laboratories. Yet, these educational approaches are not considered as experiential under the operational definition.

2. Curriculum content: Of the thirty-six hours required for the professional degree, 75-83 percent is concerned with
course work in breadth. The programs allow for only one or two second courses in any given area of study.

3. Design of program: National accreditation of graduate programs severely limits student choice. Approximately 17 percent of a given professions education experience can be described as student determined by elective selection. Additionally, it is generally understood that these electives will be in the field. Students desiring to develop an expertise outside library science are encouraged to take a second master's rather than to incorporate course work into the M.L.S. (Grattan 1984).

4. Flexibility of program: Curricula in library science are relatively inflexible. This is a result of both specialization in program and of program accreditation by the American Librarian Association. Accreditation has also played an important role in the content of professional preparation for business fields. In addition to having stated purposes set down by the AACSB for the curricula of business programs, the particular content is structured around specific distribution requirements. In attempts to fulfill the purpose of providing a broad education based on cross-disciplinary experience, the curricula as framed by accreditation standards of two business professions education may be described in relationship to the continua of the model used in this study (Conrad 1978) as follows:
1. Locus of learning: Classroom based instruction is the typical method of dispersal of knowledge and skills in both accounting and MBA programs. Few programs in either field of interest emphasize field work, although the use of the case study method in MBA programs is an attempt to learn the knowledge and skills of the profession through simulated experiential instruction. Still, business programs utilize traditional classroom instruction as the typical mode. Again, there may be some difference in opinion or judgment here. For example, the practice of accounting is very similar to the experience obtained in some practical accounting classes; however, this class work would not be considered as experiential under the operational definition.

2. Curriculum content: At the baccalaureate level (accounting), 40 percent of the upper-division course work is devoted to studies in business administration and economics (AACSB 1983-84). This is best described as a breadth emphasis, since further accreditation guidelines suggest that between 15-25 percent of the remaining curriculum be devoted to courses in the discipline of accounting. The remainder of the curriculum of the upper division is to be devoted to courses in business administration with special relation to the needs of accounting (AACSB 1983-84). In general, students do not enter business courses until they have completed their general education, lower-division course work. Further indication of the breadth emphasis of this
preparation for MBA students is that 67 percent of the course work must be from the "common body of knowledge" (p. 27). One-half of the remainder should be devoted to a speciality. Again, the meaning of breadth versus depth is a contextual matter involving somewhat arbitrary judgments.

3. Design of program: Faculty control the content of business curricula in terms of fulfilling accreditation standards. As in library science, students wishing to develop an expertise not directly falling under business are encouraged to take other master's work.

4. Flexibility of program: Curricula in business education is described more as required than as contractual or student determined; less than 15 percent of a total program either in accounting or for an MBA can be described as elective in nature.

Figure 6 presents a summary of the criteria and evidence for placement of each occupation along the continua of the Conrad model.

Summary

It is against these generalized descriptions of professions education that the information obtained in this study was measured. The curricula of graduate programs in Higher Education are described in terms of the four continua of the Conrad model (1978) compared to curricula of selected professions education, and then Higher Education is placed along the continuum of professionalization.
### Continua of Conrad Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupations</th>
<th>Locus of Learning</th>
<th>Breadth vs. Depth</th>
<th>Design of Program</th>
<th>Flexibility of Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>Criteria: Percent-</td>
<td>Criteria: Percent-</td>
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<td>Criteria: Amount of</td>
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<td>age of course</td>
<td>of program left</td>
<td>coursework open to</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ab experience</td>
<td>distribution of</td>
<td>to student</td>
<td>student determination.</td>
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<td>under supervision</td>
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<td>determination.</td>
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<td>Evidence: Cur-</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricu-</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricula</td>
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<td>age of distribu-</td>
<td>of program hours</td>
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<td>tion of basic vs.</td>
<td>designed by</td>
<td>open to student</td>
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<td>field work.</td>
<td>specialization</td>
<td>student.</td>
<td>determination.</td>
</tr>
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<td>coursework.</td>
<td>Evidence: Curri-</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricula</td>
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<td>ricula as de-</td>
<td>as described in</td>
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<td></td>
<td>in catalogs.</td>
<td></td>
<td>scribed in</td>
<td>catalogs.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Library</td>
<td>Criteria: Percent-</td>
<td>Criteria: Percent-</td>
<td>Criteria: Amount</td>
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<td>age of distribu-</td>
<td>of program hours</td>
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<td>demonstration</td>
<td>tion of survey</td>
<td>designed by</td>
<td>open to student</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>vs. field work</td>
<td>coursework vs.</td>
<td>student.</td>
<td>determination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experience.</td>
<td>specialization.</td>
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</tr>
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Figure 6. Criteria and Evidence for Placement of Various Occupations Along Continua
Figure 6, continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locus of Learning</th>
<th>Breadth vs. Depth</th>
<th>Design of Program</th>
<th>Flexibility of Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library Science</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.</td>
<td>Evidence: Curricula as described by librarians and in catalogs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupations</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Locus of Learning

Campus-based classroom learning, supervised

Experiential learning, only generally supervised

2. Curriculum Content

Breadth

Depth

3. Design of Program

Faculty

Contractual Student

4. Flexibility of Program

Required

Distribution

Elective

Figure 7. Dispersal of Knowledge and Skills of Various Professions Education.
The Continuum of Professionalization

Such placements along the continua of the Conrad model are arbitrary, based on estimates drawn from the literature. So too, then, is the placement of these various occupations along a continuum of professionalization although the decisions are more literature based than the previous placements. Assuming law and medicine to be the most professionalized, the occupations may be placed along a continuum of professionalization as illustrated in Figure 8.

| Library Science | Business | Law | Medicine |

Less professionalized More professionalized

Figure 8. Placement of Various Occupations on a Continuum of Professionalization

As previously acknowledged, most curriculum studies are conducted via testing of models. Although part of the method of this study involved the testing of a model, specifically Conrad (1978), the first three research questions were addressed utilizing transcript analysis. Additionally, catalogs and program handbooks provided evidence of trends for the purposes of this study, but these alone ignored student behavior. Dressel and DeLisle (1969) concluded that curriculum trends as described by insufficient source catalogs are full of inconsistencies left up to individual interpretation by students, advisors, and departments. Transcript analysis
as an approach to describing curriculum has been successfully used to measure directly the content of the curriculum in several studies. Several of these are of note in relation to this study.

In his study to describe the similarity of programs for history majors at the undergraduate level, Warren (1975) analyzed course-selection patterns as revealed in transcripts. Blackburn and associates (1976) used transcript analysis to examine curriculum change in general education. The impact of this touchstone study on the formation of this current study was acknowledged earlier. Much of the curriculum literature cites the Blackburn study for being able to answer questions for which speculation had previously had to serve as fact. There is little doubt that transcripts analysis provides a more accurate picture of educational practices than do catalog and program handbook-based studies. In this study, transcript analysis has suggested new research approaches to describing the content of professions education.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research results of this study of professions education in Higher Education. Certain characteristics of the curriculum were examined, both in isolation and in relation to the status of the profession of Higher Education.

The findings reported in this chapter are presented sequentially in response to the research questions that guided the study:

1. Is there concurrence on the shared content in the graduate program curriculum in Higher Education? If so, is there more constancy in 1982-83 than in 1972-73?

2. Is there a balance of classroom and experiential learning emphasis in the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education programs as there is in the mature professions?

3. Is there an emphasis on balance between breadth and depth in the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education as there is in the mature professions?

4. Is there faculty control over the content of the curriculum in graduate programs in Higher Education as there is in the mature professions education?

5. Is the curriculum of Higher Education prescribed as it is in the mature professions?
6. Can characteristics of a curriculum be used to measure professionalization of a field?

7. Where along the continuum of professionalization can Higher Education be placed in terms of certain characteristics of the curriculum?

In this chapter, the results will be discussed in reference to the continua of the Conrad model (1978). A comparison of the characteristics of the curriculum to those of the mature professions will be presented in Chapter V.

**Research Question 1: Shared Content**

Based on examination of student transcripts, Table 1 displays the ten courses taken most frequently by University of Michigan Higher Education students who were graduated during the academic years 1972-73 and 1982-83. The five courses most often taken for the 1972-73 time frame were Seminar, College Organization and Administration, Financial Administration of Higher Education, Community College, and Higher Education in America. For the 1982-83 graduates, Seminar, History and Philosophy of Education, College Organization and Administration, the Community College, and Higher Education in America were taken most frequently. Seminar, College Organization and Administration, Community College, Higher Education in America, College Student, College and University Professor, and Curriculum Planning and Administration at the College Level are the courses held common most frequently to both time frames.
Table 1. The Ten Most Frequently Taken Courses in Higher Education, by Rank Order, at the University of Michigan for 1972-73 and 1982-83 Graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>College Organization and Administration</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>History and Philosophy of Education</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Financial Administration of Higher Education</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>College Organization and Administration</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Community College</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Financial Administration of Higher Education</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Higher Education in America</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Higher Education in America</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Research*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Curriculum Planning and Administration at the College Level</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>College Student</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Community College</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>College and University Professor</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>College Teaching</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Introduction to Higher Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>College Student</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Curriculum Planning</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1, continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>State Government and Higher Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>College and University Professor</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excludes dissertation registration
Table 2. The Ten Most Frequently Taken Courses in Higher Education, by Rank Order, at Teachers College, Columbia University for 1972-73 and 1982-83 Graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Research*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization and Administration of Higher Education Institutions</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Student Personnel Administration</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>History and Theory</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Organization and Administration of Higher Education Institutions</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Higher Education Finance</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Purpose and Policies of Higher Education</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Purpose and Policies of Higher Education</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>American Student and His College</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Student Personnel Administration</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Higher Education Finance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Community Junior College</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2, continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>History and Theory of Higher Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>American Student and His College</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Adult Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excludes dissertation registration
Table 2 presents information from transcripts of students who graduated from Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1972-73 and 1982-83. The five courses taken most frequently by the 1972-73 graduates were Seminar, Research, Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education, Student Personnel Administration, Organization and Administration of Higher Education Institutions, and Purposes and Policies of Higher Education. For the 1982-83 graduates, Seminar, Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education, Organization and Administration of Higher Education Institutions, History and Theory of Higher Education, and Higher Education Finance were the courses taken most frequently. Courses in Seminar, Research, Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education, Student Personnel Administration, Organization and Administration of Higher Education Institutions, Purposes and Policies of Higher Education, American Student and His College, and History and Theory of Higher Education were courses held common for the two time frames.

Table 3 displays the data regarding the ten most frequently taken Higher Education courses at Indiana University for students graduating in academic years 1972-73 and 1982-83. For the 1972-73 graduates, Seminar, Financing Higher Education, Administration of Higher Education, Legal Aspects of Higher Education, and Academic Problems in Higher Education were the courses taken most often. For the 1982-83 graduates, the courses taken most often were Seminar, Administration of Higher Education, Financing Higher Education, Personnel Work in Colleges, and the Academic Problems in Higher
Table 3. The Ten Most Frequently Taken Courses in Higher Education, by Rank Order, at Indiana University for 1972-73 and 1982-83 Graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Problems in Financing Higher Education</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Administration of Higher Education</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Administration of Higher Education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Financing of Higher Education</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Legal Aspects of Higher Education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Personnel Work in Colleges</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Academic Problems</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Academic Problems</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Higher Education in the U.S.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Higher Education in the U.S.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Junior and Community College</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Legal Aspects of Higher Education</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Personnel Work in Colleges</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Junior and Community College</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Philosophy of Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Course Title</td>
<td>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Course Title</td>
<td>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Comparative Higher Education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excludes dissertation registration
Education. The courses held in common most frequently to both
time frames are Seminar, Financing Higher Education, Administration
of Higher Education, Legal Aspects of Higher Education, Academic
Problems of Higher Education, Higher Education in the U.S., Personnel
Work in Colleges, the Junior and Community College, and Research.

Based on the sample of three institutions, a summary of
the ten most frequently taken courses in Higher Education graduate
programs is presented in Table 4. Courses are grouped into areas
of similar content based on title and content as described in each
institution's catalog. For the 1972-73 graduates, Seminar, Organization
and Administration, Finance, the Community and Junior College,
Research, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, the College
Student, Introduction to Higher Education, and History and Philosophy
of Education were the most frequently taken courses. For 1982-
83 graduates, courses in Seminar, Organization and Administration,
Finance, History and Philosophy of Education, Higher Education
in America, Curriculum, the Community and Junior College, Academic
Problems, the College Student, and College Teaching were most frequently
taken. Eight courses persisted across the two time frames of the
study: Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, History
and Philosophy, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, the Community
and Junior College, and the College Student.

In order to examine the extent of concurrence as regards
the shared content in Higher Education programs, a Kruskal-Wallis
One-Way Analysis of Variance test was used to compare the rankings
Table 4. The Ten Most Frequently Taken Courses in Higher Education, by Rank Order, for Sample Institutions for 1972-73 and 1982-83 Graduates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1972-73 Graduates</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Frequencies for 1982-83 Graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Seminar</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization and Administration</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Organization and Administration</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Community/Junior College</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>History and Philosophy</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Research*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Higher Education in America</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Higher Education in America</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Community/Junior College</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>College Student</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Academic Problems</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Introduction to Higher Education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>College Student</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>History and Philosophy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>College Teaching</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Excludes dissertation registration
of course offerings across all three of the sample institutions. The Kruskal-Wallis test was significant at the \( p < .01 \) level (df = 22, df = 27) for both time frames examined, and thus the hypothesis was accepted that there was significant agreement as regards the content of the curriculum of graduate programs in Higher Education for both 1972-73 and 1982-83. Since there was significant agreement on the shared content in both time periods, the question of constancy across the time frames is moot. The most frequently taken courses in Higher Education and then relative rankings have persisted over time.

Discussion

Based on the assumption that course-taking behavior can measure and describe the common curriculum of a professions education, the evidence presented here establishes that there is significant agreement on the courses found in the core of graduate programs in Higher Education. This core, described best by the five ranks of most frequently taken courses as identified above, has persisted across two time periods, though two courses identified as core courses in 1972-73 (Research and the Community/Junior College) have been replaced by two lower ranking courses in the most recent period. In the context of these overall findings, it is illuminating to discuss the relative rankings of individual courses across the two time periods.

Seminar, Organization and Administration, and Finance courses have occupied the first three ranks over the two time frames of
the study. The fourth rank has shifted from coursework in the Community College during the 1972-73 time period to coursework in History and Philosophy of Education for the 1982-83 period. Courses in Higher Education in America have persisted at the fifth rank, and Curriculum work ranks sixth and seventh in frequency of courses taken over the time frames of the study. Courses on the College Student occupy ranks 8 and 9, respectively, in 1972-73 and 1982-83.

While coursework in Research and introductory survey did not appear in the latter time frame of the study, there has been little shift in the rankings of the most frequently taken courses occupying the first seven ranks across the two time frames. This set of courses can be said to describe the unique skills and knowledge of Higher Education as based on the literature of this study. This core, as reflected on transcripts from the three sample institutions for the 1982-83 time frame, now consists of coursework in Seminar, Organization and Administration, Finance, History and Philosophy of Education, Curriculum, and the Community and Junior College. This core of six courses is similar to that described by Dressel and Mayhew in 1974. They reported that core requirements in Higher Education usually involved three to six courses. Additionally, they reported a typical core as being composed of a Foundations course (Introduction, Nature, Issues), Student Personnel Work, Community College, and Administration. Courses in Teaching, Curriculum, and History often were found in cores.
The findings of this study do not disagree with Dressel and Mayhew's findings save for the presence of the finance course and the lesser emphasis given to student personnel work as found in this study. It seems likely that the emergence of the finance course is associated with the increased emphasis on fiscal planning for institutions of higher education and the development of finance experts within the ranks of the Higher Education professoriate. It is possible that the inconsistency of student personnel work is a result of the separation of that concentration from Higher Education as was suggested by Dressel and Mayhew (1974). Finally, the emergence of finance coursework and the shifting of coursework away from community college and student personnel work possibly reflect the changing labor market emphasis for graduates of Higher Education programs.

**Research Question 2: Locus of Learning**

Student transcripts provided the information used to address the second research question, which asked if there is a balance between classroom instruction and experiential learning in Higher Education curricula. The data presented in Tables 5-9 address the issue of balance between classroom instruction and experiential learning in Higher Education programs.

As displayed in Table 5, students graduating from the University of Michigan during the academic year 1972-73 averaged 97 percent of their coursework in traditional classroom learning and only 3 percent in nontraditional experiential learning. In 1982-83,
Table 5. Comparison Between Classroom and Experiential Learning Settings in Program as Reflected in Transcripts at the University of Michigan, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972-73</th>
<th>1982-83</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Total</td>
<td>Average Percent of</td>
<td>Average Percent of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Hours</td>
<td>Program Hours as</td>
<td>Program Hours as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Student</td>
<td>Experiential Learning</td>
<td>Classroom Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N^* = 13)</td>
<td>(N = 7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Total</td>
<td>Average Percent of</td>
<td>Average Percent of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Hours</td>
<td>Program Hours as</td>
<td>Program Hours as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Student</td>
<td>Experiential Learning</td>
<td>Classroom Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>~ 99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N = 13)</td>
<td>(N = 3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N is number of students involved
Table 6. Comparison Between Classroom and Experiential Learning Settings in Program as Reflected in Transcripts at Teachers College, Columbia University, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972-73</th>
<th>1982-83</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average Percent of</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average Percent of</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Program Hours</strong></td>
<td><strong>Program Hours as</strong></td>
<td><strong>Program Hours as</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Per Student</strong></td>
<td><strong>Experiential Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Classroom Instruction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N* = 9)</td>
<td>(N = 6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>94.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N = 10)</td>
<td>(N = 7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N is number of students involved
the percentage of classroom instruction coursework had increased slightly to 99 percent, while the number of students undertaking experiential work had decreased from 7 to 3.

At Teachers College, Columbia University, students graduating in 1972-73 averaged 95.1 percent of their work in classroom instruction, and only 4.9 percent was experiential. Six out of the nine students in the sample took experiential courses. In 1982-83, the average percentage of coursework devoted to nontraditional experiential learning rose insignificantly to 5.1 percent with 7 students involved; nearly all of students' coursework (94.9 percent) was classroom based.

Students completing the program at Indiana University in 1972-73 devoted an average of 99 percent of their coursework to traditional classroom instruction. Only two of the ten students surveyed had any experiential learning coursework. For 1982-83 graduates, a slight drop in the average number of hours taken in classroom instruction occurred, while the number of students involved in experiential learning remained the same as in 1972-73.

Table 8 compares the proportion of coursework taken in traditional classroom settings versus experiential learning settings as averaged for the total sample. No significant changes were observed from 1972-73 to 1982-83.

Discussion

Overall, the data demonstrate that the curriculum of Higher Education is characterized by an emphasis on classroom instruction
Table 7. Comparison Between Classroom and Experiential Learning Settings in Program as Reflected in Transcripts at Indiana University, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972-73</th>
<th>1982-83</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>Program Hours</strong></td>
<td><strong>Average Percent of</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Per Student</strong></td>
<td><strong>Program Hours as</strong></td>
<td><strong>Program Hours as</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Experiential Learning</strong></td>
<td><strong>Experiential Learning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 10)</td>
<td>(N = 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>102.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 6)</td>
<td>(N = 2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N is number of students involved
Table 8. Comparison Between Classroom and Experiential Learning Settings in Program as Reflected in Transcripts (Sample Average), 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972-73</th>
<th></th>
<th>1982-83</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average Total</td>
<td>Average Percent</td>
<td>Average Percent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Hours</td>
<td>of Program Hours</td>
<td>of Program Hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per Student</td>
<td>as Experiential</td>
<td>as Classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N = 32)</td>
<td>(N = 15)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N = 29)</td>
<td>(N = 12)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* N is number of students involved

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Michigan</th>
<th>Columbia</th>
<th>Indiana</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Students</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Sample</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number Taking</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course Hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Sample</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
as the locus of learning. Nearly all of the program hours are in the traditional learning setting; less than 3 percent of the programs in either 1972-73 or 1982-83 was devoted to learning in an experiential setting. In short, the curriculum in Higher Education is very traditional in terms of its locus of learning with over 97 percent of the coursework occurring in the classroom.

While the findings clearly suggest that the emphasis in Higher Education programs is on the classroom as a locus of learning, one additional observation is of note here. Table 9 provides a summary of the number and percentage of students taking experiential coursework in the sample. Although the amount of time spent remains low, there continues to be an interest on the part of students to undertake experiential work. At both Columbia and Indiana, the percentage of sampled students electing experiential work as part of their program increased over the time frames of this study, from 1972-73 to 1982-83.

The increased number of students currently interested in experiential work may be the result of faculty efforts to broaden students' experiences, or perhaps the students currently admitted to graduate programs in Higher Education are changing fields within Higher Education or lack real-world experience in higher education. For whatever reasons, students currently in graduate programs in Higher Education are seeking at least some experiential learning in their total course load.
Research Question 3: Curriculum Content

Transcripts provided the data used to address Research Question 3. This question focuses on the emphasis placed on coursework in breadth versus depth in graduate programs in Higher Education. As recorded on Figure 4, breadth was defined as the sum of three areas of coursework: core, as described above, in Higher Education; education electives not in Higher Education; and electives taken out of the College of Education. Depth was defined as the sum of two areas: courses in Higher Education outside the core and research work including the dissertation hours. Courses outside of education which dealt with topics relevant to Higher Education such as organizational theory and management were treated as coursework in breadth since their intent is to provide a broad overview. The data are reported in percentages.

The difficulty in composing these definitions may be seen by reflecting on a kind of "devil's advocate" position. For example, if an individual were "majoring" in organization and administration and that core were organization and administration, curriculum, finance, and history of higher education, whether these courses in each case represent breadth as opposed to depth is debatable. Assuming a career in academic administration, knowledge of finance and curriculum might be viewed as depth whereas the history course could be classified as a breadth course. Further, regarding electives, suppose that a student elected the following courses: complex organizations in sociology, political theory in political science,
an advanced management course, and several research classes. The first three of these might properly be considered depth rather than breadth for a person planning a career in academic administration. Such problems are inherent in curricular classification.

At the University of Michigan in 1972-73, sampled students' transcripts showed a near balance of coursework in breadth and in depth. Breadth work in the program averaged 53.7 percent, while the remaining 46.3 percent of the program was devoted to coursework in depth. In 1982-83, the emphasis had shifted to depth: 34 percent of the coursework was breadth while an average of 66 percent was depth. In depth coursework increased over 20 percent from 1972-73 to 1982-83.

At Teachers College, Columbia University, transcripts from students graduating in 1972-73 demonstrated a near balance of coursework in breadth and in depth in the Higher Education program. Breadth courses comprised 57.6 percent of students' programs; the coursework in depth averaged 42.2 percent of their total program. For 1982-83 graduates, the distribution is more balanced; 54.6 percent of the work is courses in breadth, 45.5 percent in depth.

As reported in Table 12, a close balance between emphasis on coursework in breadth and in depth was observed at Indiana University. In 1972-73, students' programs averaged 51.4 percent in breadth work; 48.6 percent of the programs were coursework in depth. For students completing programs in 1982-83, breadth composed
Table 10. Average Percentage of Coursework in Breadth Versus Depth in 1972-73 and 1982-83 at the University of Michigan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Coursework</th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>in Breadth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Courses in Higher Education</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Electives</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-Education Electives</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Breadth</strong></td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Coursework</th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>in Depth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Courses</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Depth</strong></td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11. Average Percentage of Coursework in Breadth Versus Depth in 1972-73 and 1982-83 at Teachers College, Columbia University.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Coursework</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Breadth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Courses in Higher Education</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Electives</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-Education Electives</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Breadth</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Coursework</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Depth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Courses</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Depth</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12. Average Percentage of Coursework in Breadth Versus Depth in 1972-73 and 1982-83 at Indiana University.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Coursework</th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core Courses in</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Electives</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-Education Electives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Breadth</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average Coursework</th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Depth</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
55.9 percent of the coursework taken while coursework in depth composed 44.1 percent of the programs.

Discussion

Only the University of Michigan program demonstrated any notable shift in emphasis from breadth to depth coursework over the time frame of this study. Indiana and Teachers College students' programs showed slight deviation from a balance. The shift at Michigan might be due to increased course offerings in Higher Education or may be the result of faculty and/or students' efforts to utilize coursework to develop specialties.

A composite rendering of the balance between breadth and depth coursework in Higher Education graduate programs is displayed on Table 13. As shown in the table, there has been a 6 percent shift over the time frames of the study toward an emphasis on coursework in depth. For programs completed in 1972-73, the balance was on the average 54.2 percent toward breadth work, 45.8 percent for coursework in depth. For programs in 1982-83, breadth work composed 48.2 percent of the program; 51.8 percent of the averaged programs was coursework in depth.

Course-taking behavior as reflected through the data indicates that there has been a near balance in coursework in breadth with that of depth over time. Currently, programs in Higher Education seem to be shifting slightly their emphasis toward coursework in depth. The graduate program in Higher Education as described by the sample institutions is divided between coursework in depth
Table 13. Average Percentage of Coursework in Breadth Versus Depth in 1972-73 and in 1982-83 at Sample Institutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1972</th>
<th>1982</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Breadth</td>
<td>Depth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michigan</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>57.6</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and in breadth approximately in half. Students elect coursework from areas in breadth with about the same frequency as they select work in depth. They experience a broad base of coursework upon which they build a substantial depth coursework experience in their professions education.

Research Question 4: Design of Program

It was found that the intent of this question could be addressed with that of question 5. Therefore, both questions will be answered simultaneously.

Research Question 5: Flexibility of Program

The information recorded on Figure 5 was used to respond to this research question which focuses on the amount of faculty prescription of graduate programs in Higher Education. The information came from program handbooks and catalogs of the institutions sampled. Additionally, an assessment of the intent of Research Question 4 suggests both questions can be answered simultaneously.

Table 14 summarizes the program requirements on terms of their distribution at the University of Michigan for both 1972-73 and 1982-83. The table displays program requirements in terms of areas required and in the number of hours required in each of these areas. Although freedom of election within areas is implied by the identification of required areas rather than courses, it is the faculty who designate the areas and thereby control the
design of the program. In addition, within the areas, certain courses might be strongly recommended or even required by the faculty as they serve as advisors for students. A compromise conclusion about the flexibility of graduate programs in Higher Education at the University of Michigan is that although the areas are prescribed by the faculty, the flexibility within these areas is probably relatively high and the program's content left up to student determination. Therefore, the program is relatively flexible. This conclusion is reinforced by the observation that many programs as reflected on transcripts do not meet program requirements vis-à-vis distribution.

At Teachers College, Columbia University, the distribution requirements within the program for 1972-73 and 1982-83 in theory are somewhat more flexible than those of Michigan. As displayed on Table 15, which summarizes distribution requirements for the Teachers College program, up to 33 percent of the program is totally open to student selection in terms of free electives. Again, like the Michigan program, there is also flexibility within area distribution requirements. For example, within the required core of Higher Education courses, only half the hours are prescribed; the rest are recommended or open to student determination. The graduate program in Higher Education at Teachers College is therefore more flexible than that of Michigan since at least a third of the program is determined by the student without area restrictions.
Table 14. Distribution of Program Requirements for the University of Michigan, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Required Areas</th>
<th>Number of Hours</th>
<th>Percentage of Total Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas in General Education</td>
<td>6–8</td>
<td>10–13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside Education</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics and Research Methods</td>
<td>12–15</td>
<td>20–25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15. Distribution of Program Requirements for Teachers College, Columbia University, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Required Areas</th>
<th>Number of Points</th>
<th>Percentage of Total Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education Core*</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broad/Basic</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialization</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation for Dissertation</td>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>17-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplinary Sequence</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electives</td>
<td>18-30</td>
<td>20-33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Curriculum, Organization and Administration, Financial Administration, Purposes and Policies are required; others are recommended.
At Indiana University, the graduate program in Higher Education is described by area requirements as shown on Table 16. Although free electives make up a small percentage of the program distribution for both time frames, 1972-73 and 1982-83, additional election by the student is allowed within two of the area requirements. Within the core, for example, only one course or a fifth of that area is prescribed by the faculty. The student may select the other courses which will fulfill the requirements. In the area of Inquiry Skills, some student determination is also allowed; in this case one fourth of the hours or one of the four required courses may be selected by the student. This program is more prescribed than the Teachers College program but less so than the program at Michigan as each is described in program handbooks.

Discussion

Based on information from the institutions sampled, it appears that graduate programs in Higher Education are relatively prescribed by faculty either through department or college distribution requirements or through recommendations on courses used to fulfill these distributions. However, this conclusion is based on formative information provided in program handbooks for 1972-73 and 1982-83. In practice, as summarized on the transcripts reviewed in addressing previous research questions, it was observed that a higher degree of flexibility existed in practice than in theory. Not only were there some graduates whose total number of hours were less than program minimum, there also exist several examples
Table 16. Distribution of Program Requirements for Indiana University, 1972-73 and 1982-83.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Required Areas</th>
<th>Number of Hours</th>
<th>Percentage of Total Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inquiry Skills*</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Courses**</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Courses</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognate</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electives</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissertation</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


** Organization Context of Education and four more courses.
of variation from distribution requirements as reflected in course-taking behavior. It is obvious that although the majority of students graduating from programs in Higher Education in 1972-73 and in 1982-83 at the institutions sampled fulfilled the general sense of program requirements in terms of distribution and hour requirements, a great deal of flexibility existed in practice. It should be noted that each program handbook comments on the individual design of students' programs. This is apparently the guiding design of graduate programs in Higher Education, allowing for relative flexibility.

**Research Question 6:**

**Curriculum as a Measure of Professionalization**

Curriculum as a measure of professionalization has not, to date, been examined in the literature. If the indications that the nature and consistency of an occupation's curriculum were regarded as useful measures of professionalization, it seems likely that this approach would have been utilized by researchers interested in the professions. Regardless, this study attempted to examine this approach, to suggest that curriculum as a measure of professionalization be explored. This suggestion was grounded in the literature review presented in Chapter 2. Nevertheless, the lack of the use of curriculum as a measure in the literature is a limiting factor for the study.

In addressing this research question, two observations are relevant. First, because the criteria for describing the
characteristics of the curriculum of each occupation vary, a problem of comparability is built into the study. For example, since the evidence for describing the locus of learning for medicine was taken from curricula descriptions and that for Higher Education was taken from transcripts, comparisons were made between formative information (catalogs) and summative information (transcripts). Additionally, each profession approaches the curriculum of its professions education in a unique way. Direct comparisons cannot be made without the establishment of working definitions common across professions.

Second, even if the characteristics can be compared, they do not present a total experience of the curriculum. Characteristics by themselves are not totally descriptive of curricula content, but they are a beginning.

While in theory and practice curriculum has limitations as a measure of professionalization, it is an approach to measuring the professionalization of an occupation. The results of this study, then, are to be viewed as providing a framework by which a curriculum can be analyzed for the purposes of describing the consistency of content, a consistency that indicates the maturity of a professions education.

Research Question 7: Professionalization of Higher Education

The answer to this question is based on conclusions drawn from the placement of Higher Education along the various continua
of the Conrad model (1978). Since this placement is presented and discussed in Chapter 5, Research Question 7 is addressed at the end of that chapter.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is threefold: (1) to summarize the research results in regard to each of the research questions, (2) to draw conclusions from those findings in order to place Higher Education along the various continua of the Conrad model and along the overall continuum of professionalization, and (3) to make recommendations for further study of the status of Higher Education as a profession.

Placement on the Continua

Figure 9 presents a summary of the criteria and evidence used for placement of Higher Education along the continua of the Conrad model. A parallel summary was provided in Chapter III for the other occupations examined in this study.

Shared Content

The data analyses and results presented in Chapter IV support an affirmative answer to the first research question. Concurrence on the shared content of graduate program curricula in Higher Education does exist. Analyses of curricula revealed courses common to all three programs in the sample. Of the ten most frequently taken courses in 1972-73 and 1982-83, five form a core of courses which may be thought to describe the unique skills and knowledge of Higher
### Criteria and Evidence for Placement of Higher Education Along Continua

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locus of Learning</th>
<th>Breadth vs. Depth</th>
<th>Design of Program</th>
<th>Flexibility of Program</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Criteria: Percentage of coursework in classroom vs. experiential setting</td>
<td>Criteria: Percentage of course distribution of survey vs. specialized</td>
<td>Criteria: Amount of program left to student determination.</td>
<td>Criteria: Amount of coursework open to student determination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.</td>
<td>Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.</td>
<td>Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.</td>
<td>Evidence: Programs as described by student transcripts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9. Criteria and Evidence for Placement of Higher Education Along Continua.
Education. This core includes Organization and Administration, Finance, Higher Education in America, Curriculum, and the Community and Junior College. In addition to the identification of this shared content, the curriculum has remained consistent or persisted over the time frame of this study. The conclusion about the existence and content of a shared curriculum reinforces the findings of Dressel and Mayhew (1974) and Basil (1980).

**Balance of Locus of Learning**

The data presented on Tables 6-10 of Chapter IV address research question 2. In curricula in Higher Education a decision on the emphasis on locus of learning has been made; most of the knowledge and skills unique to Higher Education as dispersed through the curriculum are transmitted in the traditional classroom setting. Although the amount of program work taken in experiential learning situations has decreased over the time frame of this study from 3 percent of students' programs in 1972-73 to 2.5 percent for 1982-83 graduates, currently an increased number of students in Higher Education are selecting experiential learning as part of their coursework. Nevertheless, the emphasis on locus of learning in graduate programs in Higher Education remains centered on the traditional classroom setting.

By comparison, the emerging professions of library science and business college also have maintained the traditional curricular approach to the learning setting of programs. Based on an examination of curricula in these fields, there is little in program descriptions
to suggest that either of these professions education encourages experiential learning either as a requisite to entry into the program or as an experience judged essential to the program's completion. In contrast, recent descriptions of Higher Education programs as provided by Nelson and Crosson (1984) have found that many programs have administrative experience as an entrance requirement. Additionally, several programs required internships and practica of students without previous administrative experience. In short, it appears that Higher Education has as an interest the use of experiential learning as a way of developing or dispersing its unique skills and knowledge in its professionalization. The placement of Higher Education along a continuum of the locus of learning of the curriculum can be estimated based on the above observations. In its efforts to establish itself as a profession, Higher Education has patterned itself after the mature professions by displaying some interest in experiential learning. Still, there is not enough evidence to place Higher Education much beyond the positions of the emerging professions of business and library science along the locus of learning continuum. The relative positions of the various occupations in this study including Higher Education vis-à-vis the locus of learning continuum of the Conrad model are described in Figure 10.

Still there remain the troubling face validity and operational definition problems raised earlier. Should medicine be considered as non-experiential? Should the practical coursework in fields
such as library science and accounting be considered as non-experien-
tial? Refinements in future work may be suggested.

**Depth Versus Breadth**

The data displayed on Tables 10-13 and analyzed in Chapter IV support the maturity of Higher Education programs in their balance of breadth coursework with that of work in depth. Course-taking behavior reflected a slight emphasis on breadth rather than depth for the 1972-73 graduates; for 1982-83 graduates, the transcripts sampled displayed a slight emphasis on coursework in depth. Of the programs sampled in 1982-83, there existed a near balance of coursework in Higher Education taken, approximately half the courses were classified as work in breadth (core Higher Education courses, College of Education courses, and courses outside the College of Education). Approximately half the courses were work in depth (additional courses in Higher Education and research within Higher Education). Examining the data overall, and over time, it appears that Higher Education has moved to a balance similar to that of the mature professions of law and medicine and that of the emerging professions of business. Library science remains a very specialized field especially as compared to the other professions examined in this study.

Therefore, it may be possible to place Higher Education beyond the positions of emerging professions of Library Science and business along the continuum of curricular content. The relative
Campus-based classroom learning, supervised
Experiential learning, only generally supervised

Figure 10. Locus of Learning—Higher Education in Relation to Various Professions (Continuum One of Conrad Model).
Figure 11. Curriculum Content in Higher Education in Relation to Various Occupations (Continuum Two of Conrad Model).
Again, however, caveats must be expressed. What is breadth, and what is depth? Clearly, these definitions must be situational. For example, courses taken outside the major may, in fact, reflect depth in that they are selected for their addition to a professional competency. On the other hand they may truly be "broadening" courses.

**Design and Flexibility of Program**

Based on an analysis of program handbooks and college catalogs, programs in Higher Education are designed by faculty at least in terms of the general area requirements. Some flexibility exists within these areas, but in general graduate programs in Higher Education are prescribed by the faculty. Less prescription is found in the mature professions as their curricula are described by the literature, therefore allowing for the placement of Higher Education near the positions of law and medicine along the continua in terms of freedom of program design and flexibility.

Descriptions of business programs in catalogs indicate that these programs are also relatively structured. But by contrast library science programs are the least flexible of the curricula studied, as very little freedom of election was found in these programs.

For Higher Education and library science, the nature of elective courses might depend on the student's area of concentration, such as student personnel work in Higher Education or public school
emphasis in library science. Regardless, both programs seem to have few elective options available to students. Figure 12 displays the positions of various occupations along the continua of the Conrad model relative to these curricula characteristics.

Curriculum as a Measure of Professionalization

As discussed in Chapter IV, curriculum as a measure of the professionalization of an occupation has limitations. Nonetheless, descriptions of curricula help to illuminate the content of an occupation's unique skills and knowledge. The distinction of the possession of unique skills and knowledge is necessary to the determination of an occupation's claim to professional status.

The Professionalization of Higher Education

Higher Education has adopted many of the trappings of a profession: it has developed journals and scholarly societies; entrance into professional ranks is somewhat limited and regulated by the faculty through control of degrees awarded; members practice their skills and knowledge in a service perspective. Higher Education professionals, like many occupational members, have patterned their profession and its activities after the so-called mature professions (Hughes 1963, Vollmer and Mills 1966). And while practicing unique skills and knowledge in a service perspective is often cited as the distinction of a profession over an occupation, practicing the trappings of a profession may be no less important. In this regard, many authors would see Higher Education as having obtained
Figure 12. Design of Program and Flexibility of Program—Higher Education in Relation to Various Occupations (Continua Three and Four of Conrad model).
a high degree of professionalization. Yet, notwithstanding the caveats noted the author holds that Higher Education can be viewed as having obtained a degree of professionalization based on the presence of unique skills and knowledge.

One purpose of this study was to describe the characteristics of the curricula of graduate programs in Higher Education for the purpose of establishing criteria upon which to measure the professionalization of the field. The author has concluded that unique skills and knowledge of a profession can be described by its curriculum through which they are dispersed. This curriculum, as identified in this study, consists of a core of courses consistently manifesting itself in Higher Education programs surveyed. This conclusion reaffirms similar findings of other, earlier studies (Dressel and Mayhew 1974, Basil 1980, Nelson and Crosson 1984).

Yet, some troublesome matters remain. For example, the experience continuum suggests that the more mature professions are less experience-based. Yet, the "fit" of mature professions such as medicine, law, and theology on this criterion is arguable. The fit of nursing and medical technologies with medicine may be better. Engineering, too, and the physical sciences-based professions would appear to be heavily experiential; teaching is perhaps less so. The point is that the congruency of the popularly perceived professional continuum with the experience continuum is far from perfect.
Similar arguments may be made in regard to the breadth versus depth criterion. Conventionally, breadth probably would be defined as course work that does not deal directly with the practice of the profession; yet, the issue is not that simple. A humanities course clearly is a "breadth course" for an engineer or physician, while an anatomy course for a physician or a math course for an engineer arguably could be viewed either as depth or breadth. The fact that these courses could be and are offered and taken by professional school students both in the liberal arts and in professional schools demonstrates the difficulty in classification. Ultimately, one arrives at a face validity checkpoint. Does it seem appropriate to conclude that the professional preparation of librarians is relatively broad whereas the preparation of higher education professionals is relatively narrow? Where do teachers, nurses, architects, and engineers fit in, and what is the overall congruence of this continuum with the professionalization continuum? How does one define the parameters of the professions education? Can we limit the analysis to the Ph.D. degree for higher education, law school for attorneys, and pre-internship medical school for physicians while we recognize that each requires baccalaureate or even masters level work of varying breadth and depth for admission? What does it truly mean to be broadly educated? Might a more valid measure be to what extent a liberal arts education is required for entry into a professional school? Obviously, there are several sides to questions such as these.
Assuming that consistent course offerings or persistence of courses can be used to measure maturity in a field, it is also concluded from this study that Higher Education has matured, moving along the continuum of professionalization. And when combined with other measures of professionalization as discussed above, the placement of Higher Education along a continuum of professionalization toward the positions occupied by the mature professions can be justified. Higher Education can be placed at least as far along as library science and business. Further, in some ways, Higher Education has achieved a maturity in terms of certain curricula characteristics as described by the Conrad model that places its position relatively closer to those of the more mature professions of law and medicine than those of business and library science.

However, since business as examined in this study was actually descriptions of two specialties, one undergraduate, one graduate, a higher concentration of hours as specialization was reflected than was the case in Higher Education. Since this concentration is not found in Higher Education curricula, Higher Education is placed below the position of business in achieving professionalization in terms of the balance within the curriculum. Additionally, since the element of service was not measured in this study, and although the literature acknowledges the service orientation of Higher Education but not that of business, Higher Education may be placed between the emerging professions that mature in a relativistic way. Accordingly, it seems justifiable to place Higher Education along the continuum
of professionalization distant from the more mature professions of law and medicine and between the emerging professions of library science and business. These relationships are described on Figure 13.

**Recommendations for Further Study**

Although the data gathered and analyzed for this study allowed for addressing the research questions, several additional considerations and questions are derived as a result of the findings. These suggest the need for further research into the professionalization of Higher Education in particular and into the criteria used to establish and measure professionalization in general.

The conclusions reached in this study about the profession of Higher Education in terms of the maturity of its curriculum vis-à-vis other professions would be more valid if course-taking behavior as described in the other professions education cited in this study could be compared to course-taking behavior in Higher Education. In turn, conclusions based on direct relationships between curriculum structure and course-taking behavior could be described. It may be the case that in the more mature professions, course-taking behavior would more closely parallel program requirements than occurs in business, library science, or Higher Education.

Such a study would be difficult to complete because of the problems associated with the Family Rights and Privacy Act of 1974. For the current study, transcripts were very difficult to obtain because of varying interpretations of the law; for a
Figure 13. Placement of Various Occupations on a Continuum of Professionalization.
study of the magnitude suggested above, a well-planned data release arrangement would have to be made. Regardless of the researcher's plan, however, the process is time consuming and expensive. It is the intriguing possibilities of the method that encourage a strong argument for the continued use of transcripts as a data base.

Another area of further study suggested by this research is examining the nature of those skills and knowledge unique to Higher Education and a description of the perspective of those skills and knowledge. It was suggested in Chapter II that much of the unique knowledge held by the professions is general, natural knowledge, knowable by anyone (Goode 1960). It would be fruitful to examine the knowledge as dispersed through coursework in Higher Education to determine the extent of inclusion of such natural knowledge. Is Higher Education's knowledge unique or is it merely a perspective on general, natural knowledge as suggested by some of the literature? Perhaps the key to attaining professional status is obtaining and maintaining a perspective on that natural knowledge rather than knowing specific skills or facts. Does Higher Education bring to its world of concerns a unique perspective? Is the perspective unique sufficiently to distinguish the occupation from other overlapping occupations?

This study examined the unique skills and knowledge of Higher Education programs in Type I (Dressel and Mayhew 1974) institutions only. Two other studies have examined the curriculum of
Higher Education across program types. In 1980 Basil described program characteristics at Type I and Type II Higher Education programs. Later, Nelson and Crosson surveyed nearly all the programs in Higher Education to describe the course held common in the curriculum (1984). It would be useful to apply the method of this study to other than Type I programs to determine if consistency and constancy also can be found in Type II, III, and IV programs.

These and other possible studies are raised in answering the research questions of this study. One conclusion from this effort is most evident, however. Notwithstanding future challenges, Higher Education has begun to emerge as a profession in many senses of the word: it has adopted the trappings of a profession and clearly has some distinguishable knowledge upon which it defines its expertise. Its members undergo an education that has prepared them to address concerns with particular knowledge and skills developed through the curriculum of the professions education. If these skills and knowledge continue to help society deal with the problems associated with higher education, then the profession of Higher Education should find continued encouragement to maintain its status as a profession, to continue to carve out its "turf." Further examination of the curriculum of Higher Education professions education will be of assistance in this effort.
APPENDIX A

SAMPLE LETTER TO CENTERS REQUESTING TRANSCRIPTS
April 18, 1984

Dr. George Kuh
Indiana University
Higher Education
Education 236
Bloomington, IN 47405

Dear Dr. Kuh:

I am conducting a study of the profession of Higher Education for my dissertation work at the University of Arizona's Center for the Study of Higher Education under the research direction of Dr. Clifton Conrad. At his suggestion, I am writing directly to you.

In this study, I will be placing Higher Education along a continuum of professionalization. I am looking particularly at the unique knowledge and skills component of professions education vis-à-vis the curriculum content. I will evaluate the curriculum primarily through transcript analysis.

I have chosen to use your Center as one of four sites for my study on the basis of the following criteria: (1) contributions to the field by your faculty in terms of publications and national visibility, (2) longevity in graduate program offerings, and (3) similarity of goals and objectives as stated in catalog and student handbook information.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would send me copies of student transcripts of all doctoral students completing degree requirements in your program (being graduated) for the academic years 1972-73 and 1982-83. I will also need a copy of the student program handbook for these years and a copy of the appropriate catalog pages. I will examine the course-taking patterns of the students as they reflect a common or core curriculum. I will not need any identifying information and will, therefore, be in compliance with section 99-31 of the Family Rights and Privacy Act of 1974.
It is my sincerest hope that you will be able to assist with this study by authorizing the release of the data necessary. I will, of course, pay for the costs involved in mimeographing and mailing the data.

I will be at AERA next week and may have the opportunity to discuss this with you there. I will be contacting your office the following week to discuss the details of this effort.

Sincerely,

Judy Diane Grace
Doctoral Candidate

JDG:mfp
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INTERVIEWS


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