



Southwestern Montana Music Assessment : a comparison between rural Montana and the extreme rural national assessment of educational progress sample
by Richard T Sietsema

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Education
Montana State University
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Abstract:

The purpose of this study was to assess the music background and music achievement of 13-year-old rural students in Southwestern Montana. Data for the rural Montana students were established through utilization of selected music exercises found in the Second National Music Assessment component of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Responses to the assessment exercises of the Southwestern Montana students, expressed as percentages, were compared with responses of 13-year-old student's in the population sample drawn from the "Extreme Rural" type of community in the "Western Region" of the United States. The population for the author's study consisted of all 13-year-olds attending designated elementary schools in a six county area in Southwestern Montana. One, two, and three teacher K-8 schools were referred to as "Rural" while larger K-8 schools were referred to as "Town Schools." Music in the "Rural" schools was taught primarily by the classroom teacher while certified music specialists taught music in the "Town" schools.

The NAEP music assessment was designed to gather data concerning demographics, home environment, in-school and outside of school activities, as well as cognitive and affective responses to selected music exercises. The Montana assessment booklet was developed by the author utilizing released exercises from the 1978-79 NAEP Music Assessment and was administered during the Fall of 1986. The null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance as used by NAEP.

No significant difference in the cognitive and affective musical response patterns was found between "Rural" students and "Town" students. Southwestern Montana students scored slightly higher in several of the cognitive areas than did their NAEP western Extreme Rural counterparts. Most Southwestern Montana "Rural" students received their classroom music instruction from an elementary education teacher and did not have band and chorus available in their curriculum; however, "Rural" students understood the sampled elements of music as well as their "Town" counterparts.

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BETWEEN RURAL MONTANA AND THE EXTREME RURAL NATIONAL
ASSESSMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS SAMPLE

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the music background and music achievement of 13-year-old rural students in Southwestern Montana. Data for the rural Montana students were established through utilization of selected music exercises found in the Second National Music Assessment component of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). Responses to the assessment exercises of the Southwestern Montana students, expressed as percentages, were compared with responses of 13-year-old students in the population sample drawn from the "Extreme Rural" type of community in the "Western Region" of the United States. The population for the author's study consisted of all 13-year-olds attending designated elementary schools in a six county area in Southwestern Montana. One, two, and three teacher K-8 schools were referred to as "Rural" while larger K-8 schools were referred to as "Town Schools." Music in the "Rural" schools was taught primarily by the classroom teacher while certified music specialists taught music in the "Town" schools.

The NAEP music assessment was designed to gather data concerning demographics, home environment, in-school and outside of school activities, as well as cognitive and affective responses to selected music exercises. The Montana assessment booklet was developed by the author utilizing released exercises from the 1978-79 NAEP Music Assessment and was administered during the Fall of 1986. The null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance as used by NAEP.

No significant difference in the cognitive and affective musical response patterns was found between "Rural" students and "Town" students. Southwestern Montana students scored slightly higher in several of the cognitive areas than did their NAEP Western Extreme Rural counterparts. Most Southwestern Montana "Rural" students received their classroom music instruction from an elementary education teacher and did not have band and chorus available in their curriculum; however, "Rural" students understood the sampled elements of music as well as their "Town" counterparts.

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The great Greek philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle recognized the value that music contributed to the quality of life and the education of citizens; therefore, the education of the young men of Athens was not complete without extensive instruction in music (Lamm 99). John Edward Ryor, former president of the National Education Association, made this case for including the arts in the nation's education curriculum:

Quality education in its most fundamental sense cannot be separated from the culture of a society. The quality of the culture is expressed in its arts and its humanities. Those who say they can be removed from the curriculum are calling for the rape of education, for a return to "training" at the expense of "learning." (Quinn 11).

In 1981 Gardener surveyed 161 small rural Montana schools to assess the status of rural education in the state (18-21). His findings were summarized as follows:

1. Due to lack of funds many schools have very poor facilities.
2. Due to lack of funds several schools have books which are out of date.
3. Salaries for teachers in rural areas are minimal; therefore, there are very few incentives for teachers to remain in the rural areas.
4. Due to lack of benefits for teachers in rural areas there are very few male teachers.
5. Over 50 percent of the teachers responding to the survey

indicated that they had taken no college courses that specifically prepared them for teaching in a rural setting.

6. Several of the small rural schools in Montana do not comply with the state's minimum standards of accreditation nor are they checked to see if they are in compliance.
7. The curriculum in the rural schools has not been adequately developed to fit the needs of the students.
8. Rural educators lack the expertise and the time to effectively develop curriculum changes. (19-21)

One may be concerned about the quality of education in these very small isolated rural schools. According to Tillman, there are four conditions which hamper and/or impede but do not prevent the pursuit of quality education for rural schools. They are: "(1) isolation, (2) sparsity, (3) smallness, and (4) differentness" (22).

The rural teacher must be prepared to teach all subjects as well as perform the job of principal and janitor. Montana's Governor Ted Schwinden stated the following view concerning the rural teacher:

The backbone of our rural schools is the quality of our rural school teachers; teachers equipped to do more than teach. Teacher quality is critically important in rural areas because rural students are exposed to fewer teachers than students in urban schools. A rural teacher must bring the outside world to his or her students - to inspire curiosity among students and to expand their educational horizons far beyond the classroom walls. (5)

Concern regarding specific training for rural teachers was raised in 1977 by Dunne when she pointed out:

Teacher training programs have paid equally little attention to the needs of teachers in small rural schools. Although the literature is full of moaning about the poor quality of rural teachers, little systematic effort has been made to recruit the best people for rural schools, and even less effort has been made to train them properly. (100)

In 1983, Guenther and Weible addressed the need for better teacher preparation in rural schools. The purpose of the article was to provide

an overview of rural education. They concluded their article by saying:

The purpose of this article has been to advance the need for specific preparation and training of teachers for rural schools. . . . To alleviate the obvious neglect of rural schools, it will take creative ideas, alternatives, and collective actions of those individuals and special interest groups concerned about this injustice. (61)

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to assess the music background and music achievement of thirteen-year-old rural students in Southwestern Montana. Data for the Southwestern Montana students were established through utilization of selected music exercises found in the Second National Music Assessment component of the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Responses to the assessment exercises of the Southwestern Montana students, expressed as percentages, were compared with responses of thirteen year old students in the population sample drawn from the "Extreme Rural" type of community in the "Western" region of the United States.

Questions

Specifically, data were collected by the researcher to address the following questions pertaining to thirteen-year-old students in Southwestern Montana.

1. Does the student value music as an important realm of human experience?
2. Is the student able to identify the elements and controls of music?

3. Is the student able to identify and classify music historically and culturally?

Basic Assumptions

The following basic assumptions were considered in the Southwestern Montana Music Assessment: 1. Teachers in rural schools in Southwestern Montana had been certified by the State of Montana to teach all subjects in a K-8 elementary program; 2. Teachers in rural schools in Southwestern Montana graduated from an accredited college or university with an Elementary Education degree. These teachers had taken the required music education courses as defined by each accredited college or university; 3. Rural schools in Southwestern Montana were accredited and followed a course of study as suggested by the State of Montana; 4. Students attending rural schools in Southwestern Montana came from predominantly agricultural communities.

The Need For The Study

Over the past several years there has developed a renewed interest in rural education; therefore, one would expect to see teacher education programs designed to prepare teachers for rural and small schools.

According to Dunne this may not be the case:

Most rural teachers, then, enter their classrooms with little or no special preparation for meeting the needs of country children. And unlike the urban or suburban teacher, they cannot call on professionally designed commercial materials to help them. For fifteen years, curriculum developers have undertaken countless projects for urban children, ranging from Sesame Street to minority-oriented social studies curricula for the high schools. For twenty years, carefully designed suburban curriculum packages have

been available. During the same period, virtually nothing has been done for the rural child. There is no profit in it for the publishing companies because there are fewer absolute numbers in rural areas, and there is less similarity among country regions than there is among cities. Unfortunately, philanthropic and governmental funding sources have not (with some notable exceptions) made up for this lack of commercial interest in rural education. As a result, the teacher looking for innovative materials for a class of suburban or urban children has a vast array to choose from; a teacher looking for similar resources for a group of poor country pupils must generally be resigned to teaching about fire hydrants, manicured lawns, skyscrapers, and other accouterments of life in metropolitan America. (101)

A survey conducted by Horn in 1981 revealed the presence of very few rural teacher education programs even in states with substantial rural populations. According to Horn:

Only 20 percent of the 40 institutions in 28 states reported that they had practices/programs specifically designed to prepare educational personnel for rural/small schools at the preservice level. . . .

Notable examples are found at Western Montana College, Brigham Young University, Berea (Kentucky) College, Western Michigan University, and the University of North Dakota. (U.S. 28-29)

The Montana Rural Education Center was established at Western Montana College by the Montana Board of Regents for Higher Education in 1980 (Montana). The purpose for the center was to provide assistance to small schools and provide resources that would help them to take advantage of their small size.

The problems of rural schools are coupled with an inadequacy of research data on rural schools. According to Dunne:

Much has been written--in either a revisionist or a romantic vein--about the glories of the little red schoolhouse. However, more facts and figures have been gathered to promote the economic and academic virtues of consolidation. Rigorous comparisons between large and small rural schools, controlled for social class and other important variables, are few and far between, and relatively unbiased

studies of country schools as they operate today are virtually unobtainable. Some statistics are available, on comparative academic achievement in small schools and large, and in rural schools compared to urban and suburban ones, but the existing statistics tend to be so broad and undifferentiated that it is difficult to distinguish effects of social class, student motivation, and other possibly important variables. (94)

Research concerning music and rural education has been minimal. This researcher has conducted a thorough exploration of national data base files searching for literature concerning music achievement assessment in rural schools. Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress which includes a national music assessment component were encountered; however, very little information that related directly to Montana's rural schools and music instruction was located.

Dunne stated similar concerns in her article "Choosing Smallness" when she stated:

Rigorous comparisons between large and small rural schools, controlled for social class and other important variables, are few and far between, and relatively unbiased studies of country schools as they operate today are virtually unobtainable. (94)

In his article, "The Current Status of Education," Jonathan Sher shares a parallel view concerning research data applicable to rural schools:

Though more than fourteen million students are dispersed among over ten thousand independent rural school districts, only the scantiest professional attention is accorded to solving their problems or fulfilling their potential. There is no Bureau or Division of Rural Education in the U.S. Office of Education, the National Institute of Education, or the great majority of State Education Agencies. The National Education Association devotes only one-eighth of one individual's time to rural educational concerns. The National Center for Educational Statistics doesn't issue reports or compile data on the current status of rural education. . . .

Needless to say, it is difficult to correct deficiencies or foster improvements in school systems which the education profession seems determined to ignore. (1-2)

Lack of articulated curriculum has been another major problem facing rural educators. This may be due in part to the following reasons:

1. There is insufficient assessment data available for analysis.
2. There is a lack of curriculum specialists schooled in rural education.
3. Funding for rural curriculum development is minimal.
4. Rural curricula development may not be profitable for commercial publishers.
5. Rural Curricula development is not politically expedient.

Sher went one step further and prioritized curriculum needs for rural schools:

1. Develop competently designed curricula that are appropriate to the communities in which they will be utilized.
2. Build a curriculum that reflects and enhances the natural advantages of rural communities.
3. Design a curriculum that gives rural children a sense of option for their adult lives.
4. Incorporate firm but fair performance standards into the overall rural curriculum.
5. Establish a network of individuals, agencies, and organizations committed to the improvement of rural curricula and curricular materials (Education 285-86).

The "Montana Music Needs Survey" (Appendix A) indicated deficiencies in many rural school music programs, however, this study did not yield conclusive assessment data concerning outcomes of the rural music programs. Therefore, in order to facilitate the development of a music curriculum, music strengths and weaknesses must first be assessed. For this purpose the use of a structured music assessment instrument is a necessity. The National Music Assessment component of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is such an

instrument because it is a census-like survey of music knowledge, skills, and attitudes. It is useful when one wishes to determine how well a specific group of students performs on the NAEP music objectives.

General Procedures

A limited amount of research has been done utilizing the NAEP with rural education; however in an article in Research in Rural Education, Easton suggested a five step approach in applying the National Assessment of Educational Progress model to research on rural social studies (35-38). This basic format may be utilized and modified to fit rural music; therefore, the following progression was followed.

1. The first step in this research project was to target a specific population. According to the NAEP definition of extreme rural, "Students in this group attend schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most residents are farmers or farm workers" (Martin 10). For the purpose of this study, breaking this classification down even further into two sub groupings was considered useful; therefore, in this research the terms of "rural/extreme" and "rural/town" were used. Rural/extreme was defined as a K-8 public school with three or less full time teachers supervised by a county superintendent. Students in this group attended schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents were farmers or farm workers. Rural/town was defined as a K-8 independent school district having its own administrative staff to include both a superintendent and principal. Students in

this group attended schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents were farmers or farm workers. Both of these sub groups still conform to the NAEP definition of "Extreme Rural". Rural/extreme and rural/town schools located in Southwestern Montana were identified. The population consisted of all thirteen-year-old students that were in attendance in these schools. It was estimated that approximately 40 thirteen-year-old students would be in attendance at rural/extreme schools and approximately 175 thirteen-year-old students would be in attendance at rural/town schools.

2. The second step was to design and prepare a music assessment instrument. Released exercises from the 1978-79 NAEP Music Assessment were randomly sampled without replacement and arranged into a booklet. Three hundred of these prepared booklets were printed to conduct the assessment. Several of the released exercises required the use of music stimuli; therefore, a cassette tape containing the proper music stimuli was obtained from NAEP. A paced direction/stimuli tape was then developed for the Southwestern Montana assessment. This was done to insure that all students received a standard presentation.
3. The third step was the implementation of a pilot assessment procedure. To insure uniformity, one pilot assessment was administered to thirteen-year-olds attending a rural school that was not included in the target area.

4. The fourth step was to administer the assessment to the target population. Due to the small number of students in the target area, the entire population was assessed. Before conducting the assessment, county superintendents in each of the targeted counties were contacted. This enabled the researcher to explain the assessment procedure and to obtain lists of all eligible students. Each county superintendent was asked to explain the assessment procedure to his/her teaching staff. Specific dates for assessment were arranged by the county superintendents and the assessment was administered during the first semester of the 1986-87 academic year.
5. The fifth step was to score the response data based on criteria for acceptable responses obtained from NAEP in Princeton, New Jersey.
6. The sixth and concluding step in the research project was to report assessment results. Responses received from thirteen-year-old students in the target area were compared to baseline data provided by the NAEP. Variables included age, region, sex, race, size and type of community, and level of parental education.

Limitations/Delimitations

This study was concerned with the assessment of musical skills, knowledge of music, and attitudes toward music of thirteen-year-old rural school students in Southwestern Montana as measured by selected exercises from the NAEP second assessment of music. The aim of the

assessment was to describe musical attainments and not to reflect what students should or should not know. This study was not designed to predict the musical success of the participants. Musical background or training of individual teachers was not considered. This study was also not concerned with the physical materials available at each individual school.

Definition of Terms

NAEP

This refers to the National Assessment of Educational Progress. The NAEP is an assessment designed to measure knowledge, skill, and attitudes of students from various geographic and social regions at age nine, thirteen, and seventeen. In addition, it is designed to measure growth or decline in their educational attainments over time. The NAEP assesses ten learning areas: art, career and occupational development, citizenship, literature, mathematics, music, reading, science, social studies, and writing.

Age Variable

The NAEP utilizes nine-year-olds, thirteen-year-olds, seventeen-year-olds, and adults (26-35 yrs). For the purpose of this study only thirteen-year-olds born during the 1973 calendar year were considered.

Region Variable

The NAEP divides the United States into four regions: Northeast, Southwest, Central, and West.

Sex Variable

The NAEP utilizes a male and female variable.

Race Variable

The NAEP recognizes White, Black, Hispanic and Other.

STOC Variable

STOC is an acronym for Size and Type of Community. The NAEP recognizes four "residual" community sizes: (1) Main Big City (2) Urban Fringe (3) Medium Cities (4) Small Places. The NAEP also recognizes three "extreme" types of community: (1) Extreme Rural (2) Low Metro (3) High Metro. This study will be concerned with the following variables:

1. Size of Community

Small Places - Students in this group attend schools in communities having a population less than 25,000 and not classified in the "fringes around big cities" category.

2. Type of Community

These communities are defined by an occupational profile of the area served by a school as well as by the size of the community in which the school is located.

Extreme Rural - Students in this group attend schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents are farmers or farm workers.

Categories within the two variables are not mutually exclusive; therefore, students included in the extreme rural category for the type of community variable were also placed in the smaller places with other

students as a result of the size of community variable. The NAEP did not subdivide the extreme rural category as they did not target a small geographic region or population. Neither were they concerned with differences within the extreme rural category. However, for the purpose of this study it was necessary to subdivide the extreme rural category into rural/extreme and rural/town classifications. This was done to assess differences between rural and town students within the target area and target population.

Rural/Extreme

For the purpose of this study a rural/extreme school was defined as a K-8 public school with three or less full time teachers. Schools in this category contained multi-grade classrooms and a full time certificated administrative officer such as a superintendent or principal was not employed by the school district; therefore, the resident county superintendent was considered to be the administrative leader for each district. Certified music teachers were not employed in these districts and the certificated elementary teachers did most of the required music teaching in the multi-grade classroom. In some cases a parent or community member with piano background was used as a provisional music teacher. Students in this group attended schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents were farmers or farm workers. The schools that fit this category were located in the following Southwest Montana counties:

1. Beaverhead
2. Granite
3. Jefferson
4. Madison
5. Powell
6. Silver Bow

Rural/Town

For the purpose of this study a rural/town school was defined as a K-8 independent school district having its own administrative staff to include both a certificated superintendent and a principal. Schools in this category had separate classrooms and teachers for each grade level or discipline. In addition, schools in this category employed at least one full time certificated music specialist. Students in this category attended schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents were farmers or farm workers. These schools were located in the following Southwest Montana counties:

1. Beaverhead
2. Powell

Level of Parental Education

This variable was subdivided into four categories: No High School, Some High School, Graduated High School, and Post High School.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

A major problem in discussion and research concerning rural schools is a lack of consensus about appropriate definitions of rural education. Several factors must be considered when identifying types of schools. The North Central Association Committee on Small Schools defines small high schools as those schools having total enrollments of less than 300 for grades nine through twelve; however they do not define a size criterion for identification of grade schools (North 2). The National School Boards Association defines a district as rural if:

it is located in a rural setting, or the student enrollment is 2,500 or less, or it's an intermediate or county unit that serves primarily rural units, or it encounters problems related to areas with a population density of fewer than 1000 (residents) per square mile. (DeYoung 137)

On the other hand, the National Rural Development Institute defines a rural district as one where:

the number of inhabitants is less than 150 per square mile or when located in counties with 60% of the population living in communities no larger than 5000 inhabitants. Districts with more than 10,000 students and/or in (SMSA) as defined by the Census are not considered rural. (DeYoung 137)

If this size criterion were applied to Montana, most schools would fit in this category. Geographic location and student background may be another method of school identification. There may be a wide

diversity of location and demographic factors among rural schools; however, the NAEP provided the following definition of "Extreme Rural":

Students in this group attend schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents are farmers or farm workers. (Martin 10)

Several educators have tried to address problems facing rural education. For example, in a report by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools it was stated that "Rural schools have had problems in obtaining and keeping high quality staff" (20). The Oregon State Board of Education reported that rural teachers tend not to have advanced degrees, are often poorly trained in curricular and guidance principles, and are unfamiliar with the unique problems of rural schools (11). In a paper presented at the National Outlook Conference on Rural Youth, Estes reported that similar situations were found at the national level (11). Edington and Musselman also reported that rural teachers are often placed in situations where they are teaching in areas for which they were unprepared and that these problems were not unrecognized by the teachers themselves (1969). Muse found that rural teachers felt that their preservice training did not adequately prepare them for the problems that they encountered when teaching in rural schools (1979). Sher outlined the problem when he stated:

There are specific problems facing rural schools that other types of small schools do not encounter. Rural Schools must contend with the problems of isolation. This implies more than simply overcoming difficulties caused by geography or distance. Rural schools tend to be isolated from the educational, governmental, and economic support systems found in metropolitan areas, and they do not have the benefits and assistance of universities, mental health centers, teacher centers, and cultural institutions. (7-8)

The problems of the rural school are coupled with an inadequacy of research data on rural schools. Deyoung states that:

It has been continually claimed by those who work in and with rural schools that research on the particular problems, issues, and trends in rural education is relatively scarce, of very uneven quality, and typically found either in relatively obscure state department documents or in the work of scholars not identified with mainstream educational research. (123)

The rural information problem becomes even more critical when one looks at the isolated rural state of Montana where only a minimal amount of research data is available. During the summer of 1984 this researcher conducted a "Basic Needs" survey of Montana rural educators. This survey is located in Appendix A. The questions investigated were as follow:

1. Are teachers properly trained to teach music?
2. Do they have a music curriculum guide that is usable?
3. What physical materials are available?

A telephone survey instrument was developed that incorporated both open and closed questions. The questionnaire contained fifteen major questions plus seventeen sub-questions and was administered to county superintendents and teachers. Sampling was accomplished in seventeen counties that were geographically dispersed throughout the state of Montana and data were procured in the five following general areas:

1. Personal Profile
2. Educational Background
3. Physical Equipment Inventory
4. Music Program Analysis
5. Curriculum Development

Thirty-one percent of the teachers believed that they had been adequately prepared to teach music in a self-contained classroom. Ninety-seven percent of the respondents affirmed a need for a music curriculum or study guide specifically designed for the rural school. It was also found that record, tape, and music book libraries were minimal or nonexistent in rural schools. In addition, the teachers expressed a need for music materials that would be suitable for a K-8 classroom.

NAEP Historical Overview

Since the Southwestern Montana Music Assessment follows the NAEP design, it is appropriate to provide a brief historical overview of the NAEP conception and development.

The American educational system was in turmoil during the 1950's as it was attacked by both liberal and conservative educators, each charging that the system was anti-intellectual. A culmination occurred in October of 1957 when Sputnik I was launched by the Soviet Union. The American public was shocked, for it meant that the Soviet Union had passed the United States in space technology. Vice Admiral Hyman G. Rickover, who directed the early development of the United States Navy atomic submarine program, took a critical interest in the American educational system. Rickover compared the American and European systems of education and found the European system to be superior in many respects. Rickover felt that science and engineering were more important than the humanities and that the American system wasted energy by trying to educate everyone. It was his recommendation that

more money should be spent on education, science and math be strengthened, and that the "frills" be dropped from the curriculum. In 1959 an educational conference was held at Woods Hole, Massachusetts, to discuss the problems of science education and to recommend solutions. In 1960 President Eisenhower appointed eleven people to a Commission on National Goals. The final report, prepared by John W. Gardner president of the Carnegie Corporation, served as a basis for change in American education. In 1961 President John F. Kennedy established the White House Panel on Educational Research and Development. Several goals were established in an attempt to enhance the quality of American education. The federal government strongly supported change in education and consequently invested vast amounts of money into the American educational system.

The summer of 1963 may be considered as the beginning for a national assessment plan. Morris stated that "in the summer of 1963 the idea of developing an educational census of this sort was proposed in a meeting of laymen and professional educators concerned with the strengthening of American education" (7).

Henderson also noted that ". . . in the summer of 1963 . . . Ralph W. Tyler, Director of the Center for the Advanced Study of Behavioral Sciences, Stanford, California, was asked by leaders of education to prepare a memorandum exploring the possibility of assessing the progress of education nationally" (1).

In December of 1963 a group of educators and laypeople gathered at an educational conference proposed the idea of a national educational consensus. Several other conferences were called in the winter of

1963-64 for further discussion and a rough plan was drafted. Financial constraints were a serious problem as public funds were not available. It was at this point that a private foundation, the Carnegie Corporation of New York, granted funds to begin the project. An exploratory committee was formed and named the Exploratory Committee on Assessing the Progress of Education (ECAPE). Two basic goals were set for the committee. The first goal was to visit communities and ask questions of teachers, administrators, school board members, and interested laypeople concerning the health and quality of education. Advice was also sought on how to measure the quality of education throughout the United States. Upon completion of the first goal the committee set about accomplishing their second task, that of formulating a plan for the development of an assessment instrument. The original instruments were piloted and the final draft was written. The initial project took four years to complete and on July 1, 1968 the final report was turned over to the Committee on Assessing the Progress of Education (CAPE) under the auspices of the Carnegie Foundation, which was then responsible for the national assessment (Norris 7).

Still financed by the Carnegie Foundation, the Committee on Assessing the Progress of Education (CAPE) began in 1969 to assess the achievement of students in ten academic areas and four age groups. The original ten areas, which had been selected to exhibit a good cross section of the American educational system, included reading, writing, science, mathematics, social studies, citizenship, vocational education, literature, art, and music. Students in age groups 9, 13, 17, and 26-35 were targeted for assessment. These were selected to

assess students during specific points in their educational career. For example, most young adults age 26-35 have completed their formal education. Secondary education for most is complete by age 17, intermediate education by age 13, and primary education by age 9.

According to Martin, "Specifically, the assessment program was designed to measure the knowledge, skills, and attitudes possessed by young Americans at these key points in the educational system and to monitor changes (growth or decline) in their educational attainment over time" (1).

According to Johnson:

Later that year the assessment was adopted as a project by the Education Commission of the States (ECS). Funding and monitoring were transferred to the United States Office of Education, and the project was renamed the National Assessment of Educational Progress. (27)

The primary mission of the National Assessment of Educational Progress was to provide a standardized measuring device that would accurately describe the educational climate of the school systems within the United States. In order to provide this service, goals were established as tenets for assessment.

According to Johnson (27-28), the goals suggested that the NAEP should:

1. make available on a continuing basis comprehensive information on the educational achievement of young Americans;
2. measure change in the educational achievement of young Americans;
3. conduct special interest "probes" into selected areas of educational achievement;
4. provide data, analyses of the data and reports for a variety of audiences;

5. encourage and aid studies of National Assessment information to generate implications useful for educational decision makers and practitioners;
6. aid in the use of National Assessment technology at state and local levels where appropriate;
7. continue to develop the technologies necessary for gathering and analyzing National Assessment information; and
8. continue studies to improve National Assessment methods.

NAEP's Contributions and Shortcomings

Since its inception in 1969 the NAEP has been collecting data. According to Messick, "Over a million 9-, 13-, and 17-year-old students, as well as occasional samples of adults and of 17-year-olds who were not in school, have been assessed in a variety of subjects such as reading, writing, mathematics, science, social studies, literature, music and art" (Response 90). The educational climate in the 1960's was far different from the educational climate today. A major concern in the 1960's was, that with a national assessment in place, the federal government would interfere with local and state control of education. According to Messick:

In the light of such concerns, the original NAEP architects developed a sampling plan insuring that accurate results could not be reported at the state or district level. They espoused matrix sampling procedures, insuring that no student would take more than a small sample of diverse exercises, so there would be no tests or test scores in the traditional sense, and certainly no test scores for any individuals. They capitalized on the strengths of matrix sampling to insure comprehensive coverage of subject matter for population groups, thereby generating sets of objectives and exercises that reflected salient features of most extant curricula. They insisted on analysis and reporting at the exercise level so that the focus would not be on curriculum units or knowledge and skill domains but on specific learning outcomes whose nature and importance could presumably be directly judged by laypeople and professionals alike. Finally, the assessment was organized in terms of age levels

rather than grade levels, which has a number of important points in its favor but has the consequence of severing NAEP results from the usual way in which schools are organized, state and local assessments are reported, and educational policies are formulated. Thus, since the original NAEP design by deliberate plan made it difficult if not impossible to link assessment results to state or district programs or to grade-related practices in the schools, educators were less threatened and political feasibility was assured--but at the heavy cost of attenuating the usefulness of NAEP results in affecting educational practice. (Response 91)

The NAEP is concerned with comparative data and comparative norms and should not be viewed in the same light as an achievement test. Even with this limited scope, the NAEP has provided educational contributions. In the document NAEP Design, a report submitted to the National Institute of Education in 1982, the following contributions were noted:

1. NAEP has provided national data on change in educational achievement which are both valid and accurate in terms of comparisons over time, and which cover a wide variety of achievement content areas.
2. NAEP has modeled new concepts and procedures for state assessments and other testers. As a consequence of this modeling NAEP has achieved greater curricular relevance and balance in state assessments and in some local assessments; lower pupil response burden through matrix sampling; lower costs per information unit through innovation in sampling design.
3. NAEP has provided achievement data for secondary analysis by the educational research community. (National Opinion 1)

Due to design, the NAEP also has several flaws or shortcomings.

The NAEP Design lists the following:

1. NAEP has failed to compete for public attention with less representative alternative indicators because information available every four years cannot possibly compete effectively with information available every year.

2. NAEP reports of achievement results have had limited relevance and comprehensibility, thus limiting meaningful evaluation of the educational system and not providing a basis for modifying that system at the local, state, or federal level.
3. NAEP lacks adequate linkage to politically responsive units with responsibility for action to maintain or improve the quality of education.
4. NAEP has depended too much on professional groups with expertise and judgment limited to particular learning areas for determining the content priorities of the Assessment. NAEP needs broader political, economic, and general policy input for establishing content-area priorities and information needs for the 1980's.
5. NAEP lacks provisions for specific policy-focused data collection and analysis to supplement the basic achievement results. (National Opinion 1)

The purpose of the NAEP has not been to set educational standards but to provide the public with NAEP results that address the issue of educational standards. According to Messick:

In sum, as currently conceived and implemented, NAEP incorporates three key elements of a responsible standard-setting process--namely, the choice of educational objectives, the description of current group performance ranges and trends and the identification of educational contexts differentially related to performance. In addition, NAEP's reliance on comparative data and implicit comparative standards highlights the need for quality standards if issues of minimal requirements and excellence are to be resolved in American education. (Progress 19)

The NAEP has been redesigned to fit the needs of a changing educational climate; however, at this time it was not available for use. Further features of the new NAEP design are not relevant to this study and will not be discussed at this time.

NAEP Music Objectives Development

The Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, was awarded the task of developing music objectives for the NAEP;

therefore, in 1965 a group of music experts was called together in Princeton to develop objectives for the assessment.

According to Norris (4), the panel was directed by three guidelines:

1. To define the major objectives of music education.
2. To suggest specific tasks which sample the major objectives and exhibit the achievements, interests, and attitudes of those exposed to music.
3. To describe the kinds of musical behavior expected of approximately 10, 50, and 90 percent of each of the several age groups considered in the study.

The committee soon discovered, due to the diverse nature of music, that this was a difficult task. One of the primary functions of music is for aesthetic use and this function is extremely difficult to assess. Other areas such as musical knowledge, skill, and recognition were much easier to measure. Another problem concerned that of deciding upon which areas to include or exclude.

Both opera and program music were included in the assessment; however, folk music, jazz, and rock-and-roll were not included and that decision caused a great deal of controversy. Oriental and other non-western music were also excluded from the assessment as they are rarely taught in this country. The meeting at Princeton lasted two days and at the conclusion a list of objectives was presented to the Educational Testing Service (ETS). The objectives were examined, compared and discussed by musicians, educators, and laypeople. Although minor changes were implemented, the basic content remained unchanged for the first assessment. The basic objectives used in the 1971-72 assessment were as follow:

- I. Perform a Piece of Music
 - A. Sing (technical proficiency not required)
 - B. Play or sing (technical proficiency not required)
 - C. Invent and improvise (technical proficiency not required)
- II. Read Standard Musical Notation
 - A. Identify the elements of notation, such as clefs, letter names of notes, duration symbols, key signatures, and dynamic markings.
 - B. Identify the correct notation for familiar pieces.
 - C. Follow notation while listening to music.
- III. Listen to Music With Understanding
 - A. Perceive the various elements of music, such as timbre, rhythm, melody and harmony, and texture.
 - B. Perceive structure in music.
 - C. Distinguish some differing types and functions of music.
 - D. Be aware of (and recognize) some features of historical styles in music.
- IV. Be Knowledgeable About Some Musical Instruments, Some of the Terminology of Music, Methods of Performance and Forms, Some of the Standard Literature of Music, and Some Aspects of the History of Music.
 - A. Know the meanings of common musical terms used in connection with the performance of music, and identify instruments and performing ensembles in illustrations.
 - B. Know standard pieces of music by title, or composer, or brief descriptions of the music, or of literary-pictorial materials associated with the music from its inception.
 - C. Know prominent composers and performers by name and chief accomplishment.
 - D. Know something of the history of music.
- V. Know About the Musical Resources of the Community and Seek Musical Experiences by Performing Music.
 - A. Know whether or not there are music libraries and stores in the community, and know where concerts are given.
 - B. Seek to perform music by playing, singing, taking lessons, joining performing groups, etc.
- VI. Make Judgments About Music, and Value the Personal Worth of Music.
 - A. Distinguish parodies from their models.
 - B. Be able to describe an important personal "musical" experience. (Norris 10-16)

The first music assessment based on the above objectives was administered in 1971-72. Following the collection and examination of

the data it was determined that several of the objectives should be reviewed and changed before the next full assessment; therefore, a committee of music educators from the university, secondary, and elementary level, laypeople and the NAEP staff met during 1972-73 to formulate objectives for the second assessment. According to the NAEP report, Music 1971-79: Results From the Second National Assessment the following guidelines were developed:

The development panel wanted the objectives for the second assessment to be broadened to apply to all students, regardless of their exposure to music education or formal music training. While conceptually similar, the 1978-79 objectives tend to emphasize the affective domain (Objective I) to a greater degree than the objectives for the first music assessment. Another concern of the development panel was that a greater variety of music be represented; therefore, the second assessment included more than formal art music. Also, those involved in developing the new objectives suggested that data be gathered on the music training background of each respondent so that a context could be provided for interpreting the music achievement level of students. (3-4)

As a result of the meeting, some of the 1971-72 objectives were changed or deleted. The following basic music objectives listed in the Procedural Handbook, 1978-79 Music Assessment were adopted for the 1978-79 Assessment:

- I. Value Music as an Important Realm of Human Experience
 - A. Be affectively responsive to music
 - B. Be acquainted with music from different nations, cultures, periods, genres and ethnic groups
 - C. Value music in the life of the individual, family and community
 - D. Make and support aesthetic judgments about music
- II. Perform Music
 - A. Sing (without score)
 - B. Play (without score)
 - C. Sing or play from a written score
 - D. Play or sing a previously prepared piece

- III. Create Music
 - A. Improvise
 - B. Represent music symbolically

- IV. Identify the Element and Expressive Controls of Music
 - A. Identify the elements of music
 - B. Identify the relationships of elements in a given composition
 - C. Demonstrate an understanding of a variety of musical terms, expression markings and conducting gestures in a musical context

- V. Identify and Classify Music Historically and Culturally
 - A. Identify and describe the features that characterize a variety of folk, ethnic, popular and art music
 - B. Identify and describe the music and musical style of the various stylistic periods in Western civilization (e.g., Medieval, Renaissance, Baroque, Classical, Romantic), Identify representative composers of each period
 - C. Cite examples of ways in which man utilizes music in his social and cultural life (2-3)

NAEP and the Rural School

One of the variables utilized by NAEP defines size and type of community (STOC). The groups within these categories are judged by the size and type of community as well as the type of occupations within; therefore, when following the NAEP guidelines two variables must be considered: (1) size of community, and (2) type of community. The NAEP listed the following guidelines from their second assessment:

Size of Community

Smaller Places - Students in this group attend schools in communities having a population less than 25,000 and not classified in the fringes-around-big-cities category. (Martin 10)

Type of Community

Extreme Rural - Students in this group attend schools in areas with a population under 10,000 where most of the residents are farmers or farm workers. (Martin 10)

According to information provided in Music 1971-79: Results From the Second National Music Assessment, thirteen-year-old students in rural areas scored correct answers 50.16% of the time compared with a national mean of 52.31% correct on 125 music exercises. When broken down by objectives, rural students scored a higher percentage correct on Objective I, and lower on Objectives IV and V. (See Table 1)

Table 1. NAEP group results of mean percent correct, Age 13, 1978 assessment.

	Objective I (20 Exercises)	Objective IV (50 Exercises)	Objective V (55 Exercises)	Total (125 Exercises)
Nation	74.91%	60.89%	36.29%	52.34%
Rural	77.81	55.51	35.24	50.16

Rural schools are located in practically all areas of the United States where most of the residents are farmers or farm workers. In terms of the National Assessment most schools in the State of Montana would fit this description. The NAEP description would definitely fit the area of the proposed study located in Southwestern Montana where the largest independent elementary school district to be surveyed is located in a town with a population of approximately 4000 according to the 1980 census (Montana). In addition, many of the students attend rural schools that are not located within a designated town or village and may have one to four teachers who are responsible for the entire K-8 curriculum.

Over the past several years there has been a renewed interest in the status of education in rural schools in the United States. Surveys

have been taken, documents have been written, and even the national television media have become involved with documentaries on rural education such as the ABC documentary "20/20" that was shown nationwide in January of 1984. The ABC documentary, arranged through the Rural Education Center at Western Montana College, focused national attention on rural education in the state of Montana (Freedman). According to the Directory of Montana Rural School's (Directory), published by the Montana Rural Education Center, there were 214 rural K-8 elementary schools with enrollment of 100 or less as illustrated in the following table:

Table 2. Rural Montana K-8 schools with enrollment of 100 or less.

Number of Teachers at each school	Number of Schools
1	114
2	47
3	17
4	20
5	5
6	6
7	2
8	1
9	0
10	2
4668 - Total Students	214 Total K-8 Schools

There may be a misconception that the educational problems faced by educators and students in low-socioeconomic or impoverished urban areas are also indigenous to the rural area. In his paper, National Assessment and Rural Education, Henderson stated that:

