perience credit hours for a course on school business management. He had served for several years as assistant superintendent for business and as school district treasurer.

A principal and a former assistant principal demonstrated competence in the area of school/community relations. One had developed and the other had worked extensively with a school/community communication network. After he had documented his experience, the assistant principal was asked to teach a unit on the scientific selection of a representative community sample for a school district poll.

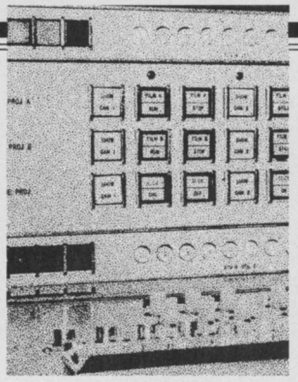
A full-time doctoral student petitioned for six hours of credit in the higher education internship program, because she had been employed for 16 months by WWVU-TV. Her request fell within existing policy guidelines, and it was granted. However, her request caused faculty members to re-examine their goals for the internship. They ultimately decided that the internship should give students new challenges and experiences. Therefore, the policy was modified in January 1978 to exclude the substitution of life experience credit for the internship or for the planned field-based experience.

The first eight recipients of life experience credit were advanced graduate students. Clearly, developing competences in administrative areas is a function of both experience and education.

The greatest number of requests for life experience credit are in such practical areas of administration as school business management, facilities administration, and school/community relations. Perhaps competences in these areas are more easily documented. More of the initial applicants also held positions as superintendent or assistant superintendent than other administrative positions. Length of service is obviously related to development of competence.

Critics of life experience credit may argue that administrators with vast experience and considerable competence in given areas can still profit from classroom interactions. We concur. However, in our experience, administrators avoid courses that cover areas in which they feel competent. If they do enroll, such courses often disintegrate into a dialogue between the professor and the administrator, and the rest of the class suffers.

Professionally monitored life experience credit offers advantages to both the student and the department. The institution recognizes student competences through the granting of credit. This may result in earlier program completion, permanent certification, additional certification, or salary increases. Meanwhile, faculty members gain when field administrators come to realize that professors *do* recognize competence when they see it. Faculty members also learn about innovative programs that have been implemented in the field. Moreover, the approval process for life experience credit gives faculty members access to such pertinent field documents as budgets, sample bonds, facility specifications, and brochures for building campaigns. □



RESEARCH

Credit for Experiential Learning in Michigan

by Richard J. Doyle

Increasingly, college students are seeking credit for experiential learning. Postsecondary institutions have responded by granting credit for a wide variety of experiences. However, national studies have shown that students who receive such credit often have difficulty transferring it from institution to institution.[1]

Thus the Michigan Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers joined with the Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning to establish an experiential learning committee.[2] The goal of the committee was to compare Michigan practices with national trends in the awarding and transferring of credits for nontraditional or experiential learning.

The committee surveyed the practices of 78 Michigan colleges and universities in five areas: methods of awarding credit, the status of existing experiential learning programs, policies and procedures, transfer of credits, and transcripting of credits.

Table 1 shows the methods most often used by these 78 institutions for awarding credit for nonsponsored experiential learning. The most popular methods in Michigan proved to be those that are also the most familiar nationally and the most highly standardized.

Although 86% of the respondents indicated that their institutions use the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) in awarding credit for nonsponsored experiential learning, only 53% reported that their institutions have programs for recognizing nonsponsored experiential learning. Perhaps, in answering this item, respondents thought only of the less standardized, less familiar, more "exotic" forms of nonsponsored experiential learning, such as portfolio or individual assessment.

Most institutions that award credit for nonsponsored experiential learning set no time limit on assessing experiences and

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Table 1. Methods of Awarding Credit for Nonsponsored Experiential Learning Used by Michigan Institutions

Method	Use %	Don't Use/ No Response %
College Level Examination Program (CLEP)	86	14
Institutional credit by examination	81	19
American Council on Education (ACE) [military service school]	71	29
College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB)	68	32
Portfolio assessment	42	58
American Council on Education (ACE) [noncollegiate organizations]	41	59
American Council on Education (ACE) [military occupational specialty]	38	62
Proficiency Examination Program (PEP)	24	76
Other standardized tests	12	88
Individual assessment	8	92
Other	3	97

granting credit for them after a student is admitted. Most of these institutions also make this credit option available to all students. The majority award credit for nonsponsored experiential learning rather than waiving lower-level courses. Two-thirds of the institutions that give such credit report that nonsponsored experiential learning can fulfill from 11% to 50% of the requirements for a degree. In practice, however, less than 10% of degree credit requirements are actually fulfilled through nonsponsored experiential learning.

More than 50% of the Michigan institutions that award credit for nonsponsored experiential learning also allow students to transfer this kind of credit from other institutions. Thirty-nine percent of the institutions refuse to accept this kind of credit when it has been awarded elsewhere. Six respondents stated that the lack of standard guidelines was the reason their institutions would not accept credit earned elsewhere for nonsponsored experiential learning.

The awarding of credit for nontraditional postsecondary programs is often thought to result in transcripts that third parties have trouble interpreting, because transcripting practices vary widely. Sixty-six percent of the Michigan institutions we surveyed designate nonsponsored experiential learning credit on student records as general education, free electives, or major area of concentration. Ninety-three percent of the respondents reported that their institutions award no letter grades for nonsponsored experiential learning and that these institutions use only one transcript format. Eighty-three percent of the respondents reported that third parties have little difficulty in interpreting their institutions' transcripts, but 93% said that no explanation of assessment and crediting practices for nonsponsored experiential learning is attached to student transcripts.

We asked respondents to provide sample transcripts, and 12 did so. After studying these sample transcripts, the experiential learning committee concluded that all of them were easy to interpret by third parties, even though they used a variety of formats.

1. Morris Keeton and Pamela Tate, *The Practice of Experiential Learning: A CAEL Status Report* (Columbia, Md: Council for the Advancement of Experiential Learning, 1978); Frederick C. Kintzer, "Problems in Awarding and Transferring Experiential Learning Credits," and Lucy Ruth Rowe, "How Transcripts for Experiential Learning Assist in Articulation," both in S. V. Mortorana and Eileen Kuhns, eds., *Transferring Experiential Credit* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979).

2. This summary was prepared with the assistance of Joanne Bassett, Memphis State University. Other members of the committee were Mary Lou Baker, Detroit Institute of Technology; William Dunham, Central Michigan University; Donald E. Mullens, Ferris State College; and Pennola Presley and Judy Sullivan, both of Kalamazoo Valley Community College. Copies of the complete report can be obtained from any of these committee members. □

The Impact of Bargaining On Pupil/Teacher Ratio

by Dennis C. Zuelke

Collective bargaining does not significantly affect pupil/teacher ratios in small to intermediate-sized Wisconsin public school districts (K-12). However, pupil/teacher ratio tends to increase slightly as bargaining becomes more sophisticated. These are the findings of my study of 50 public school districts that engage in formal collective bargaining with teacher representatives.

I reanalyzed data from a study I conducted with Lloyd Frohreich that showed a negative relationship between comprehensive collective bargaining in small and intermediate-sized Wisconsin school districts (those with an average enrollment of approximately 2,000) and 10 different measures of teacher salaries.[1] This time I analyzed the relationship between the same variable — comprehensive collective bargaining — and pupil/teacher ratio in the same random sample of 50 K-12 public school districts.[2]

The ratio of number of pupils to number of full-time equivalent teachers (excluding teacher aides and administrators) in each of the 50 K-12 public school districts ranged from 13.6:1 to 24:1. The average ratio was slightly over 19:1.

A stepwise multiple linear regression analysis indicated a slight positive relationship between comprehensive collective bargaining and pupil/teacher ratio. This suggests that pupil/teacher ratios tend to increase where more comprehensive negotiations arrangements exist. But this finding is *not* statistically significant, and the percentage of variance in pupil/teacher ratio explained by the collective negotiations is negligible (slightly more than .2%).

Other factors explained far more of the variance in pupil/teacher ratio than did collective negotiations. Those factors that had positive relationships ($p < .10$) with pupil/teacher ratios included: pupil enrollment, teachers' minimum scheduled salary, adjusted gross income per capita, percentage of district income for K-12 education that came from local sources, and percentage of teachers with five or more years of experience. The number of full-time-equivalent classroom teachers, fiscal dependence of the school district, percentage of teachers in the district with advanced degrees, teacher turnover, equalized property valuation per pupil, and percentage of total general property tax rate designated for K-12 education all had negative relationships ($p < .10$) with pupil/teacher ratio.

Together these other factors explained 76% of the total variance in pupil/teacher ratio. The regression model (taking ac-

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